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Effective Practices in Juvenile Correctional Education: A Study of the Literature and Research 1980 -1992

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Effective Practices in Juvenile Correctional Education: A Study of the Literature and Research 1980 - 1992

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Introduction

A Challenge To Reform Juvenile Correctional Education

The Challenge

This publication carries a challenge to all who are in a position to influence the future course of the education of juvenile delinquents, from the legislator and policy maker to the correctional classroom teacher. It is based on the conviction that education can and must play an ever greater role in the lives of delinquent and at-risk youth if we are to stem the tide of juvenile predatory crime, gang membership, hopelessness, and all-too-frequent early death by either violence or suicide. It is also based on the belief that *if correctional education is to play a more significant role leading to greater positive results, it needs to be thoroughly reformed—perhaps even reinvented.* Our challenge is to rethink and reform correctional education for juveniles in the light of the body of knowledge presented in this publication. It is a challenge to create a future vision of juvenile correctional education with new assumptions based on future possibilities.

Our research findings send several significant messages for reform. It tells us that delinquent and at-risk children must be provided the opportunity to develop their cognitive skills, tackle more challenging tasks, and move beyond the drudgery of drill and practice of basics. It tells us that attending to these children's academic skills without paying attention to their equally great, or greater, need for developing their social and moral reasoning skills is likely to be an effort in futility. It tells us that the current labor market demands a different educational approach as well as a longer and more advanced academic and vocational training curriculum. It tells us that none of this can be done with teachers applying yesterday's traditional pedagogy to these troubled and educationally disabled, delayed, or deprived children of today. Finally, this body of accumulated knowledge asks correctional educators to be more self-conscious in their work, to study and document programs and practices they find effective, to subject them to rigorous evaluation meeting standards of social and educational research, and to share their findings with other practitioners through publication.

The challenge to create a new paradigm for juvenile correctional education is primarily directed at educators. It is presented, however, with the awareness that any of the techniques, practices, or methods described in the following pages can only be successfully implemented in correctional agencies and programs that value education to the point of perceiving it as the core of rehabilitative programming and are willing to commit sufficient resources. *Without administrative support at the highest levels of organizational structures—as well as from legislators and policy makers—efforts to improve, let alone reinvent, education for adjudicated youth will never move beyond the realm of good intentions.*

We are confident, however, that the knowledge exists on which to base the renewal of juvenile correctional education. As President Clinton Stated in a 1993 address to the Democratic Leadership, "Every educational problem in America has been solved by someone, somewhere." He implied that what is needed is to pool the information from exemplary schools and make it available to less-successful schools. William Raspberry, a syndicated columnist, suggests that educational leaders should follow President Clinton's recommendation and should compile, analyze, and teach "best practices" to teachers struggling to improve education, particularly of poor black and brown children.

Raspberry quotes the late education guru Ron Edmonds who said: "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 in order to do that. Whether or not we do it must finally depend upon how we feel about the fact that we haven't so far."[1] Although Raspberry and Edmonds address the education of disadvantaged children generally, their words constitute a challenge to those in charge of delivering correctional education and to those in legislative or policy roles whose job it is to make sure that the work gets done and done well. *The education of delinquents must arouse our interest and determination not only for humanitarian reasons but because the high cost of neglect is shared by society at large.*

Background and Purpose of Study

To assist juvenile correctional agencies in their efforts to improve the effectiveness of their educational programs for delinquent youth, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) of the U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ) entered into a three year cooperative agreement, starting in 1992, with the National Office for Social Responsibility. The overall effort involved the identification of educational practices proven effective with delinquent, at-risk, and disadvantaged children and assistance to juvenile correctional agencies in adopting such practices through the provision of information, technical assistance, and training.

The first phase of the project was devoted to a comprehensive search of juvenile correctional education literature and research. The objective of the search was to gauge the accumulated knowledge and experience in juvenile correctional education and to identify research-based, effective programs and practices; in other words, to find an answer to the question made famous by Robert Martinson in 1974—"What works?"[2] This publication is the result of that search. It is intended as a practical guide, primarily for practitioners, but it could also be useful for researchers, policy makers, and university students. It identifies, summarizes, and analyzes a large number of sources not previously brought together under one cover. It incorporates a number of previous, smaller topical searches and puts them all into one, comprehensive, easily usable guide.

Martinson's work in the 1970's constituted a challenge to the future to do a better job in both rehabilitation programming and research conducted on such programs. It also created a strong doubt about the efficacy of such programming which has had a negative effect in terms of policy and funding support. It must be remembered that Martinson based his conclusions that nothing, or at least very little, works on two premises. First, he based his findings only on research that met his very rigorous standards for scientific research. Second, he used "reduced recidivism" as the sole measure of success. Ted Palmer, in an article written in response to Martinson, stressed that Martinson's approach was an all or nothing approach, never focusing on degrees of effectiveness or on success with some but not all offenders. He suggests that the research question should be rewritten. Rather than asking, "What works--for offenders as a whole?"; we should ask: "Which methods work best for which types

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[1] As quoted by William Raspberry in *The Washington Post*, March 7, 1994, A18.

[2] "What works?—Questions and answers about prison reform." *The Public Interest.* Spring 1974: 22–54.

of offenders, and under what conditions or in what types of settings?" It is the latter question we find not only to be the most relevant to this literature and research review of juvenile correctional education programs but also for future research to be conducted in this area.

State of the Art of Juvenile Correctional Education Research

The review of the available literature and research pertaining to juvenile correctional education may at first seem to have brought a meager harvest. The research in this area is slim—if by "research" is meant only rigorous experimental studies.[3] The research from the 1980-1992 period consists almost exclusively of some survey research and a few program evaluations. From a research point of view, the studies of prevalence of disabilities among juvenile offenders appear the strongest. Yet, they have limited application for those who deliver programs to juvenile offenders. The reasons for the lack of controlled research in correctional education in the 1980's are not hard to determine. The decade was marked by huge Federal deficits and intermittent efforts to cut budgets. With growing costs of housing the increased number of juvenile offenders, fear of juvenile violent crime, and stringent budgets; research monies were hard to come by. Within juvenile correctional institutions there is also limited time to do research—or to have much impact—since clients usually stay a relatively short time. Furthermore, for follow-up research, there are often several, and at times not cooperating, jurisdictions and/or social agencies involved. All of this has made outcome-based research, including post-release follow-up studies over time, a scarcity.

Educators have been ambivalent about using recidivism as the *sole*, or even as *a*, measure of their program efforts. An "effective education program" is to most educators a program that meets the *educational* goals established, regardless of whether the student later on commits further delinquent acts. Yet, educators must acknowledge that society which foots the enormous bills for the juvenile justice system has a vested interest and a right to find out whether or not any or all of the components of that system—including correctional education—contribute to the overall desired result, namely reduced recidivism, preferably coupled with further education and enhanced employability after release of these offenders. Correctional education research in the future needs to have a dual focus. First, it needs to focus on the effectiveness of correctional education as *education*. This type of research would lead to improved programs and methods. We believe that our study includes a great deal in this area that could immediately be put into practice and would lead to more effective education. We believe with Martinson that *the ultimate test of whether or not correctional education is effective in reducing delinquency can only be made when the programs measured are effective in meeting educational goals*. Further linkages between juvenile corrections and the university research community on State and local levels could generate much of this educational research at relatively modest costs. For longitudinal, post-release outcome research to take place, the Federal government needs to become more of a catalyst as well as a financial underwriter. The overall research question here must be: "What correctional education programs--with which constituent components--work best for what types of

[3] By this we mean a study that employs an independent measure of the improvement generated by a program; it has to use some control group of persons not receiving the program measured and with whom the program participants could be measured.

juvenile offenders (differentiated by age, sex, disabilities, types of offenses, etc.), and under what conditions or in what types of settings (training school, community-based, boot camp, etc.)?"

Although much of the literature reviewed for this publication is descriptive, summary, or anecdotal and makes no claim to be research based, it still provides a wealth of valuable information and some partial answers to the question posed above. This literature is, however, highly varied not only in quality but in areas of juvenile correctional education covered. It is relatively strong, quantitatively as well as qualitatively, in the areas of Special Education, disability prevalence studies, transition programming, standards, and psychoeducational programs (social and life skills; moral, cognitive education). It is generally stronger in theory than in information directly applicable to teaching and classroom management. It speaks more to the administrator, planner, or academician than to the instructor. The literature is meager and of generally poorer quality in the areas of assessment and evaluation, academic programs, curriculum, instructional methodology, and educational technology. There is little on the special needs of female offenders and on multi-cultural issues. Virtually absent is any literature on vocational training, work programs, physical education, and enrichment programs--art, music, drama. *Perhaps due to the isolation of so many juvenile correctional facilities, and subsequently of their education staffs, from mainstream academic communities, schools, and think tanks, correctional education from the 1980's seems strangely myopic, turned inward, and unaware of the educational debates, reform movements, and research results in terms of effective practices that have characterized the decade in society at large.* Despite the fact that the Federal Government conducts a biannual census of children in custody, *to date there has been no systematic, perennial, nationwide collection of data pertaining to the educational background, performance level, and correctional education programming for these youths. No systematic and cumulative data exist to show what programs these children receive, from what kind of staff, at what cost—let alone with what results. In other words, we lack most of the data that an intelligent and concerned legislator, policy-maker, and administrator would need to have in order to make decisions in terms of both funding and program policy.* The national survey recently developed and piloted by the Office of Correctional Education in the U.S. Department of Education would fill this gap if conducted, like the Bureau of Justice census, steadily on a biannual basis.

Although the literature search did reveal some good programs, it did not uncover a single model program worthy of broad replication. Considering the variety of the students served in correctional education programs (in terms of age, ability, sex, race, disabilities, degrees of delinquency, and geographical region), the very concept of a replicable model program is highly doubtful. What is clear, however, is that from the literature and research practitioners can derive knowledge of effective practices and components essential in effective programs for delinquent and at-risk students. The juvenile correctional education literature and research from 1980-1992, despite their flaws, present a large amount of practical advice, "best guesses" if not "proven effective practices," a great deal of experience, observation, and experimentation. It presents a smorgasbord for practitioners, from which they can pick and choose that which would best fit their specific types of students and settings and which could assist them in *improving* their current programs and practices.

Scope of Study

The following three principles were followed in the selection of the literature and research to be included in this publication. First, the scope of the search was limited to the period 1980–1992.

Second, while the primary search centered around literature and research in which the main focus was on juvenile correctional education (found in books, articles, papers, or reports), it soon became evident that the search had to be expanded to include literature and research with a broader context. This included literature dealing with current major educational issues, relevant social issues, causes of delinquency and characteristics of young offenders, and the changing nature and new requirements for workers in the current and future labor market. Third, although there is relatively little scientific research in the field of correctional education, the 1980's have produced a great deal of solid research in tangential areas involving a similar population. Such literature has been selectively incorporated into this guide. Of particular potential value to correctional educators are the many findings of the Effective Schools Research, which focused on at-risk children in public schools and advocated substantial changes in curricula, methodology, and management in order to meet the needs of these children and make them more effective in as well as after leaving school. Also included in the guide are relevant findings in the literature and research which focus on the educational components of the youth programs funded under the Federal Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA), and the materials published by the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS), U.S. Department of Labor (DOL).

Most of the literature included in this publication focuses on delinquents in large State-operated juvenile correctional facilities. This is due to two reasons. First, there is very little literature and research dealing with correctional education in community-based or privately operated programs. Second, the State-operated training schools are still, in most States, the primary providers of correctional education for adjudicated children, while community based programs, which have clients a relatively short period of time, often send children to regular or alternative public schools. Since State training schools are often not only the second chance, but the last chance, for a decent education for delinquent youth, it is important that quality education is made available in these institutions. Although the focus is on State-operated residential facilities, there is nonetheless a great deal of material in this publication that either deals with other correctional settings or is equally applicable in settings such as juvenile detention and day treatment centers, e.g. community-based court schools.

Problems in Identifying Correctional Education Literature and Research

Our literature search was hampered by many factors. For instance, there is to date no specialized clearinghouse or data base for correctional education. Neither the National Institute of Corrections (NIC) Information Center nor the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS) has systematically collected correctional education literature. The correctional education materials which they have are sparse and spotty. There is no special clearinghouse for correctional education among the 16 Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) system, although some correctional education items appear under such ERIC clearinghouses as "Disabilities and Gifted Education" and "Adult, Career, and Vocational Education." This makes it extraordinarily difficult to track down materials such as articles, papers, and reports that have not been published in book form. Furthermore, very few books and journals devoted entirely to juvenile correctional education exist. Finally, from our study of all the back issues of the *Journal of Correctional Education* since 1980, it is quite clear that the only professional journal in the field focuses far more on *adult* than on *juvenile* correctional education, except in the area of *special education*. There may well be both published and unpublished materials that have escaped the net cast for this study. We trust, however, that this is not a very large volume.

Through a number of searches (Library of Congress, ERIC, NCJRS, NIC), we identified a relatively large number of items (journal articles, papers, reports, and chapters in books) of varying degrees of quality and usefulness to practitioners in the field. We had to exercise selectivity in terms of what to include in this publication. The general principles guiding our selection included: (1) a focus on materials most *useful* to correctional educators and administrators in juvenile corrections; (2) *quality* literature and research; and (3) easy *access* to the materials considered. For instance, an unpublished paper, however excellent, is exceedingly hard to access. Therefore, if the information in an unpublished paper was considered useful to practitioners, we included an indepth abstract of its content.

Organization and Use of Study

This publication is organized in three major parts: an analytical review of the literature; a summary of recommended, effective practices; and a bibliography with abstracts. Part I, *Analytical Overview by Topical Area of the Literature and Research in Juvenile Correctional Education*, includes topics of special interest for administrators, teachers and school principals, and for the academic and research communities. In each topical area we summarize and analyze the available literature. Part II, *Documented Effective Practices in the Education of At-Risk and Delinquent Youth*, summarizes the findings from several bodies of literature and research (e.g., correctional education, Job Corps, JTPA, and the Effective Schools Research). Part III, the *Bibliography with Abstracts*, includes annotations and abstracts of varying lengths, depending on a number of factors. In general, we have tried to provide enough information in each abstract to allow the user to determine whether to track down and read the source document in its entirety. For materials which present findings from research, we have focused on the data, especially if quantifiable, usually with only a brief description of the research methodology. We encourage readers to approach this publication as a whole at first in order to grasp the overall challenge and direction. Later on it can be used as a reference guide to look up specific topics or to pursue further readings. We also hope that this work will be used in inservice training and planning activities. The challenge is for readers to rethink their own programs and practices in the light of this body of knowledge as a prelude to reform, renewal, and change.

Conclusion

The more we studied this body of literature—inside as well as outside correctional education—the more we became convinced that *the knowledge exists to transform and make the schooling of delinquent youth more effective*. In the past the obstacle has often been that administrators, academicians, correctional educators, and politicians have not been aware of this knowledge, especially if it has been generated outside what they consider their own fields. It is our hope that this publication will serve as a catalyst to all who are in a position to make drastic improvements in schools for adjudicated youths. As Lisbeth Schorr points out, breaking the cycle of disadvantage and "adolescent rotten outcomes" is not a matter of beating the odds, but *changing the odds*.[4] We believe it is now possible, based on the accumulated knowledge of the past decade, to radically change juvenile correctional education and make it one of the most effective tools in the combat against juvenile crime and juvenile violence.

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[4] *Within Our Reach: Breaking the Cycle of Disadvantage*, 1988.

PART I

Analytical Overview By Topical Area of the Literature and Research in Juvenile Correctional Education

Section 1

The Context Of Correctional Education

Crime and Delinquency

In January of 1994 the Children's Defense Fund (CDF) released its annual State of America's Children report, which focused on the rising violence by and against children. It pointed out that homicide is now the third leading cause of death for elementary and middle school children, with a death toll of nearly 50,000 between 1979 and 1991, equivalent to that of Americans killed in the Vietnam War. The Children's Defense Fund finds the rising violence to be the result of a number of neglected social problems—poverty, economic inequality, racial intolerance, substance abuse, domestic abuse and neglect, increase in divorce and out-of-marriage births, and mayhem featured in the media. The impact of this violence on children in high crime areas amounts to a form of post-traumatic stress disorder usually associated with war veterans and children in war ravaged countries.

The Children's Defense Fund argues for increased attention to preventive measures such as education, family support programs, jobs for young people, and tight control on guns and ammunition. Currently, however, the public's fear of crime—especially violent crime committed by the very young—has led many politicians to call for more serious sanctions such as referring more and more violent juvenile offenders to adult courts and committing more of them to adult correctional institutions.

The increase in violent crime is reflected in the custody rate, which grew by 46 percent in the 1978-1989 period, with an accompanying increase of 50 percent in juvenile detention. Despite the deinstitutionalization of status offenders and some of those who have committed non-violent crimes, the population in State training schools has increased more than 20 percent over the past decade. The past decade also shows growing privatization of juvenile corrections, leaving State residential facilities with increasingly more serious offenders with high recidivism rates (Krisberg, DeComo, and Herrera, 1992).

Poverty and Juvenile Crime

As Lisbeth Schorr (1988) has pointed out, poverty is the greatest risk factor of all, "relentlessly correlated with high rates of school-age childbearing, school failure, and violent crime." Due to economic stagnation and high unemployment in recent years, the number of American children in poverty has increased through 1992. The CDF estimates that 14.6 million, or 21.9 percent of all children in America, now live beneath the poverty line. This is the highest since 1965. William Julius Wilson (1987), a black sociologist at the University of Chicago, Stated that 46 percent of all black children under age 18 now live in families below poverty level, three-fourths of these in families headed by females alone. Simultaneously, the percentage of black males in the labor force has fallen dramatically. As Wilson points out, the problem of joblessness for young black men has reached "catastrophic proportions." The "truly disadvantaged," in Wilson's terminology, are those who are socially and economically isolated in urban ghettos, abandoned not only by economically better off whites but also by the black, educated middle class as well. This is the pool for the greatest number of young, violent offenders today.

Wilson believes that the only way out for the "truly disadvantaged" is through employment. He supports a national policy emphasizing macroeconomic employment policies and labor market strategies that include training and retraining efforts, transitional employment benefits, child support assurance programs, child care strategies, and some means tested and race specific targeted programs.

School, Poverty, and Crime

A General Accounting Office (GAO) report has pointed out that the labor market problems of juveniles and young adults are largely the result of doing poorly in school and dropping out of school prematurely. The school drop-outs face a bleak future. Schorr (1988) cites statistics showing: drop-outs are three and a half times as likely to be arrested as high school graduates; six times as likely to become unwed parents; seven and a half times as likely to become welfare dependent; twice as likely to be unemployed and live in poverty. A recent U.S. Department of Education (ED) report on adult literacy in America (1993) shows a direct relationship between literacy level and employment and earnings. The prison population performed significantly worse than the total population on all three literacy measures—prose, document, and quantitative. In this population, between 31 and 40 percent (as compared to 21-23 percent in the general population) functioned on the lowest literacy level, and another 32-37 percent on the next to the lowest level. These literacy levels are totally insufficient in today's labor market.

The Labor Market

As pointed out in *Workforce 2000* (1987), the service industry will create almost all of the new jobs and most of the new wealth now and in the future. These jobs will demand higher skill levels than earlier, with a concomitant decline in low or unskilled jobs. This will lead to both higher and lower unemployment; more joblessness among the least skilled and least educated, less among the most educationally advantaged. The new jobs will require higher levels of literacy, math, and reasoning skills. For the first time in U.S. history, the median years of schooling required for the fastest growing jobs is 13.5 years (i.e., a high school diploma plus some postsecondary education). Another trend is that the lower skilled jobs will not only dwindle but pay proportionately less in the future.

Under the pressure of the labor market demands, the Secretary of Labor under the George Bush administration established a Secretary's Commission for Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) to identify the skills and competencies required for labor market entry and future success and to recommend changes in public school education necessary to reach such goals. As this publication will discuss in further detail, SCANS identified five "workplace competencies" and three "foundation skills" as constituting job readiness. The basic skills include the usual academic literacy and arithmetic skills, as well as personal and cognitive skills. The competencies encompass the ability to use resources, work with others, acquire and use information, understand complex systems and relationships, and utilize a variety of technologies. SCANS found that less than fifty percent of America's high school graduates are currently employment ready.

Education Policy in the 1980's

Education policy fluctuated during the 1980's under three presidencies. The Reagan administration began by trying to abolish the U.S. Department of Education (ED), perhaps a sign of the relative insignificance of education in its early policy. Then, in 1981, it established a National Commission

on Excellence in Education to conduct a study and issue a report on the status of education in America. The words of the final report, entitled *A Nation at Risk* (1983), would reverberate far beyond the Reagan administration's expectations and force the nation to focus more on education. The authors sounded the alarm that the once proud American public school system was being "eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our very future as a Nation and a people." They pointed out that the U.S. had gradually committed an "act of unthinking, unilateral educational disarmament." The Commission recommended a number of broad educational reforms, including: strengthening the curriculum and requirements for high school graduation, more rigorous and measurable standards on all levels, more time devoted to academic basics, improvements in teacher preparation and rewards, and strengthening educational leadership. On the popular level, these recommendations were translated into "Back to basics!" As we shall see in other sections of this publication, the subsequent reform efforts have had little impact on at-risk and poor students and may even have added to their previous disadvantage as compared to students from more affluent and middle-class homes who send their children to better funded public schools. The growing gaps between rich and poor schools were studied by Jonathan Kozol and reported in his book *Savage Inequalities: Children in America's Schools*.[5]

Based on an education conference with the nation's governors, the Bush administration issued *America 2000: An Education Strategy* which contained six national education goals to be achieved by the year 2000:

1. All children will start school ready to learn.
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90 percent.
3. American students will leave grades four, eight, and twelve with demonstrated competencies in basic subjects such as English, mathematics, science, history, and geography.
4. U.S. students will be first in the world in science and mathematics.
5. Every adult will be literate.
6. Every school will be free of drugs and violence and offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning.

These goals have been incorporated, virtually unchanged, in President Clinton's *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* which was signed into law by President Clinton on March 26, 1994. It is still unclear, however, to what extent these goals and strategy will improve the educational opportunities for disadvantaged and at-risk children. Some fear that with increased emphasis on performance standards, graduation requirements, and world competition; the gap between rich and poor, and between mainstream and at-risk children will widen—unless the recommendations of the "Effective Schools Research" are implemented. This body of research has identified effective practices for the children of poverty that would enable them to do better in school, graduate from high school in larger numbers, and become successful in the labor market.

Correctional Education in the 1980's

Two phenomena pertaining to correctional education during the 1980's can be easily distinguished. First, the U.S. Department of Education and Congress took some initiatives to strengthen and foster

[5] New York: Crown Publishers, Inc. 1991.

correctional education. Second, correctional education emerged as a more identifiable profession with its own national office, standards, and agenda.

In 1980, with funding support from the National Institute of Corrections (NIC), an Office of Correctional Education was established in ED to assist the field with information, technical assistance, and a few minimally funded demonstration projects. During the past decade, a number of Federal laws have been enacted which either permit, designate, or facilitate funding of correctional education. Of particular importance are the funds available through the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Act, Chapter I of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (ECIA), the Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA), and from the Adult Education Acts. Furthermore, the pressure on States to provide services for all children with disabilities (including those in correctional facilities) has significantly improved services for delinquents, some 32 percent of whom may be disabled according to the definitions in the Federal law.

In 1983 the Correctional Education Association (CEA) established a national office in Washington, D.C., and shortly thereafter the State and Federal directors of correctional education formed an association. These efforts provided the foundation for better communications and flow of resources and information among members as well as between the field and the Federal government. These initiatives helped correctional education to establish its own identity, related to but not identical with that of U.S. mainstream public school education. However, these initiatives were largely focused on adult offenders, with significantly less attention paid to the problems and needs of juvenile offenders.

Thus, as the U.S. moves deeper into the 1990's, the groundwork is already laid for correctional educators to make use of a large body of information to reform and restructure juvenile correctional education. The correctional education literature we reviewed, however, reflects little awareness of the many important changes occurring in education, employment preparation, and the labor market. It also reflects a lack of current knowledge about effective educational practices for at-risk and delinquent children. Correctional educators must look beyond their own narrow parameters and must let new ideas in, while educational researchers must increase their awareness and involvement in correctional education. If effective educational practices are developed with juvenile delinquents in correctional facilities, it is likely that these same practices can be applied in the community on a preventive basis.

Section 2

Characteristics Of Juvenile Correctional Students

Demographic Profile

Since 1971 the Bureau of the Census has conducted a biannual census of children in public and private correctional facilities.[6] From these data are obtained demographic information of the youths housed in correctional facilities as well as trends in juvenile custody. Unfortunately for the correctional educator, the census has not included data on the educational levels of children in custody, their prior school experiences, or their educational programming while under supervision. At the present time, no single public or private organization systematically collects educational data on juvenile offenders.[7]

The correctional educator, however, should be aware of the basic demographics and trends pertaining to juvenile offenders. The latest census from which published data and analyses exist is that of 1989 (Allen-Hagen, 1991; Thornberry et al., 1991; Krisberg, DeComo, and Herrera, 1992).[8] The census showed total admissions of juveniles to public and private facilities in 1989 to be 760,644, with a 1-day count at 93,945. These children are spread over some 3,267 public and private facilities. A noted change in recent years is the increase in private facilities, which now house 40 percent of the juveniles in custody. Although the general youth population has declined 11 percent between 1979 and 1989, the number of juveniles in custody has increased 31 percent over the same decade. The current rate of annual increase is between 2.5 and 3.5 percent.

The population continues to be predominantly male (82 percent). Although there has been an increase in the total female juvenile correctional population, the admission of girls to public facilities has declined to only 12 percent, as 40 percent of girls are now admitted to private facilities. It is clear from the data that the increase of juveniles placed in private facilities have left behind in the public facilities the harder core offenders. As Krisberg, DeComo, and Herrera (1992) point out, the typical *public* institution delinquent is a black male, age 14-17, held for a property crime or offense against a person. The typical *private* institution offender, however, is most likely to be white, male, and held for a lesser, or nondelinquent, offense. Status offenders have almost disappeared from public correctional facilities. Currently 95 percent of all residents in public facilities have committed an offense that would have been a crime if committed by an adult.[9]

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[6] The census was originally conducted only with public agencies but started to include private agencies in 1974. Census-taking was conducted in 1975, 1977, 1979, 1983, 1985, 1987, 1989, 1991.

[7] The Office of Correctional Education in the U.S. Department of Education developed such a survey and plans to collect information on a regular basis.

[8] A census was taken in 1991, but the data have yet to be published as of the preparation of this document. The American Correctional Association takes an informal census every year to get data for inclusion in its annual *Directory*. The latest available ACA data on juvenile corrections are from June 1992.

[9] Despite much debate since the 1960's about deinstitutionalization of juvenile offenders, only youth under 12 and status offenders have by now been effectively deinstitutionalized (Lerman, 1990).

Minorities continue to be overrepresented with 60 percent of the total number of youth who are incarcerated (approximately 42 percent black, 15 percent Hispanic, and 2 percent other). Between 1987 and 1989 alone, the black delinquents in custody increased by 14 percent and the Hispanic by 10 percent (Allen-Hagen, 1991). The 1989 census also indicated an 8 percent increase in serious, violent offenses, with an amazing 18 percent increase for females. The increase has been even more dramatic over the five-year period from 1987 to 1991, during which juvenile arrests for murder increased by 85 percent. The 122,900 violent crime index arrests of juveniles in 1991 was the highest number in history (Allen-Hagen and Sickmund, 1993).

Data also indicate that juveniles are the most common victims of violent juvenile crime. In recent years approximately 960,000 juveniles are annually victimized by rape, robbery, or assault. In 1991 alone there were more than 6 youths murdered every day. It is speculated that the rise in the teen homicide rate, from 4 per 100,000 in 1984 to 11 per 100,000 in 1991, is partially a result of the increased severity and spread of youth gangs and the proliferation of guns among children. More than 70 percent of the murders were by gunshot. Property offenses, however, are still the most common (at 41 percent), although there has been a 4 percent decrease in admissions for such offenses during the 1987-1989 period. Thirteen percent of juvenile offenders were admitted with alcohol and/or drug related crimes, half of which involved distribution.

The average length of stay in a correctional facility in 1988 (the last published figure) was 192 days (6.4 months) for youths incarcerated in private facilities, as compared to 169 days (5.4 months) for those incarcerated in public facilities. The published Federal census information does not include data on costs. The American Correctional Association (ACA) reports that the cost for operating State juvenile correctional institutions housing 62,869 children in 1993 was approximately $1.5 billion, with an additional $61 million for capital outlays. In 1989 the annual per capita cost for an incarcerated youth in a State correctional facility ranged from $25,300 (in the West) to $47,000 (in the Northeast) (Allen-Hagen, 1991). It is not known whether education program costs are included in some or all cases and, if so, what proportion of total costs is spent on education.

As mentioned above, no agency or organization has as yet conducted a systematic survey of juvenile offenders in which education data are included. To try to develop an educational profile of these offenders, one has to get information piecemeal from the extant literature and research. Most of this literature deals with the relationship between delinquency and school failure rather than providing educational demographics.

School Failure and Delinquency

Children from disadvantaged backgrounds (i.e., most of the delinquents) are at risk for school failure, and school failure in turn makes them even more at risk for delinquency. As every correctional educator knows from experience, school failure is endemic among juvenile offenders. Schorr (1988) points out that "school failure and poor reading performance as early as the third grade, truancy, poor achievement, and misbehavior in elementary school, and the failure to master school skills throughout schooling are among the most reliable predictors of delinquency and other "adolescent rotten outcomes." Meltzer et al. (1984) compared a group of delinquents with a group of nondelinquents and found that the former had significantly higher prevalence of school problems as early as kindergarten. By the second grade, 45 percent of the delinquents were already delayed in reading as compared to only 14 percent of the nondelinquent group. Rincker, Reilly, and Braaten (1990) found that adolescent

delinquents showed an underachievement level of four years, with African-American males having the lowest achievement in reading comprehension and Hispanic males the lowest in arithmetic comprehension. They also determined that the poorer the child's performance in school the more likely he/she would turn delinquent. Allison, Leone, and Spero (1990) found that there is a relationship between drug and alcohol abuse and school failure and low commitment to school. As we have seen earlier, many delinquent juveniles have records of either alcohol or drug abuse or both.

Most studies on the correlation between school failure and delinquency have focused on children with disabilities and have been conducted by experts in the field of special education. Most of these studies focus on learning disabled (LD) children, although a few studies exist dealing with physical disabilities, mental retardation, or mental illness. Kaseno (1985), for example, conducted a project providing visual-perception testing to juvenile delinquents. He found a high percentage of undiagnosed and previously untreated visual perceptual problems. Treatment led to marked reductions in recidivism and improvements in reading skills. Hollander and Turner (1985) surveyed 200 incarcerated juveniles, 47 percent of whom had borderline IQs. Of these, 34 percent had overlapping symptoms of schizotypical paranoid and borderline personality disorders, another 19 percent showed specific developmental disabilities and/or attention deficit disorders. The diagnosis of conduct disorder with borderline IQ was significantly correlated with violent crime. Kardash and Rutherford (1983) found the incidence of emotional disturbance (ED) among juvenile delinquents to be 36 percent, as compared to only .9 percent among all students grades K-12.

Although no one has proved a direct, causal relationship between school failure and delinquency, many have studied linkages between the two. Wilson and Herrnstein (1985) found that the average delinquent has a deficit in verbal IQ and a gap of eight points between general and verbal IQ. They associate this with a low level of moral development. They also believe that good and bad schools will reduce or contribute to the probability of a youth committing crime through such things as peer groups formed there. Intelligence scores per se have not been found to be significantly related to adjudication. One study (Rincker, Reilly, and Braaten, 1990) found intelligence scores of delinquent juveniles typically hovering around low average. Hollander and Turner (1985) found that 47 percent of the 200 juvenile offenders he studied were in the borderline IQ range. Carter (1986) and Larson (1988 b) both detected evidence that delinquents are characterized by lower moral reasoning or cognitive development than nondelinquents. Brunner (1992) and Reiter (1982) associate reading failure with delinquency. Rincker further found that lag in neurological development and deficiencies in attention span are common among students with antisocial disorders. Calabrese and Adams (1990) found that incarcerated delinquents have significantly higher levels of total alienation, isolation, and feelings of powerlessness when measured on the Dean Alienation Scale as compared to nonincarcerated adolescents.

Environmental factors have been pointed out as contributing to, if not causative of, school failure and delinquency. Kyle et al. (1992) studied incarcerated juveniles in Illinois and found 71 percent to be from single parent or divorced families. The majority had been cared for by neighbors or had been latchkey children by the 6th grade. Forty percent exhibited behavior problems before the 4th grade and had attended between four and six different schools before dropping out. Another Illinois study, based on two separate surveys, showed that one in 12 students had been physically attacked in or near their school, and one third had brought a weapon to school to protect themselves. Some authors pointed to failure on the part of the school as contributing to the delinquency of their students. Failure to accommodate the learning styles of some at-risk children (Meltzer et al., 1984), failure to provide

special assistance and counseling (Kyle et al., 1992), lack of early prevention programming (Allison, Leone, and Spero, 1990), and failure to provide special or remedial education to eligible students (Rincker, Reilly, and Braaten, 1990) have been found to be associated with delinquency.

Most of the studies we examined focused on learning disabilities (LD) and mild mental retardation (MMR), by far the most common disabilities among young offenders. A large number of incidence studies exists (Broder et al., 1981; Swanstrom et al., 1981; Zimmerman et al., 1981; Crawford, 1982; Dunivant, 1982; Cheek, 1984; Keilitz and Dunivant, 1986; Cook and Hill, 1990). Casey and Keilitz (1990) recently conducted a meta-analysis of 310 juvenile offender LD and MR incidence studies. Among these studies they found a range from 1.7 to 77 percent in the prevalence of LD. For MR they found a range from 2 to 30 percent among 21 studies. Since such wide ranges are of little practical use, they decided to find the "weighted average prevalence estimate," which they believed to be the closest to the "truth" and a figure that could be used by policy makers in determining needed support for these disabled juvenile delinquents. Each of the 310 studies were weighted on a scale from one to four in terms of quality and credibility, i.e., on their adherence to criteria and standards for sound scientific research. The results showed the "weighted average" incidence of LD for juvenile offenders to be 35.6 percent and for MR 12.6 percent. Among all school children, the incidence of MR has been estimated at 1.86 percent and that for LD at 4.49 percent (Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford, 1987).[10]

Since most of the juvenile delinquents are male, most of the incidence study subjects are also males. Three LD incidence studies, however, were identified that dealt exclusively with female juvenile offenders. Hugo and Rutherford (1992) found the rate to be 21 percent. Bergsmann (1988) determined from a national survey that it was 26 percent. Fejes-Mendoza and Rutherford (1987) studying 30 female juvenile offenders in Arizona found the LD incidence to be 27 percent. These figures are somewhat lower than those cited above for male delinquents but still considerably above those among children in the general population. Swanstrom et al. (1981) found that LD was higher among boys than girls among delinquents as well as nondelinquents.

Three hypotheses have been advanced explaining the high incidence of learning disabilities among offenders: (1) the *susceptibility hypothesis*, (2) the *school failure hypothesis*, and (3) the differential treatment hypothesis (Broder et al., 1981; Zimmerman et al., 1981; Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford, 1987; Brier, 1989; Fink, 1990b). The *susceptibility theory* holds that children with LD have cognitive and other deficiencies that predispose them to delinquent behaviors, e.g., poor impulse control, aggression, irritability, poor reasoning, short attention spans. The *school failure* hypothesis holds that the disability leads to poor performance which in turn creates a chain of events including repeating grades, behavior problems, dropping out of school, negative peer groupings, and delinquency. Both of these theories suggest that the disability leads to a disproportionate, large amount of delinquent behavior which in turn leads to arrest and criminal sanctions at a higher rate than among non-LD children. The *differential treatment* hypothesis proposes that LD children are not engaging in more delinquent behavior but are treated more harshly at the various stages of the juvenile justice system, because they are less adept at avoiding confrontation with the law, less apt at defending (or explaining) themselves, or because they may be awkward or socially inept in their interactions with juvenile justice officials.

[10] For further information, see Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford (1987) with several excellent chapters providing detailed summaries of the research in this area.

Zimmerman et al. (1981) lean toward the differential treatment hypothesis. Fink (1990b) believes her findings support the school failure theory. Crawford's findings (1982) support the susceptibility theory. Broder et al. (1981) support the differential treatment hypothesis. Most, however, like Brier (1989) arrive at a multifactorial explanation. The findings of Keilitz and Dunivant (1986) seem to support all three hypotheses. They found that LD youth do engage in more delinquent acts than non-LD youth and also that they are more likely to be arrested and adjudicated than non-LD youth who commit delinquent acts. Their research indicates that the odds of being adjudicated are 220 percent greater for LD youths than for non-LD youths. However, they also point out that remedial academic instruction was found to increase academic success and reduce delinquency, which would support the school failure hypothesis.

Several authors agree that remediation or lack thereof could be crucial. Perlmutter (1987) points out that most learning disabled children learn to adapt and develop techniques to compensate for this disabling condition. He suggests that delinquency is a function of interaction between a learning disability and the inability to develop compensatory skills, rather than a function of the original disability. Cook and Hill (1990) studying 220 adjudicated youths in Louisiana found that 55 percent of those with LD and 33 percent of those with mild mental health problems were not receiving appropriate educational services at the time of adjudication because their regular schools had failed to identify their disabilities or to provide special education services. Tobolowsky, Quinn, and Holman (1991) and Kyle et al. (1992) found that juvenile offenders who are school dropouts still are interested in participation in education programs and believe that they are able to graduate from high school. One-third of Kyle's subjects believed they could, and would, graduate from college. Furthermore, as Harper (1988) points out, juvenile offenders often make academic gains while incarcerated that are above expected gains for general school children. They suggest that making appropriate education, assistance, and counseling available to these children would reduce juvenile delinquency rates.

Conclusion

Our literature review revealed that periodic, systematic data exist for the last twenty years that give a complete picture of such demographics as age, sex, race, offenses, custody, length of institutional stay, and changes and trends in these areas over the years. For the educator in charge of developing the most appropriate programs for delinquents in custody, and for the policy maker in charge of passing Federal education law and/or allocating funds for delinquent education programs, the current information on the national level is highly inadequate. What is needed is a systematic collection of data that would provide a more complete and reliable *educational* profile of delinquent offenders that would include not only school completion, repetition, or dropout data; but achievement data, prior experiences in compensatory or special education, and information pertaining to the programs these youth have failed as well as those in which they succeeded. Such information would not only assist the correctional educator and policy maker, but could lead to developing preventive educational strategies that would enable more at-risk children to succeed in school and to refrain from crime and delinquency. The Office of Correctional Education (ED) is working on filling this gap in the near future.

Section 3

Administration Of Juvenile Correctional Education

Organizational Structure

Very little literature and research are available on the organizational structure of juvenile correctional education. Since the first school district for adult corrections (the Texas Department of Corrections' Windham School District) was developed in 1969, some rather elaborate claims have been made as to its superiority compared to other structural models. Thus it was assumed that in the 1970's and 1980's corrections would see a proliferation of correctional school districts in both adult and juvenile corrections. Judging from the sparse literature on this subject, it would seem that the proliferation did not take place, and that to date there is no solid evidence that the correctional school district model is superior to any other structural models.

A survey conducted in 1988 (Cabinet of Human Resources, KY) found that in 17 States juvenile corrections was under the control of the adult correctional agency; 12 States operated a separate youth correctional agency; and, in the remaining 21 States, juvenile corrections was under an umbrella social service agency. Within these different structures, the correctional education component is variously delivered through a correctional school district (as in Connecticut), through the State Education Agency (SEA) (as in Pennsylvania), through contracts with local education agencies (LEA), or, most commonly, delivered by staff directly hired by the agency responsible for juvenile corrections. No data exist that provide this information for all 50 States on a systematic basis.

Gehring (1990), a strong advocate of correctional school districts, conducted a State-by-State study of generic types of organizational structures for the delivery of corrections education. He reports that there are three generic types: the *Decentralized System* (in which education is administered through the correctional facility, whether directly of by contract with an LEA or private organization); the *Bureau* (in which education is administered systemwide from a central office); and the *Correctional School District* (which is set up and functions like any other LEA).[11] He found that 13 States had decentralized correctional education systems for youth, 18 States operated under the bureau model, and in 6 States education was the responsibility of correctional school districts. He further determined that 91 percent of all correctional education service delivery was located within the agency that operated the correctional institution.

Coffey (1986) examined 10 adult correctional school districts, four of which included juvenile corrections. She examined the four most frequently claimed advantages of correctional school districts: increased funding, better qualified staff, higher quality programming, and greater autonomy and status. Her research found evidence that only increased funding, especially from Federal sources, was a distinct advantage of correctional school districts. In all other respects correctional education operating

[11] These distinctions are not entirely logical. Most correctional school districts operate within a bureau, not separate from the agency administrative headquarters. The only clear exception is in Virginia, where the combined adult/juvenile school district is a separate state agency from the two state agencies it serves: the Department of Corrections and the Department of Youth and Family Services.

under other administrative structures did as well or better. Coffey found that the crucial factors in effective delivery of education, regardless of organizational structure, included: a systems approach; a fully credentialed and certified staff; full compliance with all applicable laws, regulations and standards; and an advisory board with representatives from the community.

Suerken, Gehring, and Stewart (1987) have described strategies used in establishing a correctional school district through enabling legislation. They recommend that these strategies include: provision for giving the administration of the correctional school district undisputed jurisdiction over students residing in correctional facilities; full authority over the budget, curriculum, and personnel; access to all State and Federal funding sources on a par with public school systems; and adherence to all mandated regulations and standards. Frequently, resistance to correctional school districting comes from SEA's as well as from correctional agencies. The former view correctional school districts as competing with public schools for dwindling funds, and the latter are hesitant to renounce their authority over any correctional program. Thus, it is not surprising that Gehring (1990) found that 15 States had considered developing a juvenile correctional school district but had either failed to introduce or to enact enabling legislation.

Cost and Funding

Despite the frequent calls by Federal and State legislators for data on the costs associated with correctional education, there is to date no nationwide, systematic collection of such data.[12] Although the U.S. Department of Justice collects data on juvenile facilities for their annual report to Congress, it does not collect data on expenditures for corrections education. The American Correctional Association (ACA) annually collects data for inclusion in its annual directory on overall costs and numbers of juveniles in State correctional agencies. However, the ACA does not separate out costs for education from overall costs, nor do they collect any other data on corrections education.

While the U.S. Department of Education collects general education cost data, historically it has not collected such data on correctional programs. Occasionally, correctional education costs are included in broader ED cost data collections (e.g., Adult Education Act: Chapter I of The Education Consolidation and Improvement Act [ECIA]). However, it is often impossible to separate out monies spent on *juvenile* as compared to *adult* correctional education programs, or monies spent on *correctional* programs from "*institutional*" programs (which may include mental health and other settings).

Information on potential funding sources for juvenile correctional education programs is more readily available (Office of Vocational and Adult Education, 1985; Faddis, Goff, and Long, 1986; Coffey, Procopiow, and Miller, 1989; Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, 1992; Shirley et al., 1992; Western Regional Resource Center, 1993). Most of the Federal funding in corrections comes from the following sources: Chapters I and II of the Educational Improvement and Consolidation Act (ECIA) of 1981, the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Act, and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). In addition, some States have managed to access—usually in small amounts only—Federal programs providing funds for library services and

[12] The Correctional Education Program in the U.S. Department of Education is currently piloting such a survey instrument.

construction, women's equity, bilingual education, drug education, and law-related education. States have also obtained funding from the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA). However, neither JTPA's distribution of funds among States nor the scope of such funding is known since systematic data are not kept in this regard.

The only recent research that is devoted to the funding of juvenile correctional education programs in State agencies fails to provide a complete or detailed picture. From a national survey of State juvenile correctional agencies (with a 66 percent response rate), Miles (1993) found that 30.3 percent of the respondent States spent $1,000 or less annually per student; 33.3 percent spent between $1,001 and $2,000; 33.3 percent $2,001 or more. He found that States with a special school district for juvenile corrections (14 percent of the respondents) generally spent in the median range ($1,001–$2,000). States with correctional school districts were distinguished in only two areas—they obtained a higher percent of funds (25 percent or more) from Federal sources than did others (which collected an average of 15.5 percent from Federal sources), and they experienced more decreases in funding than nonschool district States over the last couple of years as a result of cuts in Federal funding.

As part of its national study of the Chapter I Neglected or Delinquent Program, Westat Corporation conducted a survey of State operated adult and youth correctional facilities (Tashjian, LeBlanc, and Pfannenstiel, 1991). This survey included a section on budgets and expenditures, soliciting information on total funds allocated for corrections education (Chapter I funds only and other Federal funds). Westat's survey asked for information on, among other things, the distribution of expenditures among staff, instructional materials, computers and software, and staff development. They found that Chapter I currently funds an average of 10 percent of the total correctional education budget in participating juvenile facilities, paying for 12 percent of teachers' salaries, 57 percent of all aides, 41 percent of all computer purchases, and 27 percent of all staff development costs. Their study also shows that State operated youth correctional institutions spent an average of $737,760 for education, which amounts to about 15 percent of total institutional budgets. Typically, 97 percent of this money is spent on staff and instructional materials.

Finally, the literature includes some advice as to the utilization of Federal funding. Faddis, Goff, and Long (1986), for instance, identify both public and private sources of funding and provide detailed directions for writing a funding proposal. Tindall et al. (1983) recommends uses of JTPA funding for special populations, including steps for obtaining funding under various JTPA titles. The Ohio State Council on Vocational Education (1991) recommends using 20 percent of the Governor's JTPA Eight Percent Discretionary Funding to assist institutionalized persons in the transition from institution to the world of work. Platt and Clark (1987) identify "appropriate" uses of Federal funds to support programs for disabled offenders, which include materials, supplies, and equipment; hiring experts for identification, assessment, and placement; paying for vocational specialists, aides, and paraprofessionals.

Administrative Practices

The literature is also sparse on the topic of juvenile correctional education administrative practices. Only one study (Tashjian, LeBlanc, and Pfannenstiel, 1991) deals with this area but with exclusive focus on Chapter I Neglected or Delinquent programs in corrections. The study identifies good administrative practices and highlights administrative problems. Key problems encountered were found to be the lack of congruence between the time allocated and paid for by Chapter I and the actual time

required to administer these programs, the poor fit between some Federal regulations and the correctional setting, the heavy burden of paperwork, and inadequate funding. Fifty-seven percent of the administrators responding found the required Chapter I evaluation of little use. The researchers found much of the Chapter I programming in corrections ineffectual and proposed massive changes along the lines emerging from the recent "Effective (or Better) Schools" research which focuses on at-risk children in public schools.

It seems clear from the lack of literature and research on school administration and reform in corrections, that reform efforts such as the "Effective Schools Research" has as yet had little or no impact on juvenile corrections, despite the fact that their findings are extremely relevant to the at-risk children in the correctional setting. The school-based and whole-school reforms advocated (Austin and Reynolds, 1990; National Committee for Citizens in Education, 1990 and 1991; Clough, 1991) could, if applied in correctional schools, generate much needed improvements. The correctional education administrator for instance would do well to apply Clough's seven-step process and administrative strategies to better meet the needs of at-risk children.[13] It is clear that studies and research of correctional education administrative practices are incomplete and inadequate for the needs of correctional education administrators. This gap could be meaningfully filled by utilizing within the correctional setting "Effective Schools Research" findings which currently focus on at-risk children in public schools, and by having correctional administrators encourage, facilitate, or initiate such research.

Correctional Policy, Standards and Accreditation

Currently, there is a serious lack of policy for the education of juvenile offenders. Only the American Correctional Association (ACA, 1986) has attempted to articulate policy in this area. Its *Public Correctional Policy on Juvenile Corrections,* for instance, calls for establishment of juvenile facilities, separate from those for adult offenders, and recommends a range of community and residential programs and services, including, education, vocational training, counseling, and treatment, preferably involving the family of the offender. ACA's *Public Correctional Policy on Offender Education and Training* addresses the needs of both adult and juvenile offenders for education and training. It calls for the development and expansion of academic, occupational, social, and other educational programs. It further calls for appropriate assessment, comprehensive programming, instruction by certified instructors, incentives for participants, maximum use of public and private sector resources, adherence to national standards, and evaluation of performance and programs. Also, ACA's policy on the provision of *humane programs and services* addresses the special needs of offenders (e.g., the physically, mentally, or learning disabled).

In addition to the policy Statements noted above, several sets of specifically targeted correctional education standards have been developed. For instance, in 1978 the ACA's Commission on Accreditation for Corrections developed standards for *juvenile residential services* which included three education standards calling for: (1) policy and procedures for school enrollment in accordance with all Federal and State legal requirements; (2) provision of special services for the disabled as needed;

[13] For further detail, see Part III of this publication which is devoted entirely to the Effective Schools Research and its implications for corrections.

and, (3) literacy programs. In 1979 the Commission issued its standards for *juvenile detention facilities*, which included three education standards requiring: (1) programs that enable students to keep up with their school work; (2) trained and certified staff capable of remediation; and, (3) appropriate equipment and materials. Finally, in 1983, the Commission issued standards for *training schools*, 16 of which pertain to education and library services. Among other things these standards call for comprehensive programming, open entry/exit scheduling, individualized programming, and provision of specialized services for students with special needs. The standards also specify a maximum 1/15 teacher/student ratio.

Although representatives from the Correctional Education Association (CEA) had input into the development of the ACA Commission standards, it perceived a need for issuing its own correctional education standards in 1988. A set of 31 standards—intended as a tool for self-evaluation, goal-setting, and planning—cover the areas of administration, staff, students, and programs. The administrative standards call for: written policies, goals, and procedures; a line item correctional education budget for each institution and/or agency administered by the chief educational administrator; accreditation of programs; maintenance of student records; and, periodic program evaluations. The staff standards call for: a chief *education* administrator in charge of correctional education systemwide, and an educational administrator in each institution; written personnel policies; preservice training for new staff; pay for education staff that is comparable to that of adjacent public school district staff; and, student/teacher ratios in accordance with student and program requirements and with Federal/State/local regulations. CEA's standards pertaining to students and programs provide greater detail and specificity than the ACA standards. They call for student orientation, classification, screening, assessment, evaluation, and individualized programming. They require incentives and equity for females and educational services for students with special needs and for those youth who are segregated. CEA's standards also call for comprehensive education programs with written curricula, supported by appropriate facilities, equipment, materials, and library resources.

The CEA standards have already served as the basis for systemwide evaluations in Kentucky, Pennsylvania and Virginia and have been used by legislatures and courts in several States as guideposts for correctional education programming. Anyone involved in juvenile correctional education needs to be fully familiar with the CEA and ACA standards. The two sets of standards are compatible and complementary and would, if fully implemented, lead to highly improved and more effective correctional education programs for juvenile offenders in various correctional settings.

Finally, there are additional, specialized, relevant standards for correctional administrators and educators dealing with special offender populations. Coffey, Procopiow, and Miller (1989) include a chapter on standards for persons with learning disabilities based on the standards that have been adopted by the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC). Also included in this publication is a chapter on standards for persons with mental retardation developed by Miles Santamour.[14] Although the publication is focused on adult offenders, these standards are equally applicable to juveniles with these disabilities. The standards stress the need for an individualized education/habilitation (IEP/IHP) plan for each person, developed by a multidisciplinary committee and with input from the student and

[14] It should be noted that the MR standards developed by Miles Santamour have not been published before or since this publication, which is available from the National Institute of Corrections (NIC) or the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS).

parents. They also provide detailed prescriptions for the development, implementation, and evaluation of such IEPs and IHPs. Anyone dealing with learning disabled or mentally retarded juvenile offenders in an institutional setting should become thoroughly familiar with these standards.

Conclusions

The literature review revealed that since 1978 great strides have been taken to professionalize juvenile correctional education through implementation of national policy for correctional education (ACA) and the development of standards for administering correctional education programs (ACA, CEA, and others). These have already had impact on individual jurisdictions where they have been voluntarily implemented and in some court settings where judges have held them up as goals to be met. To date, however, there is no formalized process for measuring compliance with these standards or to use such measures as the basis for certification and/or accreditation of individual correctional schools or school systems. Nonetheless, the very existence of these standards—developed by and for correctional education practitioners—constitute a valuable foundation which can be used in administration, planning, evaluation, and program development and improvement.

Aside from the standards, however, the literature pertaining to the administration of corrections education is near nonexistent. Until further literature and research are developed to fill this void, our knowledge of the administration of corrections education is not only incomplete but woefully inadequate for the needs of Federal, State, and local administrators, legislators, and judges. Without systematic and perennial surveys of corrections education, there is no rational basis on which to compare systems, administrative structures, or cost/benefits. Lack of information and data has serious negative impact on legislative and policy determinations. Currently, the nation, States, and localities do not know if correctional education is appropriately targeted, adequately funded, or effectively administered. As a matter of fact, we do not really know how many juvenile correctional programs exist, what they provide, what they cost, how many children are served, or what their needs are. Until these knowledge gaps are filled, juvenile correctional education is vulnerable to a number of wild conjectures, to charges of being costly and ineffective, and—worst of all—to being neglected if not completely ignored.

Section 4

Juvenile Correctional Education Staff

Administrative Staff

As indicated earlier, juvenile correctional education is administered in a number of different ways (e.g., centrally administered through a juvenile correctional agency; through a combined youth and adult correctional agency; as an independent correctional school district; decentralized directly or through contracts with LEA's; or administered through an umbrella social service or education agency). Under each configuration the chief educational administrator's role is defined differently. It varies from that of a school Superintendent, to a Director or Coordinator of Education (with varying degrees of autonomy), to a coordinator role hidden under layers of bureaucracy. At the facility level, most correctional education programs are administered by an Education Director, a Principal, or Head Teacher, who serves an administrative role quite similar to that of a public school principal.

Currently, data do not exist on the position descriptions or the qualifications and professional experiences of incumbents in these administrative positions from the 50 States. In 1990, however, under the auspices of the National Institute of Corrections (NIC), practitioners developed competency profiles for both State and facility directors of correctional education (National Academy of Corrections, 1990). Although developed primarily with adult corrections in mind, these competency profiles are equally relevant to juvenile correctional education. They delineate the duties of the positions and outline the traits, attitudes, knowledge, skills, and tools essential for these positions. Juvenile correctional administrators should use these competency profiles when establishing positions, developing position descriptions, hiring, and evaluation.

As envisioned in the NIC competency profile, the director of a Statewide correctional education system—whether adult or juvenile—is a senior level position who "provides primary leadership and coordination in education matters including budgeting, staff development, curriculum planning and implementation, and standards compliance." The position also includes records management, legal compliance, interaction with the legislature and with other agencies, and program evaluation and accountability. The facility education director position is responsible for the management of the institution's education programs, its personnel, classroom facilities, resources, staff, and budget.

It should be noted that the CEA standards previously discussed require a chief correctional education administrator position for a State juvenile correctional system and an education leadership position for each institution. The standards also require written personnel policies and procedures for the selection, retention, evaluation, and professional growth of these administrative staff positions (Standards 009-011). Establishing such positions and hiring administrative staff in accordance with CEA standards and the NIC profiles would help improve the delivery of juvenile correctional education.

Leadership Training

Although the NIC profiles stress the leadership role of the education directors on both the State and local facility levels, little literature exists on leadership training specifically related to correctional education. Morford (1987), however, describes key findings from recent theorists on educational

leadership in general and applies these findings to today's correctional education leaders. He stresses the centrality of values, the importance of an articulated vision, and the allowance for disagreement and conflict among staff. He further outlines the personal traits and styles of effective leaders, including self-knowledge, drive, responsibility, and caring for both tasks and people. Sedlak and Stephenson (1987) review some of the literature on public school leadership, and they echo many of Morford's points but with heavier emphasis on motivation, reinforcement, and staff development. Alford and Larson (1987) present a nine step cognitive problem solving model for correctional administrators to use in leading their staff into creative and comprehensive change.

Carter (1991) describes the results of a 1991 national needs assessment forum which identified eight major training and service needs of juvenile correctional education managers: leadership/management, strategic planning, programs, human resources, public/community relations, what is new and working, legal issues, and funding/budgeting. There is currently little activity on either the national or State levels, or within professional associations, to fill these needs except for an occasional NIC sponsored training seminar or the CEA sponsored annual conferences and leadership forum.

Although correctional school principals serve a crucial role in ensuring quality delivery of educational services to delinquent students, little is known about their current qualifications or training needs. From our experience, most correctional school principals seem to have followed a career path from instructor to principal. They have had little additional training in between and most of it has been in theory or academic subjects. Norkunas and Knable (1987) describe an innovative "Prospective Principals Internship Program" in Maryland which could serve as a model for other States. Candidates received intensive leadership training in an institute setting, then were assigned to experienced principals as interns. The program was positively evaluated, and five of the first six trainees later became principals of correctional schools.

Instructional Staff

The need for qualified instructors to work with juveniles in correctional settings has been well documented (Bowen, 1981; Leone, 1984; Mesinger, 1987; Roberts and Bullock, 1987; Carter, 1991). It is also well known and documented that correctional teachers need additional and different skills than do their public school counterparts. Such skills are rarely included in traditional teacher training programs. Carter (1991) identified some of these special skills as dealing with serious and violent delinquents, developing culturally sensitive programs, and understanding certain legal issues. Leone (1986) lists being streetwise and knowledgeable about youth subcultures. Leone, Walter, and Edgar (1990) list managing severely behaviorally disordered youth, teaching decision making, problem solving, and independent living. Davis (1987) lists 37 areas of knowledge and skills for a correctional teacher, including: psychology of juvenile delinquency, characteristics of adjudicated youth, the juvenile justice system, and the role of education within the institution and its interface with security and treatment.

Many authors have pointed out that all correctional teachers need the skills of identifying handicapping conditions and dealing with handicapped juvenile offenders with Serious Emotional Disorders (SED) or Learning Disabilities (LD) (Bowen, 1981; Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford, 1983; Mesinger, 1987). In 1991 a group of practitioners, through the auspices of the National Academy of Corrections, developed a competency profile that delineates the duties of a correctional

educator and the traits, attitudes, knowledge, and skills such a position requires, the first of which is maintaining security. This profile shows many areas in which the correctional educator needs skills not required by the typical public school teacher.

Currently, there is no systematic collection of data that indicates how many teachers are employed in juvenile corrections, what they teach, what qualifications they have, what their benefits are, or what training they receive. Recent Chapter I research, however, has shed some light in this area (Tashjian, LeBlanc, and Pfannenstiel, 1991). As part of their review of correctional programs funded by the Federal government under Chapter I for the Neglected or Delinquent, they reviewed the instructional staffs in the targeted facilities. They found that both regular and Chapter I teachers in correctional settings have an average level of education and professional experience comparable to those of the nation's teachers as a whole. The typical correctional teacher was found to have 15 years teaching experience, eight of which were in institutional settings. Eighty-six percent had obtained a Bachelor's Degree and 28 percent had a Master's or higher degree. Only 5 percent lacked a teaching certificate. Although many teachers were certified in both elementary and secondary education (12 percent), most (57 percent) were certified only at the secondary level. Eighty percent reported receiving inservice training on an annual basis.

CEA standards require that all correctional education staff, including teachers, receive comparable pay, i.e., the same pay that public school teachers receive in the community adjacent to the juvenile correctional facility (Standard 014). Correctional teachers employed directly through a correctional facility or system tend to receive pay that is frequently lower than that of public school teachers in the same district. Many, however, are employed by a local education agency, in which case their pay is the same as that of their public school colleagues, usually with an addition for the extra time they teach during the summer break. Norton and Simms (1988) found the average starting salary of a correctional teacher to be $19,667 per year. Despite the relatively low pay, 75 percent of the teachers in this study reported that they preferred working in a correctional school as compared to a public or private school in the community (Tashjian, LeBlanc, and Pfannenstiel, 1991).

Instructional Staff Development

As we have seen, correctional teachers are neither less educated nor less credentialed than their noncorrectional counterparts. The problem remains, however, that they seldom receive the training they need to function in the unique corrections environment. They lack a formal *correctional* education professional degree program, as well as effective preservice and/or inservice training. Staff training in special education has been highlighted as an area of need within corrections (Bowen, 1981; Platt, Wienke, and Tunick, 1982; Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford, 1983; Leone, 1984, 1986; Platt and Wienke, 1984; Mesinger, 1987). Leone (1986), based on a survey of State directors of correctional education, developed and rank-ordered a list of the 15 most frequently mentioned skills/knowledge/information clusters identified for preservice training. Although "instructional strategies" and "classroom management" rank as the first two, the list also includes knowledge of the criminal justice system, security and custody, characteristics of delinquent youth, and other topics not covered in a typical teacher training program. Special educators stressed similar training needs but also included assessment and test interpretation, individualized instruction, IEP development, and counseling strategies.

Both ACA and CEA standards require preservice and inservice training for all staff with client contacts. CEA Standard 012 requires education related preservice training for all new education staff, in addition to the ACA requirement of 40 hours of preservice and 40 hours of inservice training for all new staff. Most of the literature dealing with the specifics of preservice and inservice training concentrates mostly on the area of special education. Platt, Wienke, and Tunick (1982) recommend carefully structured, planned, and documented inservice training programs providing information and training on educational, vocational, and psychological characteristics of handicapped offenders. Howell (1985) stresses the need for training in procedures and instruments used to select treatments for handicapped learners.

The 1980's saw two separate major efforts by the Federal government to meet the need for increased and more targeted training for correctional educators, especially for those dealing with learners with disabilities. It funded the Correctional/Special Education Training project (C/SET), and it provided funding to a number of colleges and universities to develop and deliver training for correction/special education teachers.

As part of the C/SET project, a number of experts developed eight training modules for correctional special education teachers (Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford, 1983). They cover: (1) the correctional education and the criminal justice system, (2) characteristics of exceptional populations, (3) an overview of special education, (4) P.L. 94–142 (the Education of All Handicapped Children Act), [15] (5) assessment of exceptional individuals, (6) curriculum, (7) instructional methods, and (8) vocational special education. These modules were used in national and regional training events. They are also excellent for individual agency training and/or self-study.

Many of the institutions of higher learning that received funding from the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (U.S. Department of Education) are included in Eggleston's (1991) review of 19 undergraduate or graduate, degree or nondegree, correctional teacher training programs. Sutherland and Schwartz-DuPree (1986) describe in further detail the Federally funded M.A. degree program at the George Washington University (Washington, D.C.). It is specifically designed to train educators to work with adjudicated youth. Leone (1984, 1986) describes the 18 credit preservice and inservice programs at the University of Maryland. Bowen (1981) summarizes the 10 modules of the training institute at Illinois State University for staff working with learning and reading disabled youth. Finally, the "Educateur" training program at the University of Virginia is described by Mesinger (1987). "Educateurs" are both teachers and therapists who work with students with emotional disturbance. The focus of the training is on using modeling to teach healthy behaviors to deviant youths.

Conclusion

In terms of correctional education staff, the literature is spotty and research is absent. Due to the efforts of the NIC and other professional associations, position descriptions and staff standards are readily available. Compliance with these various "prescriptions" would contribute toward the further professionalization of juvenile correctional education. The skills needed by academic staff are also

[15] Since the publication of these training modules, P.L. 94-142 has been superceded by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). Module 4 is therefore somewhat outdated.

adequately documented, most specifically in the area of special education. Training needs of academic teachers have also been well documented by surveys conducted during the 1980's.

No systematic survey research has been conducted to provide basic demographics of correctional educators. Therefore, it is not known how many are employed and in what capacities and with what credentials. It is not known how much money they make, as compared to each other across systems, or as compared to their public school counterparts. Although many vocational instructors serve juveniles in correctional settings, no literature dealing with their numbers, credentials, needs or accomplishments could be found. School principals, perhaps the most critical links in the delivery of quality education, remain mostly unstudied in the literature.

Although Federal justice agencies systematically collect and publish data on correctional staff serving both adult and juvenile clients, the educators who are specifically involved in improving the minds and skills of these clients are not included. Federal education agencies are equally negligent, usually omitting correctional educators from their data collections and studies. Currently, the Office of Correctional Education in the U.S. Department of Education has developed and piloted a data collection instrument that may fill some of these gaps in the future.[16] Until then, many blanks will remain on the correctional education map in terms of its most important component—the education staff.

[16] Information received from Gail M. Schwartz, Chief, Office of Correctional Education, U.S. Department of Education.

Section 5

Juvenile Correctional Education Programming

Introduction: The Need for Comprehensive Programming

The students in correctional schools represent a very heterogeneous group. Although the vast majority of delinquents fall within the 14-17 age group, there are students as young as 10 and as old as in the early twenties (Thornberry et al., 1991). As we have seen, a large proportion are learning disabled, most commonly identified as having a specific learning disability (SLD) or serious emotional disorders (SED). Some have low average intelligence and some are mildly mentally retarded (MMR). Although many lag several years behind in school achievement and some have dropped out at an early age, there are still some who function on grade level and have done well in school. Haberman and Lerman (1982) found that of the children who were released from the two largest training schools in Wisconsin, only 1.6 percent of those who returned to community high schools finished school and obtained a high school diploma. Forty percent earned a GED.

To meet the needs of these children with such varied ages and abilities, many authors have argued for highly individualized and comprehensive programming (Pasternack, Portillos, and Hoff, 1988). Furthermore, many have stressed the need to better prepare these children for the world of work and independent living, while not neglecting the academic needs of those who will return to school (Haberman and Lerman, 1982). Based on the experience of the Job Corps, Ford (1983) argues that comprehensiveness is the key, with programs aimed at improving social attitudes and skills, fostering good work habits, while also addressing the academic needs and the alcohol/drug problems many clients have. Despite the awareness of the need for comprehensive programming and the fact that most of the children in correctional classrooms do not go back to school after release, 1987 statistics suggest that correctional schools—whether public or private—still operate on the public school model. Thornberry et al. (1991) found that whereas 91 percent of all correctional facilities offered basic academic education and 64 percent offered Special Education, only 36 percent offered vocational training. Almost half, however, also offered a GED program or tutoring.[17]

In the sections that follow, the literature and research will be discussed topically. Together these subject areas constitute an ideal comprehensive program, beginning with a functional assessment and concluding with transition programming back into the community, whether to further education or work. Together these programs address not only the academic needs of delinquents but their psychosocial and occupational needs as well.

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[17] At this time, no agency or organization conducts a systematic survey of juvenile correctional education programming. Hence, the extent and comprehensiveness of current programming is not known. The Office of Correctional Education in the U.S. Department of Education has recently developed a survey instrument to obtain such data on a nation-wide basis.

Student Assessment/Evaluation

Appropriate assessment and classification are keys to developing individual education and treatment plans for each student and making sure that time and resources are used to greatest advantage. Unfortunately, the literature in correctional education is very incomplete in the area of assessment.

Several experts have argued against standardized testing at juvenile correctional schools (Besag and Greene, 1981; Howell, 1987; Pasternack, Portillos, and Hoff, 1988; Hartmann, 1989), recommending a functional assessment and the use of a diagnostic classroom. Hoellein and Yauger (1988) describe a complete psychoeducational assessment of juveniles in a correctional setting, involving the cooperative efforts of all staff. It is aimed at evaluation of their skills in the academic, behavioral, and vocational domains. It includes measures of intelligence, perceptual motor function, achievement, adaptive behavior, social behavior, personality, and vocational instruments. Campbell, Bullock, and Wilson (1990) recommend the Behavior Dimensions Rating Scale (BDRS) as appropriate since it has been validated on this population. Hartmann (1989) describes a non-traditional testing program, the Computer Adaptive Testing (CAT), implemented in the Los Angeles County Court Schools. It uses micro-computer technology and contemporary psychometric theory. The computer generates individualized tests based on each testee's ability. Informal findings indicate that CAT saves time and enhances student interest and cooperation.

Howell's chapter on "Functional Assessment in Correctional Settings" (1987) is very useful to the practitioner. It describes the rationale and process of "functional assessments," providing examples and flow-charts. He stresses the need to tie the assessment closely to the curriculum and outlines a four-stage process including fact finding, hypothesizing, validating, and decision making. The *fact finding stage* can involve a number of activities--achievement tests, class assignments, observations, client interviews, and interviews with previous instructors and parents. The purpose is to find out where the student has problems in terms of specific curricular areas. The *hypothesizing stage* includes generating explanations for the student's failure in terms of *areas treatable through instruction*. During the *validating stage*, the student is given specific level criterion-referenced tests (CRT). These are directly tied to curricular objectives, and they can be used both as program placement tests and later on for evaluation of student progress. Based on this functional assessment, *treatment decisions* can be made and progress monitored. Howell stresses that the common lack of specific curricula in corrections is an obstacle and recommends the development of functional curricula. The Correctional/Special Education Training Project materials (Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford, 1983) also include a useful training module on functional assessments for students with, or suspected of having, disabilities affecting their learning.

Information on vocational assessments for at-risk youths can be found in the JTPA literature rather than in the correctional education literature. Strumpf et al. (1989) describe criterion-referenced tests used to determine work-related deficiencies with emphasis on the Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment System (CASAS). The Kansas Task Force on Youth Competence (1985) has published a youth competency model to evaluate program participants in four areas: pre-employment skills, work maturity, basic education; and job-specific skills. Werner's (1984) collection of competency Statements for JTPA youths can be used as an assessment tool to determine job-readiness. Rominger (1990) describes successful use of the Pictorial Interest Exploration Survey (PIES) in a juvenile correctional setting. This system consists of slides showing people at work in different occupations, and the testees are asked to select those that interest them.

In conclusion, it should be pointed out that the research and literature in the area of student assessment in correctional settings are very incomplete. Assessment, whether at juvenile reception/diagnostic centers or correctional schools, is a critical component of the entire correctional experience for the student. Properly done it can involve the student positively in the educational and treatment processes from the very start and lead to the most appropriate individual program plan and use of time. In order for this to happen, assessments should move away from over-reliance on standardized tests to focus on the curriculum and the competencies to be acquired. Testing is a costly process. Therefore, testing needs to be wisely targeted. Correctional educators often voice dissatisfaction with current testing practices but seldom know where to find better ideas or instruments. Practitioners and researchers should be encouraged to further study the area of assessment and to publish findings in terms of appropriate instruments that have been validated in correctional settings, appropriate practices, and accompanying management and cost considerations.

Academic Programming

The literature on basic skills in juvenile correctional settings is very sparse. The research literature emerging from the Effective Schools Research, however, is particularly strong in the area of reading and mathematics for disadvantaged children. Furthermore, the U.S. Department of Education has published a three-volume review of Chapter I Neglected or Delinquent programs in corrections which identifies, among other things, effective practices. There is also considerable literature by reading experts on the literacy problems of at-risk children and proposed solutions. The literature review incorporates some of this information since it is relevant to teachers of reading in correctional classrooms as well.

Reading—Chall, Jacobs, and Baldwin (1990) point out that at-risk children commonly start lagging in reading achievement in elementary school, with the gap widening throughout junior and senior high school. Chall (1983) stresses that in a society in which the average reading level required is the 12th grade, two years below grade level is a "significant" gap that needs serious intervention. Coley and Hoffman (1990) indicate that at-risk readers often become caught in a failure cycle, seeing themselves as incapable of learning in general. They are particularly vulnerable when faced with reading and develop a "learned helplessness," a perceived inability to overcome failure (Vacca and Padak, 1990). Juvenile offenders often lag as many as four grade levels in reading. Gagne (1977) found that the research suggests that delinquents have particular problems with verbal communication and reading. Lack of self-esteem is associated both with reading difficulties and substance abuse, which may account for the linkage among the two that has been observed (Bentley and Conlay, 1992).

Andrew (1981) found that poor reading appears to be related to left hemisphere dysfunction in juvenile offenders. Although Brunner (1992) claims a *causative* link between reading problems and delinquency, most researchers see a *relational* link. Both reading problems and delinquency are among the "rotten outcomes" (Schorr, 1988) common among children of poverty.

Many of the children in correctional settings have participated in remedial programs such as Chapter I or Special Education, usually run as pull-out programs in which they are grouped according to ability and provided drill and practice in discrete and basic skills, e.g., phonics and spelling. These children were often given low-level tasks, with emphasis on words and sentences rather than comprehension, often using workbooks and working in isolation (Allington, 1990). The results have been disappointing. The so-called Effective Schools Research conducted in the 1980's led to the

conclusion that this approach may even have held disadvantaged children back. Current thinking is that the focus for these children should be on comprehension and on higher order reasoning skills and generally challenging tasks. The Effective Schools Research has enormous implications for correctional education.[18] To judge from the current literature, these findings have as yet not had an impact in correctional schools.

Reading remediation begins with appropriate assessment. Our literature review uncovered two articles dealing with reading assessment of at-risk children, none specifically with delinquents. Brozo (1990) advocates for "interactive" instead of "static" assessments, pointing out that a student's reading comprehension is not fixed but varies across texts, tasks, and settings. The interactive assessment leads to understanding of the conditions under which the student can succeed rather than merely describing current status (usually deficiencies) as a reader. The "Dynamic Reading Assessment Procedure" (DAP) introduced by Kletzien and Bednar (1990) has a similar goal and theoretical framework. It leads to a profile of the reader in terms of ability, behaviors, current reading level, efficiency in reading strategy, and ability and willingness to modify reading behavior. It provides information on where the reader can function independently and where he/she can be successful only with the assistance of a teacher or tutor. Both of these assessment models are in line with Effective Schools Research in that they stress a "can do" rather than a deficiency model, raise the expectations for the learners, and involve them more actively and with more responsibility for their own learning.

The most important and useful literature for the correctional educator is that dealing with reading methodology and instructional strategies. Although Brunner (1992) argues that delinquents need systematic instruction in phonics, others have stressed the limitations of the traditional phonics approach with juvenile delinquents and at-risk youth (Helfeldt and Henk, 1985; Garcia and Pearson, 1990). Knapp and Needels (1990), based on the Effective Schools Research, point out that disadvantaged learners learn to read better from: (1) a comprehension-focused curriculum, (2) exposure to a variety of texts rather than basal readers, (3) cooperative learning situations, (4) *active* teacher instruction, and (5) activities that use reading in realistic and practical applications. The recommendation to focus on comprehension is echoed by Chall (1990) and Garcia and Pearson (1990). Chall (1990) also points out that vocabulary often is the worst area for children from poor backgrounds and recommends a variety and wide range of reading materials rather than the traditional basal readers.

Tierney, Dishner and Readance (1985) provide a comprehensive compendium of reading strategies, including an extensive reference guide to additional resources for each strategy. It is an excellent source for reading teachers. Most of the other literature we reviewed deals with specific strategies found to be effective with at-risk and/or delinquent children. Based on their review of the research, Flood and Lapp (1990) recommend seven practices that have proven to be successful in helping at-risk students develop their reading comprehension skills. The two most important practices they emphasize are activities that help prepare students for the reading and *reciprocal teaching practices*. The preparation for reading may include relating the reading to the personal knowledge and experiences of the students and making sure that they have the necessary background knowledge. In

[18] Part II of this publication is devoted to "effective practices," in great part based on the research conducted under the labels "Effective" or "Better" Schools Research.

reciprocal teaching the teacher participates actively with the student, modeling, directing, questioning, helping students focus on main points, drawing analogies, and summarizing. Garcia and Pearson (1990) stress much the same and also emphasize the importance of choosing texts that are culturally familiar to the student. They also stress direct and explicit teaching, whole language, and teacher modeling, while gradually moving the student toward more independent reading. Based on their research, Blachowicz and Zabroske (1990) suggest a method for teaching vocabulary through *context instruction*, with the ultimate goal of increasing comprehension. The teacher provides the students with instruction in how to use context, so that they can later do this on their own.

Helfeldt and Henk (1985) recommend six alternative oral reading instruction strategies that they feel would help correctional students get immediate feedback and positive reinforcement of success: imitative reading, repeated reading, radio reading, chunking/phrase reading, paired reading, and neurological impress. The neurological impress has been found effective with lower level correctional students (functioning below sixth grade level) according to Traynelis-Yurek (1984) and Traynelis-Yurek and Yurek (1988). It consists of unison reading with a teacher/tutor until students can read fluently. Two of the articles reviewed dealt with students with specific learning disabilities in reading (SLD/R). Lyon and Watson (1981) summarize their research into the characteristics of subgroups of children with SLD/R. They identified six sub-groups, each manifesting different clusters of deficiencies in language, perceptual, and reading skills. They believe that their research has several implications, most significantly that it could lead to the identification of which methods and materials are of most benefit to these various types of subgroups in order to improve their reading behavior. Reis and Leone (1985) introduce a step-by-step lesson on "text lookbacks," a strategy that has proven effective with mildly handicapped students with difficulties in reading.

Although computers are increasingly used in corrections in teaching basic reading skills, there is little research literature available regarding their effectiveness. In one paper (Peterson and Williams, 1990), IBM's PALS (Principle of the Alphabet Literacy System) was found to have a "positive and dramatic" impact on 30 percent of the participants, with the highest gains measured for the most at-risk (junior high males with low self-concept and below grade level achievement). They gained an average of 1.2 grade levels in reading comprehension and phonics skills as a result of the 20 week program.[19]

Mathematics—Not a single article or paper could be found that deals exclusively with mathematics instruction in juvenile correctional settings. We believe, however, that the findings of the Effective Schools Research in terms of mathematics are of utmost relevance to correctional education. Zucker (1990) summarizes these findings, stressing the need for teachers to expand their pedagogic skills to include more discussions about mathematical concepts, multiple representations of each idea, more project-centered teaching, and further use of educational technology, i.e., computers. McKnight (1990) identifies obstacles to mathematics learning for disadvantaged students and contrasts "today's mathematics lesson" (which does not work very well with these children) with "tomorrow's mathematics project." For example, instead of *skills* oriented learning, he suggests *problem* oriented learning. Instead of *passive* learning, he stresses *active* learning. Instead of *incremental* skill

[19] For further information on research-proven effective practices in teaching reading, see Part II of this publication.

development, *sequenced* task-determined activities are emphasized. He then outlines 24 "criteria of instructional effectiveness related to true change." Among these are: active teacher instruction and modeling, varied grouping practices, richness of resources, flexibility of time allocations driven by tasks rather than by pre-allocations, and emphasis on skills applications and problem solving.[20]

Chapter I—The most complete source in the literature on Chapter I in corrections is the three-volume report, *Unlocking Learning: Chapter I in Correctional Facilities* (1991). It includes a descriptive study, a longitudinal study, and for correctional practitioners a most useful study on effective practices. LeBlanc and Pfannenstiel (1991) found that the majority of youths in corrections do not return to school when released, especially if they are seventeen or older. They determined that 93 percent seek to enter the labor force upon release; yet, the instruction—in or out of Chapter I—is seldom work oriented. In general, this study of correctional Chapter I programs concluded that to date they have not been very effective with institutionalized youth and are in need of reconsideration and restructuring. Rowe and Pfannenstiel (1991) identified the key characteristics that they found to be common among more effective correctional Chapter I programs. They are: (1) an emphasis placed on education by all segments of the institution; (2) strong leadership support at the institutional level; (3) creative use of Chapter I funding; (4) close coordination between Chapter I and regular academic programs; (5) use of a creative variety of teaching methods; (6) availability of transition and post-release support services; and (7) opportunities for staff development. LeBlanc and Pfannenstiel (1991) summarize their findings on effective practices in a list that contrasts these with "common practices" (i.e., current and conventional). Their findings closely parallel those of the Effective Schools researchers cited above. They emphasize problem-solving and applied cognitive skills development. They emphasize high expectations clearly articulated to the students and stress a variety of instructional strategies with individualized instruction combined with direct instruction, peer tutoring, and cooperative learning. They further stress students' strengths rather than weaknesses and deficiencies as a starting point. They recommend incorporation of life, social, and work-oriented skills development into academic curricula and stress the need to provide a variety of non-educational services (job readiness, drug education, counseling, health education, parenting, driver's education, etc.) to prepare the youths for life and work, not just for more school.

General Education Development (GED) Programs offering GED in juvenile corrections are on the increase; yet, they have generated very little literature or research to date. Smith (1983), however, raises a crucial issue involving the GED program specifically and correctional education generally. Does encouraging students to get a GED prevent them from seeking life long learning and from obtaining employment in current society? Or, is the GED important to motivate students and to provide them with some credentials before they are released? Smith's answer is to recommend having students pursue a value-oriented core curriculum prior to taking the GED. Williams et al. (1984), however, argue that most correctional students have so few credits toward a high school diploma as to make completion unlikely. They recommend wider use of a highly structured and motivational GED program with emphasis on student responsibility through active decision making, contracts, and on-going assessments. The program has been deemed successful as measured by the increase in the numbers of students who have passed the GED while being institutionalized and the number who have completed their IEP requirements.

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[20] For further detail, see Part II of this publication.

Postsecondary Programs—College programs in juvenile corrections have as yet not made much of a mark in the literature. Grissom and McMurphy (1986) represent the only research found in this area. They report on a collaborative effort in New Jersey between juvenile corrections and community colleges at six juvenile facilities. The "college" experience showed that students gained considerably in math and verbal skills, doubling the math and tripling the verbal gains as compared to the preprogram rate. The academic gains and improvements in self-image were greatest when students had a chance to attend classes at a college campus.

Section 6

Special Education

The area within correctional education that has advanced the most during the 1980–1993 period is special education. Articles, speeches and papers from the early 1980's stress the lack of compliance in correctional facilities with Federal law concerning educational services for persons with disabilities and the need for better services for such clients. The literature from the mid and late 1980's reflects a burst of activities as a result of advocacy, Federal discretionary funded projects, legal pressures, and expanded staff training opportunities. As the literature reflects, most of these advocacy, research, training, and program activities emerged from a few individuals associated with either universities or research centers (Coffey, Keilitz, Leone, Nelson, Rutherford, Wolford). As a result, the correctional special education literature includes two full-length texts (Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford, 1987; Coffey, Procopiow, and Miller, 1989), one monograph (Leone, Rutherford, and Nelson, 1991), a complete, eight-unit training package (Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford, 1983), some scientific research (Keilitz and Dunivant, 1986), and numerous articles and papers.[21] Much of the literature is prescriptive or theoretical; some, however, is directly aimed at teachers.

Overviews

The correctional practitioner who needs an overview of special education in juvenile corrections should study the monograph published by the Council for Exceptional Children (Leone, Rutherford, and Nelson, 1991) which provides a good review, including summary information on incidence, causes, types of services, promising practices, future trends, and training needs. Administrators should familiarize themselves with the applicable laws, standards, policy development, and resources (Coffey, Procopiow, and Miller, 1989). For school staff, the best indepth overview is the book-length *Special Education in the Criminal Justice System* (Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford, 1987) and the C/SET materials (Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford, 1983). These summarize the knowledge and experience in the field of special education, examine the specific issues involved in offenders with disabilities, and provide practical advice as to the delivery of educational and related services to this population.

Incidence of Disabilities Among Juvenile Offenders

As we have discussed earlier, solid research on incidence of handicapping conditions among juvenile offenders has been conducted since the late 1970's, when the National Center for State Courts received a Federal grant to study the relationship between learning disabilities and juvenile delinquency

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[21] The Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford text and the Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford C/SET training materials cover both adult and juvenile correctional special education; however, the emphasis seems to be in the juvenile area. The Coffey, Procopiow, and Miller handbook is primarily devoted to adult corrections, but most of the chapters (e.g., on legal issues, standards, IEP development and resources) are equally applicable to the juvenile area. Since federal law covers all "children" with certain disabilities to the age of 21, there is in practice no real difference whether they are confined in a juvenile or adult facility. To date compliance with the law has progressed much further in juvenile corrections than in adult corrections.

(Dunivant, 1982; Keilitz and Dunivant, 1986).[22] The researchers in their study of young males, found a higher than average incidence of learning disabilities in the delinquent population. They also found that special education was effective in improving academic skills and reducing further delinquency.[23] Smykla and Willis (1981), based on statistical research, found no differences among youth under jurisdiction of a juvenile court, institutionalized delinquents, nonconfined delinquents, and status offenders in terms of the incidence of learning disabilities or mental retardation. Pasternack and Lyon (1982), adhering to the strictest possible interpretation of the Federal definition of "learning disabilities," emphasizing the *discrepancy* between intellectual ability (that has to be normal or above) and academic achievement, found no differences between juvenile delinquents and the New Mexico public school population. To date there is no agreement as to the exact incidence of handicapping conditions among delinquents. We believe, however, that the most credible statistics emerge from the study by Casey and Keilitz (1990) which involved meta-analysis of 310 incidence studies of various merits.[24] They arrived at a "weighted average prevalence estimate" for juvenile offenders of 35.6 percent for LD and 12.6 percent for MR, about seven times the average for LD and and six times the average for MR among nondelinquents.

Definitions

Although the definitions of exceptionality have been established in Federal law (P.L. 94-142, now superceded by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act),[25] some of the literature we reviewed questioned the validity and/or utility of the standard definitions as applied to institutionalized juvenile offenders. Most of this debate centers around the labels "seriously emotionally disturbed" (SED) and "socially maladjusted." Students with SED are entitled to special education services under IDEA; students identified as socially maladjusted are not. Nelson and Rutherford (1990) recommend that Federal law be amended to include students identified as socially maladjusted. Besag and Greene (1981) had earlier argued that the standard definitions are useless in terms of incarcerated youths who are all "exceptional." They recommend that they be assisted under a label of Special Educational Needs (SEN), regardless of the fact that Federal funding would not be available for students so designated. The definitions and labeling are important as long as Federal funding is tied to some precise and often limiting definitions. However, as the practitioner knows, better standards and procedures are needed not only for the identification of special needs offenders and the establishment of eligibility for services, but for better service delivery.[26]

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[22] See section on "Characteristics of Juvenile Offenders," in which we discuss both the incidence and theories as to why the incidence of learning disabilities is higher among delinquents than in the general population.

[23] Keilitz and Dunivant have a chapter summarizing their findings in *Special Education in the Criminal Justice System.*

[24] For further information, see the discussion in Section 2: "Characteristics of Juvenile Correctional Students."

[25] See Coffey, Procopiow, and Miller, 1989; C/SET Unit 2 (Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford, 1983) for further discussions of definitions of handicapping conditions.

[26] Three chapters in *Special Education in the Criminal Justice System* deal in greater detail with these issues.

Needs of Juveniles with Disabilities and Problems of Service Delivery in the Correctional Setting

The needs of juveniles with disabilities have often been documented (Brown and Robbins, 1981; Smith, Ramirez, and Rutherford, 1983; Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford, 1987; Coffey, 1988). The problems of providing the needed services in corrections have also been well documented. These include: the short stay of the clients, frequent transfers, poor contacts between public schools and correctional facilities, lack of trained and certified staff, difficulty in involving parents, insufficient budgets, and sometimes poor fit between Federal rules and regulations and the reality of corrections (Smith, Ramirez, and Rutherford, 1983; Leone, Price, and Vitolo, 1986).

Legal Issues

Federal law, however, is very clear on two points: (1) that *all* children under 21 with a recognized disability are included, regardless of whether they are adjudicated or not; and (2) that due process is to be observed for everyone (regardless of whether or not this is easy to comply with in an exceptional setting such as juvenile correctional facilities). Most of the literature dealing with legal issues concern the implementation of P.L. 94-142 (the Education of All Handicapped Children Act) in corrections (C/SET unit 3 in Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford, 1983; Gerry, 1985; Warboys and Shauffer, 1986; Coffey, Procopiow, and Miller, 1989). Frank H. Wood (1987) gives a detailed review of this law and the processes. In 1991, however, P.L. 94-142 was superceded by the IDEA. Although most of the law, rules, and regulations of P.L. 94-142 still remain intact in the new act, some changes have been made. For an update, the practitioner should refer to the *Summary of Existing Legislation Affecting People with Disabilities* (Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, 1992) or the Western Regional Resource Center manual (1993).

Litigation concerning special education for youths in correctional facilities has multiplied throughout the 1980's and early 1990's. The Western Regional Resource Center (1993) mentions at "least 20 class action suits brought against local education agencies (LEA's), State educational agencies (SEA's), or correctional agencies." A selection of these is described in further detail. Leone (1993) describes his findings from the discovery phase of such a class action suit as well as the improvements in services to the youths which resulted from the legal action. Warboys and Shauffer (1990) discuss from the lawyers' perspective the conflicts between lawyers and treatment providers in such litigation. They emphasize, however, that the procedural safeguards need not be adversarial but can form the basis for therapeutic and cooperative efforts. They use the IEP process as an example.

Correctional Special Education Program Components

Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford (1983, 1987) stress that there are a number of components that are essential for effective correctional special education programs: (1) functional assessments of the skills and learning needs of handicapped offenders; (2) a functional curriculum, which, as described by Fredericks and Evans (1987), is a curriculum that prepares a student for adult life and includes independent living skills, social skills, and vocational skills in addition to academic skills; (3) transitional programs; (4) a comprehensive system of institutional and community services; and (5)

preservice and inservice training for teachers.[27] Except for a C/SET training unit and an excellent chapter in Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford (1987), the literature is sparse in these component areas and offers little guidance for the classroom practitioner. It should be pointed out, however, that the call for a functional curriculum is in line with the recommendations of the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) and the findings of the Effective Schools Research. This is discussed at further lengths in Part II of this publication.

Learning/Instructional Strategies

Very few pieces of correctional education literature are devoted to teaching/learning strategies. C/SET unit 7 covers this topic in an overview format. Deshler and Schumaker (1986) account for a University of Kansas research project that developed and validated task-specific learning strategies, emphasizing teaching handicapped learners how to learn rather than specific curriculum content. Freasier (1986) describes how the IEP process was used as an instructional strategy with juveniles at the Louisiana Training Institute at Monroe.

Specific Programs

We found some, but very little, descriptive literature and even less research in terms of actual correctional special education programs. Two articles deal with special education in local jails. Grande and Oseroff (1991) show that the jail could serve as a diagnostic center with heavy use of volunteers to deliver academic and vocational programming. Rutherford, Behrens, and Fejes (1987) discuss two "model" programs. One is the Juvenile Interagency Transitional Model which was developed in Washington State to help integrate students back into local public schools. The other is the Westbank Educational Center, a day treatment program for adjudicated juveniles with special needs in Jefferson County, Louisiana. It provides vocational counseling and assessment, behavior counseling, family therapy, and special education. It claims success from a study (of 139 students) that showed that 72 percent of the graduates committed no new offenses. Leone, Price, and Vitolo (1986) describe how the Los Angeles County Juvenile Court Schools have managed to meet the special education needs of students and the Federal mandate through the implementation of a set of standards. Finally, Weber (1985) describes a Wisconsin program with the acronym STRIVE that serves severely emotionally disturbed juvenile delinquents. Academics are combined with career development, counseling, special skills training, and outdoor challenges. The author cites as program positive outcomes: reduced numbers in correctional facilities, decrease in school dropouts, reduced costs, and more community involvement with positive attitudes toward these clients.

Special Education Resources

Two resource manuals are devoted to correctional special education. Coffey, Procopiow, and Miller (1989) provide information on definitions, incidence, legal issues, standards, policy, funding,

[27] See the section on student assessment/evaluation in which we discuss the concept of functional assessment in further detail. Transition programs are discussed in a later section. See an analysis of pre- and inservice training literature in the section on staff. Living/social skills and vocational education are also discussed in separate sections.

information sources, and the literature.[28] A more up-to-date sourcebook was recently published by the Western Regional Resource Center (1993). It provides information on laws and regulations, selected programs, interagency agreements, funding, personnel, and assorted resources. Middleton (1987) describes a highly specialized but useful resource—the services, holdings, and access to the Special Education Software Center. Teachers can get assistance through a toll-free number on almost any aspect of software for clients with various types of disabling conditions.

Conclusion

The literature and research are more complete in the area of Special Education than in most other areas of juvenile correctional education; yet, there are some noticeable gaps. The literature is strong in theory, legislation, process, standards, general background, staff training, and general practical advice. It is still sparse in the areas of most concern to teachers—the specifics in the areas of curriculum development, instructional strategies, and program evaluation.

[28] Since P.L. 94-142 has been superceded by IDEA, some of the legal and process information, as well as that on funding sources in this guide may be dated.

Section 7

Psychoeducational Models

The Influence of Kohlberg

The literature of the period under investigation, 1980-1992, indicates a great deal of interest in and application of psychoeducational theory and programming.[29] In this area the literature is strong and relatively extensive, the research (although not plentiful) is solid, and includes some authors of considerable professional stature. Although there is no precise definition of "psychoeducational," we define the term to mean programs that teach social, moral, and/or cognitive skills as part of a *school* program, rather than in a *treatment* context. The roots of such programs are found in both education and psychology, from education's contemporary pedagogic principles and procedures as well as from psychology's modern social learning theory.[30] Correctional educators have long been aware that teaching juvenile offenders the three R's without changing their socially unacceptable behavior is unlikely to have long-term impact on recidivism. Teachers in correctional facilities need to consider the strategies that psychologists have found effective for dealing with aggression and other disruptive behaviors. During the 1980's the works of Arnold Goldstein, Ross, Fabiano, and Ross (all of whom have to some extent been influenced by the work of Lawrence Kohlberg) have been studied by correctional educators, and some applications have been documented. Goldstein's work has generated a new interest in more effective techniques for teaching *social skills*. The work of Kohlberg in the 1970's has lead more directly to skills training in *moral reasoning* and *cognitive development*. Ross, Fabiano, and Ross have been the most influential in bringing Kohlberg's theories into correctional education.[31]

Kohlberg's theories as applicable to correctional education have been summarized in several sources (Jennings and Kohlberg, 1983; Carter, 1986; Goldstein and Keller 1987). Kohlberg stresses that there are distinct stages of moral reasoning in human development. At the earliest and most basic stage, the "Preconventional," the child is responsive to rules and notions of good and bad only in terms of hedonistic experience of consequences such as reward or punishment. Avoidance of punishment and deference to power do not reflect respect for an underlying moral principle but may be found to be the best ways of satisfying one's own needs. At the next higher stage, the "Conventional," conformity to family, group, or nation is perceived as a good in itself regardless of

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[29] As an indication of such interest, it should be noted that the Correctional Education Association dedicated three complete issues of *The Journal of Correctional Education* to these areas. The June 1986 issue is devoted to moral education; the June 1988 to cognition and crime; and the June 1991 issue to social education.

[30] This is a slight modification of Goldstein's definition of "psychological skills training" (1981).

[31] The research of Ross, Fabiano, and Ross and successful experiments in adult corrections under Stephen Duguid at Simon Frazier University in British Columbia have led the Correctional Services of Canada to implement "Cognitive Skills Training" system-wide as of 1990.

consequences. Right behavior is often seen as doing one's duty, showing respect for authority, maintaining the social order. At the highest stage, the "Post-Conventional, Autonomous, or Principled," the person seeks to define moral values and principles apart from authority. At this highest stage the individual defines right "by the decision of conscience in accord with self-chosen ethical principles which appeal to logical comprehensiveness, universality, and consistency."

Research indicates that juvenile offenders often test lower on moral reasoning than non-offenders (Arbuthnot and Gordon, 1986; Carter, 1986; Ross and Ross, 1989). Morgan et al. (1993) using the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WAIS-R) and a test developed by Lee (based on nine moral stories), tested delinquent youths, ages 11-17, and found that they generally operated on Kohlberg's "preconventional" level, with focus on self and dependence on authority figures in moral reasoning.

Cognitive Skills Development

Ross, Fabiano, and Ross studied research of correctional interventions over an 18 year period, isolating components of effective programs. They found that the research provided evidence that offenders often experience delays in cognitive skills (Ross, 1990) and that program components common to almost all successful programs were developed to influence the offender's thinking not just knowledge. As summarized by Ross, Fabiano, and Ross (Ross and Fabiano, 1983; Ross, 1990), many delinquents lack self-control and emotional control because they fail to think before they act and frequently believe that they have no control over what happens. They are deficient in problem-solving skills and have difficulty in thinking through a problem, abstractly or creatively. They often tend to be egocentric and fail to consider how their behavior affects others. The researchers found that effective programs emphasized self-analysis, self-control training, means-end reasoning, critical thinking, and cognitive problem-solving (Ross, Fabiano, and Ross, 1988). Combining the best techniques from the programs found effective in the research, they developed a "cognitive model," which included social skills, interpersonal problems, creative and critical thinking, values enhancement, emotional management, and victim awareness. Follow-up research confirmed that students in this program showed "drastic drops in recidivism rates" (Ross, 1990).

Goldstein's "Structured Learning"

Goldstein's work has focused on persons who are deficient in social skills and who exhibit aggressive behavior. He has developed a 50 skill "Structured Learning" curriculum which he applied to adolescents. He also developed a "Structured Learning Trainer's Guide for Adolescents" that is very relevant to correctional populations (Goldstein, 1981). Focusing on antisocial and aggressive adolescents, Goldstein and his coworkers developed an intervention package labeled "Aggression Replacement Training," which has been implemented in corrections with some follow-up research. The curriculum combines structured learning (social skills training), with anger control training and moral education (Goldstein et al., 1986). The components and techniques are described in detail in a later book, which also includes relaxation training, negotiation and contracting, contingency management, and communication skill training (Goldstein and Keller, 1987).

Various Applications

The juvenile correctional education literature includes many examples of applications of the thoughts and practices of Kohlberg, Goldstein, Ross, Ross, and Fabiano, variously stressing social skills, moral/cognitive training, and other psychoeducational models. Much of this literature is descriptive or prescriptive, but some includes research. Larson (1985) describes an applied experiment to test the hypothesis that social meta-cognitive deficiencies increase the risk for delinquency in youths with learning disabilities. She found that social meta-cognitive training "significantly improved behavior." A systematic curriculum, "Social Thinking Skills," was developed to teach social problem-solving (Larson, 1988a).

Montgomery (1987) describes the SEED (Social, Emotional, Educational, Development) curriculum which includes personal development, work assistance, communication, and life skills. Albrecht (1991) describes a similar model developed and implemented for girls in two New York correctional facilities and which had positive impact on the girls' self-esteem and cognitive development. Spence and Marziller (1981) conducted a study at a juvenile facility where 76 students were randomly assigned to social skills training, attention placebo, or no treatment. The social skills training was found to be significantly superior, leading to improvements in many basic skills which were maintained at a 3-month follow-up. Rubenstein (1991) reports similarly positive results from social skills training of youths in a Maryland facility. One study (Allison, Leone, and Spero, 1990) found social competency training effective in reducing drug abuse. Arbuthnot and Gordon (1986) showed positive effects on a one-year follow-up study of aggressive, behavior disordered youths who participated in a moral reasoning program of 16-20 weekly sessions of 45 minutes each. The positive effects included reductions in behavior referrals and absenteeism and improved academic performance. Other variations on social skills/moral reasoning programs include the following: (1) An experiment with Kohlberg's "just community" in a juvenile setting with positive results in terms of responsibility and self-perceived behavior change (Jennings and Kohlberg, 1983); (2) "Integrated Character Education," a model based on the theories of Kohlberg and Erikson (Farrelly, 1993); (3) The "Resiliency Curriculum," which is research-based, combining social skills with moral reasoning, problem solving, self-esteem, and communications training (Pasternack et al., [no date]).

Finally, our review of the psychoeducational literature found two articles supporting positive peer culture as an effective technique to enhance both education and social skills (Carducci, 1980; Laufenberg, 1987). We also found an article describing the research conducted at the Catalina Mountain School in Tucson where subjects in a treatment group participated in Human Potential Seminars (HPS), and the control group attended the normal program at the institution. The HPS program was found to have more positive effects in the areas measured: self-concept, social control, and institutional behavior.

Section 8

Employment Preparation Programs

There is very little correctional education literature and even less research in the area of employment preparation for juvenile delinquents. Yet, we know that a very large majority of children released from correctional facilities fail to graduate from high school and need to be ready for employment (Haberman and Lerman, 1982). It is clear from surveying some of the literature on labor market requirements that the traditional juvenile pre-vocational and vocational trades are no longer adequate. As a result, it is our belief that correctional educators need to familiarize themselves with up-to-date information on the labor market, the competencies required for current and future jobs, and changes required in secondary education. For that reason, we extended our literature search beyond "correctional education," and included some key government studies on job readiness and on the labor market, and literature pertaining to employment preparation for at-risk or disadvantaged youth (e.g., Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) and Job Corps programs).

Employment Readiness

It is critical that correctional educators understand the modern meaning of *job readiness* and take actions to reform correctional education accordingly. The labor market of the year 2000 and beyond has been well described in publications such as *Workforce 2000* (Johnston and Packer, 1987). The labor market has shifted drastically from low-skilled and manufacturing jobs requiring relatively low levels of education to service industry and technologically sophisticated jobs requiring higher levels of education (Johnston and Packer, 1987; Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills, 1991). How this translates into changes in education is the subject of three reports issued by the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) (1991, 1992, 1993). SCANS identifies the know-how needed, how it is best assessed, and how it will affect teaching and learning on the secondary level. SCANS estimates that less than half of all high school graduates are employment ready in the modern sense and points out that a high school diploma no longer guarantees a future of employment at a liveable wage.

The Commission identified five "competencies" and a "three-part foundation" that summarize the know-how needed to enter the modern labor market. The competencies include being able to effectively use resources, interpersonal skills, information, systems, and technology. The foundation consists of basic skills (reading, writing, arithmetic, speaking, listening), thinking skills, and personal qualities (responsibility, self-esteem, self-management, integrity). The Commission further recommends that all school systems make the components of the "Workplace Know-how" explicit objectives of instruction at all levels and develop an assessment system and a portfolio format to document their attainment (1991). In the final SCANS report, *Teaching the SCANS Competencies*, the Committee provides specific suggestions for applying SCANS to all subjects in school, as well as in workplaces, and provides descriptions of model programs. The SCANS approach seems very appropriate for delinquent youths and could be implemented in correctional settings. Echoing SCANS, the Committee for Economic Development (1985) recommends a revised, common curriculum for all secondary schools with focus on employability skills for the changing labor market. Gold et al. (1991) provides further examples from many States of employment related educational reforms, including

business and education partnerships, alternative learning centers, apprenticeships, postsecondary initiatives, and creative uses of the Job Corps.

Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA)

Although research on JTPA is scant, there is plenty of descriptive and prescriptive literature with relevance to corrections, since youth who are targeted under JTPA constitute a similiar population to that of juvenile corrections--disadvantaged and at-risk children, most of whom have failed and/or dropped out of public schools. Several studies contain good overviews of the enabling JTPA legislation and how it is to be implemented (National Alliance of Business, Inc., 1982; Druian and Spill, 1983). In recent years, much of the emphasis within JTPA has been on the development and assessment of youth employment competency systems and on competency-based training (Spill, 1986). Werner (1984), for example, provides a collection of competency Statements that describe the pre-employment and work maturity skills JTPA youth should have before being considered ready for employment. Several sources deal with successful youth JTPA programs that can serve as models for corrections. The National Youth Employment Coalition (1991) has published a handy guide for developing and reviewing JTPA programs for youth and has included descriptions of 14 successful youth employment programs. Reingold and Associates, Inc. (1989) has published a prescriptive compendium and resource guide for pre-employment/work maturity youth programs filled with guidelines equally applicable to corrections.

Assessment

Some employment training literature is devoted to the assessment of youth for purposes of employment readiness. Strumpf et al. (1989) discusses a variety of criterion-referenced tests used to determine levels of employability such as "pre-employability," "nearly employable," and "employable." The California Adult Student Assessment System (CASAS), which has an employability component, is discussed as an alternative. Strumpf et al. (1989) and Reingold and Associates, Inc. (1989) contain further information on how to tie assessment procedures to established youth competencies. The Kansas Task Force on Youth Competence (1985) developed a youth competency model for JTPA programs in Kansas to evaluate participants' competencies in pre-employment skills, work maturity, basic education, and job-specific skills. Some of the assessment literature deals specifically with disabled clients. Tindall et al. (1984) suggests strategies and provides examples of instruments used in JTPA programs across the country to assess the competency levels of such clients. Rominger (1990) describes the use of the Pictorial Interest Exploration Survey (PIES) with male and female juvenile delinquents with low reading levels.

Vocational Special Education

Two sources deal specifically with vocational education for clients with disabilities. Platt (1986) recommends that vocational training programs for youths with disabilities in correctional facilities include evaluation of abilities and interests, the development of an individualized program, an integrated delivery system, and systematic transition from the institution to either vocational training or work on the outside. Tindall et al. (1983) provides step-by-step guidelines for enrolling handicapped youths in JTPA programs or developing specific JTPA programs for such youth, using either the eight percent monies to State educational agencies, the six percent monies for incentive grants, or some of the Title II.B summer youth employment and training monies. Finally, one of the Correctional/Special

Education Training (C/SET) units is devoted to vocational special education and includes guidelines in terms of evaluation, learning activities, program adaptations, and instructional design.

Specific Program Descriptions

Much of the remaining vocational literature covers specific programs. The JTPA-funded Youth Opportunities Unlimited (YOU) program in Arkansas targeted at-risk 14 to 15 year old youths and provided them with on campus work and study experiences (Bass and Bass, 1991). Although not formally evaluated, the program seems successful since all participants were still enrolled in school a year later. Watson and Jaffe (1990) describe nine JTPA programs that dealt effectively with high-risk youths. All combined basic skills with youth development activities, work experience, and work competencies. Another JTPA-funded program, TAPS, was developed to produce high school graduates with marketable skills (English and Edwards, 1989). The program combined remedial education with counseling, pre-employment skills training, computer literacy, social skills, and inservice training for teachers. The program led to a fifty percent decrease in the drop-out rate and experienced mixed results in other areas such as academic test scores and self-esteem.

New Pride, a non-residential program in Denver for serious repeat offenders, has six major components: assessment, remedial academic training, intensive supervision, counseling, vocational training, and job placement (James and Granville, 1984). It also operates its own business where clients can obtain work experience. New Pride has a proven record of success. Ninety percent of its graduates have stayed in the community (as compared to a residential correctional facility), and 70 percent reintegrated into school or work. New Pride has also proven far less costly at $4,500 per year per client than the $28,000 per year it costs the State of Colorado to send a child to a correctional facility.[32]

Linkages Between Education and Work

Although most of the authors cited above stressed the importance of creating linkages between education and work, between schools and employers in the community; we could find only one source devoted entirely to this subject (Dumdi and Roelofs, 1984). This is a handbook which examines linkages between education and work in Oregon and provides step-by-step guidance on how to create such linkages.

It should be noted that President Clinton has proposed a "School-to-Work Opportunities Act," that he hopes will be passed by Congress in 1995. Under this act, Congress would fund a number of activities aimed at increasing the work readiness of young people for careers in high-skill, high-wage jobs. Building upon partnerships among employers, educators, and others; school-to-work programs will integrate school-based and work-based learning, while also providing "connecting activities" such as career exploration and counseling. The proposed legislation outlines significant changes in secondary education. Included in the high school curriculum would be such activities as paid

[32] For additional program descriptions, see also Pavlak (1983), Stumphauzer (1985), Auspos et al. (1989), Public/Private Ventures (1989), and Northwest Educational Cooperative (1990).

workplace experience, work mentoring, and job training. Students would be able to select a career by the 11th grade and plot the school-based and work-based experiences they would need in high school, as well as on the post-secondary level, to reach their career goals. In concept, this kind of education seems particularly well suited to at-risk and delinquent youths who are weary of traditional academic programs.

Research

The research is very slim in the area of occupational programs. As noted above, New Pride was evaluated and had positive outcomes. It is the only correctional program with an evaluation that we could find. JOBSTART, which served seriously disadvantaged and learning delayed school drop-outs, had a 12-month follow-up component (Auspos et al., 1989). It indicated that students who participated first in basic education followed by job training had greater academic gains than those who had concurrent basic/vocational skills training. Clients in this program had a greater chance of receiving a high school diploma or GED. Job placement was the least successful component. TAPS, as noted above, also lowered the drop-out rate while having mixed results in other areas (English and Edwards, 1989).

Only two major evaluations related to offenders were found in the literature. A study of the Job Corps (Mallar et al., 1982) confirmed that it has had a positive impact on offenders and economic benefits to society exceeding program costs. Benefits cited are: improved future labor market opportunities through higher education and military training, reduced dependence on welfare and other public assistance programs, and reduced criminal activities. The second study of Federal "supported work" programs for offenders (Piliavin and Masters, 1991), however, did not indicate such positive results. It found that supported work programs led to increased employment and reduced crime for *adult* offenders, but that the effect on *young delinquents* was negligible.

Section 9

Juvenile Female Offenders

Profile

Due to a national survey of juvenile female offenders (Bergsmann, 1988), we know a great deal about their numbers, needs, and current programs from a statistical viewpoint. Yet, the literature reveals very little in terms of specific programs that have been proven effective in meeting the special needs of female delinquents. Currently, females make up only 12–18 percent of the total juvenile, institutionalized population, but their numbers are growing as is the severity of their offenses. Curran (1984) argues that the increase is not the result of the women's movement, as some have contended, but due to legal and political shifts. According to Bergsmann's survey (1989) the typical juvenile female offender is 16 years old, lives in the inner city, has not finished school, and lacks adequate skills and work skills for steady employment. She is likely to abuse drugs and has been abused as a child. Bergsmann (1988) found 26 percent to be learning disabled. Fejes-Mendoza and Rutherford (1987) found this figure to be 27 percent in Arizona. Cheek (1983), doing her doctoral study on this population in Maryland, found an astonishing 60 percent to qualify as learning handicapped under P.L. 94-142. Cheek found that these girls were on the average four grade levels behind in reading and math, with no differences among races. Many are already parents or pregnant.

Needs

Bergsmann (1988) found that inequities between male and female juvenile delinquents persist in programming and that vocational choices were limited for females. The most common were the traditional "female" programs—office education, food service, and home economics. Albrecht (1991) points out that programs for girls are usually either the worst or the best. The persistent problem is to provide programs that meet standards of gender equity while also providing for the special needs of these girls. Albrecht recommends that programs for girls include focus on sexual abuse, victim awareness, promiscuity and prostitution, substance abuse, and dysfunctional families. Bergsmann (1988) found from her survey that health education is another high priority.

Specific Program Descriptions

Only two articles were found dealing specifically with programs for female delinquents. In the first, Albrecht (1991), a facility director for a residential center for girls in New York where the entire facility is viewed as a classroom, describes her philosophy as — "Treatment is Education; Education is Treatment." A key program component of her program is the structured education and work experience. It is an adaptation of Goldstein's skillstreaming program (1980, 1984), with special attention to the girls' areas of special needs. Each topic (e. g., sexual abuse, victim awareness) is approached cognitively, with students studying causes, effects, and outcomes. The program has had positive impact on the girls self-esteem and cognitive development. A second article (Miller and Carrington, 1989) describes a study of the impact of teaching women's literature to female delinquents with reading levels from 5.0 to 8.6. The experiment showed significant gains in self-concept as measured on the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale.

Section 10

Law-Related Education

Law-Related Education (LRE) is intended to develop the cognitive and social skills needed for productive citizenship, by actively involving youths in exercises that will enlighten them on several aspects of the law. LRE programs utilize a variety of methods such as discussions of issues, mock trials, and participation of law students, attorneys, or judges. During the 1980's LRE grew both in public schools, alternative school settings, and corrections. It can be taught as a separate course or be incorporated into other school programs such as social studies. LRE has been perceived as particularly beneficial for institutionalized youths. It not only teaches them about the law, but the interactive approaches involved foster their cognitive and social skills (Buzzell, 1991).

LRE programs have been funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice, since 1978; yet, the literature and research are still scant. One private sector and two Federal sources provide an introduction, guidance, and resources to LRE of value to correctional educators who seek to establish such programs. OJJDP (1990) gives an overview and refers to five organizations that have provided leadership, training, and materials for LRE. The American Bar Association has published a listing with program summaries and contacts of LRE programs currently being implemented in juvenile justice settings (ABA, 1992). The Office of Vocational and Adult Education (OVAE), U.S. Department of Education (1985), has published a guide, which includes information on funding.

Research is still slim in this area, and there are no follow-up evaluations to prove that LRE is effective in reducing delinquency and recidivism. Two small studies, however, show that LRE can have some immediate, positive effects. An evaluation of the LRE program at the State Training School for Boys at Eldora, Iowa (Buzzell, 1991) indicated that participants gained in self-awareness, critical thinking skills, cooperation, and leadership, besides having increased their knowledge and understanding of the legal process and ways of resolving conflicts. Gottfredson (1990) studied the relative effectiveness of three alternative programs for delinquent and high risk youths aimed at increasing academic skills while decreasing delinquent behaviors: (1) a "pull-out" program (tutoring and counseling) in school, (2) an alternative school program, and (3) an alternative class which focused on LRE in a combined English/Social Studies class. The last one proved effective in all areas such as academic gain, attitude toward rules and institutions, and reduction of offenses. By comparison, the alternative school was counter-productive by increasing delinquency (probably by peer influences), and the "pull-out" program was ineffective.

Section 11

TRANSITION PROGRAMS

The 1980's saw an increased awareness of the need for better transitional services for delinquent youths moving through the maze of the juvenile justice system, some experimental program models to meet these needs, and a small amount of research as to their effectiveness. The literature on transition, although far from abundant, is slightly more complete than in most other areas of correctional education. This is probably due to the fact that Special Education has proliferated in correctional education and transition services are an integral part of overall Special Education programming for juvenile offenders.

Scope of Literature

The transition literature from the target period of this study, 1980–1992, includes three national surveys (Cabinet for Human Resources, 1988; Leone and Edgar, 1990; Whittier and Sutton, 1990), one book of collected papers (Wolford, Miller, and Lawrenz, eds., 1990), a number of program descriptions (Skonovd, 1986; Wolford, 1987), some program models (Carter, 1983; Maddox, et al., 1984; LeBlanc, Pfannenstiel, and Tashjian, 1991), and a small amount of program evaluation research (Behre, Edwards, and Femming, 1982). The publications which delineate the needs and provide broad recommendations for better transition services for handicapped and nonhandicapped offenders, far outnumber publications which establish specific guidelines for implementation.

The term "transition program" is used in a number of ways. Most commonly in correctional education literature, it refers to a program component aimed at bridging the gap between the schooling provided in a residential, juvenile correctional facility and school/work/family/independent living upon return into the community. Behre, Edwards, and Femming (1982), however, describe the results from their evaluation of the Jefferson Parish Day Care Transitional Center, a community based center for juveniles with lengthy records of prior arrests and convictions. Skonovd (1986) focuses on a short term transition program for court wards awaiting out-of-home placement in juvenile homes or other longer term sanctions. Wolford (1987) argues for better transition services for children at any point in the "maze" that is the juvenile justice system in most States. Most authors stress the need for starting transitional services at the front end, i.e., upon the youths' entry into the juvenile justice/correctional system. Much of the focus, however, is on the transition from a correctional facility back into the community as the most critical period for the youth, hence the priority target for services.

Service Needs

The needs for transitional services are well documented. Maddox et al. (1984) point out that in Washington State only 21 percent of the released youths (average age 16) were still in school six months after release. Those of an average age of 14.5 remained in school only two months after release. A Wisconsin study (Haberman and Quinn, 1986) points out that only 1.6 percent of released juvenile offenders returned to school and graduated. Not prepared for work and independent living and not staying in school for whatever reasons, these children are at extreme risk for returning to delinquency and institutionalization. The problems are further exacerbated when the offenders are also

disabled (Schwartz and Lewis, 1987; Leone, Walter, and Edgar, 1990; Watanabe and Forgnone, 1990).

The Chapter I national review (LeBlanc, Pfannenstiel, and Tashjian, 1991) found that most clients received helpful information on further schooling and employment while incarcerated but did not receive post-release services, although such services are allowable under Chapter 1. Only half of the Chapter I releasees reenrolled in school, and many soon dropped out. Those who sought work usually found low-paying jobs which they kept only in short spurts. The study further determined that four-fifths of all youth returned to the same living arrangements as before incarceration, however dysfunctional that setting. Only one-tenth moved into an organized, transitional setting such as a group home, and nine-tenths had an assigned aftercare worker. Aftercare workers frequently carry large caseloads (as many as 100), which prevents them from providing adequate services.

Released youths often fall through the cracks—no one social service agency seems to take full responsibility for these youth from the time of release and enrollment in school, work, or training. Webb and Maddox (1986) conducted a needs assessment prior to developing a transition model for the State of Washington. They identified the following main problems: (1) Public school officials are not aware either of the fact that students go to school while incarcerated nor are they aware of the programs provided within the institution. (2) Student records are seldom received prior to, or at the time, the student enters the correctional facility or at the time of reenrollment in the public school. This causes problems in planning the best course for an individual student, problems which are exacerbated in the case of Special Eduction students with active IEP's. Other critical issues involve the lack of feedback which institutional staff receive after a youth is released, and the fact that public school staff and parole staff serving the same clients frequently fail to communicate.

Transition Models

We found total agreement in the literature that effective transitional services need to include the following components: interagency coordination, pre-placement joint planning, transfer of records prior to a student's move from one jurisdiction to another, and a number of specific pre-release transitional programs (Carter, 1983; Maddox et al., 1984; Rutherford, Behrens, and Fejes, 1987; Schwartz and Lewis, 1987; Cook, 1990; Wolford, 1990). Programs mentioned included social skills, survival skills, independent living skills, vocational skills, and law-related education. Most authors also agree that youths with disabilities need special assistance during transition periods (Maddox et al., 1984; Leone, Walter, and Edgar, 1990; Watanabe and Forgnone, 1990; Wolford, Miller, and Lawrenz, eds., 1990; Moran, 1991).

Judging from the three national surveys in this area, it is clear that current transition programming is far from adequate. In *Youth in Transition* (1988) the researchers report the results of a telephone survey of all the 50 States and the District of Columbia. Although 41 respondents had written guidelines for transition, less than half conducted any follow-up studies. In 40 States school records were received after admission of a youth to a correctional facility, and less than half claimed to send the record before or with a youth returning to public school. The Sutton and Whittier survey (1989) found 22 percent of the States without any transition programs in operation, and 82 percent indicated that they had no data on the number of students transitioned.

In 1983 the education and social services agencies responsible for the youths in correctional facilities in Washington State jointly contracted with the University of Washington to develop, implement, and evaluate a transition model to address the needs and problems delineated above. This model consists of 40 specific strategies in four separate areas: interagency awareness, transfer of records, joint preplacement planning, and maintenance/feedback of post-release placement. For each strategy, the model delineates *who* needs to be involved, *when* the involvement needs to take place, *materials* needed, and how the strategy is to be *evaluated* (Webb and Maddox, 1986).

The model was field tested and implemented, and preliminary evaluation results have been published. The researchers asked three critical questions vis-a-vis outcome: Did prerelease school information arrive in the community in time for preplacement planning to occur? Did school records arrive at the institution sooner than in the past? Did more youths stay in school longer when transition procedures were used? In the area of records transfer the program had significant impact. With more than 20 separate school districts involved, 80 percent of the participants evaluated the transition model as very useful to them. The first seven students, age 16-19, followed for 15-21 months after release were all still in school.

Two articles delineate components of successful transition programs such as that in Washington State. Cook (1990), reviewing some of the literature on successful interagency collaboration, stresses the need for administrative support, shared philosophical stance, use of existing organizations, informal networking and brokerage, cross-agency training, written guidelines, and a designated lead person. Wolford, Janssen, and Miller (1990) identify eight components of effective programming, based on a transition model implemented in Kentucky. These are: pre-release assessment and planning, a continuum of services and care, family services, frequent client contacts, motivated staff, leisure activities, drug/alcohol prevention programming, and development of community resources. Our study also revealed two articles dealing with community based, day care transition service centers, one in Jefferson Parish, Louisiana, the other in San Bernardino County, California. These are described in the next section.

The transition literature of the 1980's clearly delineates the need for more and better transition programs for delinquent youths and provides good guidelines for developing such programs. Until such programs become universal, it is unlikely that many other correctional education services—however excellent—will have a complete impact on the postrelease success of each client.

Section 12

Community Based Programs

Background

In the early 1970's, the Massachusetts Division of Youth Services closed all State training schools and transferred almost 1,000 children to community-based programs. This move generated intensive debates among juvenile justice experts as to the relative need for and merit of large, closed, State residential facilities as opposed to smaller, more open, community-based programs. Some States like Pennsylvania, Utah, Oklahoma, Louisiana, Colorado, and Oregon have actively pursued deinstitutionalization and emphasized community-based as compared to training school programs.[33]

Despite this trend, institutionalization has increased for delinquent youths. Only youths under 12 years and status offenders have been effectively deinstitutionalized (Lerman, 1990). The overall custody rate for juvenile offenders increased 46 percent in the period 1978-1989, with the highest increase (53 percent) in the juvenile detention population (Krisberg, DeComo, and Herrera, 1992). Simultaneously, private juvenile corrections and community-based programs, especially those privately operated, have proliferated. In our analysis we include under "community-based programs": delinquency prevention, day treatment, group home, jail, and detention programs.

Despite the expansion of community-based programs, the correctional education literature and research are very sparse on this subject. This is unfortunate since a team of researchers (Davidson et al., 1987), evaluating the relative efficacy of four different types of interventions, found that interventions located *outside* the formal juvenile justice system produced lower recidivism rates than interventions located *within* the system. Most of the literature in this category consists of program descriptions. Few of the programs described have been formally evaluated or systematically studied; even fewer with a scientific design have been evaluated.

Prevention Programs

The literature includes descriptions of some school-based or freestanding drop-out and/or delinquency prevention programs (Safer et al., 1982; Dade County Public Schools, 1985; Wircenski, 1990). Steiger and Guthmann, eds. (1985) conducted a review of alternative education programs for delinquents. While deploring the absence of controlled research studies, they still believe that it is possible to identify some promising approaches. These include group therapy in combination with remedial reading, using behavioral modification principles and individualized instruction. They recommend clear awards, small classes, and caring and competent teachers.

Two program descriptions may be of particular interest to correctional educators. Hawkins and Lishner (1983) describe a delinquency prevention model implemented in Seattle schools and reveal the strategies and components which they found to be effective. These effective components include

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[33] Blackmore, J., M. Brown, and B. Krisberg. *Juvenile Justice Reform: The Bellwether States.* Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan, School of Social Work, 1988.

interactive teaching, cooperative learning, and pro-active classroom management. English and Edwards (1989) describe a model prevention program in a Texas school district known as T.A.P.S. (To Allow Pupils to Succeed). The goal of T.A.P.S. is to produce high school graduates with marketable skills. The program includes remediation, counseling, preemployment and skills training, computer literacy, and special assistance for students with disabilities. The program was evaluated by comparing pre- and post-test scores, the drop-out rate, and perceptions of participants, parents, and school staff. The program claims a 50 percent decrease in the drop-out rate and some improvements in test scores and self-esteem.

Detention/Jail Programs

Detention education programs have been largely neglected due to the short term and transitional nature of detention. Yet, educational services are desperately needed to keep students current with their schooling, keep them meaningfully occupied, and fulfill Federal and State educational mandates. The youth detention population contains an unusually high percentage of juveniles with emotional disturbance and learning disabilities in need of Special Education services. Moran (1991), for example, found that the students at the county detention center in Seattle had 3 times the rate of Special Education students found in the public schools of that city, 13 times the rate of learning disabled students and twice the rate of students with mild mental retardation. Amster and Lazarus (1984) recommend that short term detention centers focus on identifying youths with learning disabilities and develop specific educational strategies for them. Manzella (1991) describes a practicum for short termers focusing on improving literacy skills as a precursor to pass the GED. DeCencio (1991) provides information on how to adapt Law-Related Education to a detention setting.

Roush's article, "Content and Process of Detention Education" (1983), is the most extensive probe of detention education and offers a number of excellent recommendations for practitioners. His model, based on literature and research, identifies priorities for detention education. These include an individual set of comprehensive goals for each student; good communications among student, parents, facility and school staff; and a curriculum that includes academic and vocational training as well as substance abuse, survival and coping skills training. Roush further recommends adherence to standards such as those promulgated by the American Correctional Association and the Council for Exceptional Children for Special Education. He stresses a 52 week school year, small classes, maintenance of education files, fully certified and specifically trained teachers, at least one of whom should be Special Education certified.

Day Treatment Programs

Most of the literature dealing with education programs in day treatment settings consists of descriptions of specific programs, few of which have undergone rigorous evaluations. Perhaps the largest day treatment program in the country is the one operated by the Los Angeles County Juvenile Court and Community School system. It functions as an independent local education agency (Los Angeles County Office of Education, 1992) and serves about 5,000 students per day in some 48 "day center schools." It provides both high school completion and GED preparation, vocational training, work experience, and a variety of enrichment programs. The program has formed creative partnerships with local businesses. Internal evaluations show an average student academic gain of two months for every month in the Los Angeles day treatment system.

Skonovd (1986) describes another California based day treatment program located in San Bernardino County which serves juveniles who are wards of the court. It is a short term, intensive program for educationally disabled or delayed youths, age 16-17. Besides the traditional academic, vocational, special and remedial education components; this program includes character education and victim awareness as well as restitution and work.

New Pride in Denver is a model program for serious, repeat offenders (James and Granville, 1984). It combines academic, remedial education, diagnostics, and treatment and counseling with vocational training and job placement. Through linkages with the business community, New Pride has its own small business where clients can get work experience. Program evaluations show that 90 percent of the clients have been able to remain in the community rather than become institutionalized. The program claims a 70 percent success rate in post-program school or work placements.

Our literature review uncovered two day treatment programs with a focus on students with special needs. STRIVE (Sheboygan Area Treatment for Reintegration Through Involvement in Vocation and Education) serves delinquents with emotional disturbance. The program consists of academic and vocational training, counseling, and social skills. It also has an outdoor challenge program to foster group interaction and self reliance. A program evaluation cites decreases in drop-out rates from school, decreased institutionalization, and lower costs than those incurred in residential correctional facilities (Weber and Maddox, 1986).

The most formally evaluated of the day treatment programs described in the literature seems to be the Jefferson Parish Day Care Transitional Center for adjudicated juveniles with special needs. It provides a range of educational, counseling, and family therapy services. The research used the Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT) to measure academic progress, the Minnesota Multiple Phasic Inventory Test to gauge personality traits and changes, a standardized IQ test, and arrest and/or offense records of the Parish to measure post program delinquency. The results were described as "positive" in all areas (Behre, Edwards, and Femming, 1982).

The Community Intensive Treatment for Youth (CITY) program in Alabama was selected by the National Governor's Association as an innovative model program (NGA, 1991). It utilizes the facilities of local education agencies with funding for programs provided by JTPA and the Alabama Department of Youth Services. It provides an alternative education program with heavy emphasis on vocational training and work experience. It includes remedial academic work, and families have to be involved. An internal evaluation indicates that CITY has led to reduced juvenile offenses and reductions in costs as compared to residential treatment programs (Walker, 1989).

Section 13

Learning Styles And Instructional Strategies

Correctional educators deal for the most part with students whose failures in school reach back to the early grades. They usually also have relatively little time with each student; hence, they need to know which instructional methods would have the greatest impact in the shortest period of time. Not surprisingly, effective instructional strategies and classroom management are always listed as high priorities on teachers' training needs assessments (Herr and Linn, 1990). Yet, on these subjects little exists in the *correctional* education literature and research.

Research on Learning Styles

Hodges (1982) has summarized the research literature in the 1970's dealing with the learning styles of delinquents, much of which is conjecture rather than established fact. There are, however, a few tentative conclusions worth summarizing. According to Hodges, the research suggests that the urban poor and juvenile delinquents are more likely to have a right brain dominance and be spatial/holistic, visual learners. Most learners in society at large, adult as well as juvenile, have a left brain dominance and are verbal/analytic learners. It is theorized that the acting-out behavior, truancy, school failure, school drop-out, and delinquency of so many of the urban poor stem from their failure of keeping up academically because of the verbally-based instructional methods that characterize most public schools. Hodges cites a 1978 research study which found that delinquents who were visual learners made greater cognitive gains and had lower recidivism when the instruction was adapted to the way they learn best, i.e., visually/spatially. Hodges and Evans (1983) stress the need for further research along these lines.

Instructional Practices

The researchers who studied Chapter I Neglected or Delinquent programs in juvenile corrections (LeBlanc, Pfannenstiel, and Tashjian, 1991) were critical of many of the instructional practices they observed. They found that traditional public school practices were carried over into correctional settings and were on the whole ineffective there. They advocate more teacher involvement and direction, use of a variety of instructional methods, greater emphasis on cognitive skills and less on drill and practice in fundamentals. They propose teaching to the students' strengths rather than to their deficits. They suggest a variety of strategies that would foster social and group skills, e.g., peer tutoring and cooperative learning. They recommend that reading should focus on comprehension; mathematics instruction on understanding the underlying concepts. As we shall see in the next section of this publication, their findings are very similar to those arrived at by the Effective Schools Research.

Correctional educators have written little on the subject of instruction. It is generally acknowledged that instruction needs to be individualized (Mayer and Hoffman, 1982; Bobal, 1984; Herr and Linn, 1990), but little detail is provided on the specifics of individualization. Bobal (1984), a correctional teacher, finds from her own experience that instruction for juvenile delinquents also needs to be conducted in an unconventional classroom setting, with a lot of varied and challenging materials, emphasis on thinking skills, and with frequent feedback and rewards. She also advocates specific goal setting.

Instructional Technology

Despite the great influx of computers into correctional schools during the 1980's, there is very little literature and no research available in this area. Several authors (Dowling, 1982; Askov and Turner, 1990; Peterson and Williams, 1990; Spaniol and Cleberg, 1990; Manzella, 1991) mention that computer-assisted instruction (CAI) has been effective with juvenile offenders. None, however, reports any scientific research that would prove this point. Askov and Turner review the advantages of the technology: privacy and individualization for the learner, achievement gains, cost effectiveness, flexible scheduling. Manzella (1991) points out that CAI is motivating. Peterson and Williams, studying the impact of IBM's PALS (Principle of the Alphabet Literacy System) with juvenile delinquents, found it most effective with those most at risk, a finding that seems supported by Oliver (1990). Askov and Turner (1990) also list the disadvantages of CAI, most of which result from the lack of trained staff rather than from the technology itself. Untrained staff do not know how to integrate this technology into instruction and curricula, may use it inappropriately, or may simply resist change.

The literature search also uncovered three articles providing resource referrals. Fink (1990) describes a computerized system (SNAP), designed to provide special education teachers with recommendations in teaching/learning and behavioral strategies in response to teacher entered problem situations. Hartman (1989) provides information on Computer Adaptive Testing as implemented in the Los Angeles County Court Schools, which provides individualized, micro-computer testing. Middleton (1987) describes the services and resources provided by the Special Education Software Center, accessed through a toll-free number. These services could be of value to correctional teachers.

Classroom Management

Herr and Linn (1990 and 1992) are the only authors we could find who have specifically addressed classroom management techniques in a correctional setting. They stress specific effective techniques in three areas: (1) preventive planning techniques; (2) anticipatory response techniques; and (3) systematic interventions. They emphasize the preventive techniques which include establishing firm and clear rules, modeling behaviors in the classroom, careful planning of time on task, and providing lots of attention, positive encouragement, and feedback. Anticipatory techniques are used when students show indication of lapsing. These include moving closer to the problem student, modulating the voice, reminding the student of rules, and probing for the cause of misbehavior. Finally, after the infraction, the teacher should use assertiveness, logical consequences, and conferencing.

The at-risk literature outside corrections, primarily the Effective Schools Research, is strong in the area of instructional strategies and methodology where correctional education is weak. For that reason, we have summarized a great deal of the available knowledge from that body of research in Part II. We believe that this information is highly relevant to correctional settings.

PART II

Documented Effective Practices in the Education of At-Risk and Delinquent Youth

Introduction

Part II of this publication is a compendium of what we call "documented effective practices." By the term "effective practices" we mean any instructional or administrative action that enables all students to learn in accordance with their ability and meet agreed-upon standards of performance. We use the term exclusively in relation to meeting *educational*—not juvenile justice goals (e.g., reduced recidivism). The term "documented" is chosen to reflect several things. First, it refers to practices which have been proven effective through research. This includes practices advocated by the Effective Schools Research and some "best practices" from correctional education that have been identified through correctional education research. As we have observed earlier, however, the body of research in juvenile correctional education is slim and does not always meet the standards of scientific, social science research. We believe, however, that many effective practices have also been identified in the general literature, which are not necessarily based on research but reflect a great deal of practical experience and professional acumen. When the same educational practices have been described as effective by several authors from various settings and when there is a sense of cumulative endorsements, we have considered them as "documented effective practices". Obviously, we have had to make value judgements, and the selection is to some extent subjective. For this we take full responsibility.

It should be noted that we are dealing solely with documented, effective practices not programs. Although we found a number of effective practices and other types of component parts, we did not find a single program, or a whole, in the literature that could be advanced as a model for others to replicate. Furthermore, juvenile correctional education is by nature highly individualized and localized; what is a "model program" in one place and with one type of juvenile delinquent student body may not be readily replicated or even adapted and transferred into another setting—thus our emphasis on documented *practices* and other component parts. We believe that correctional educators are best able to assemble their own models from these. Our charge to practitioners is: *Take a fresh look at your programs, be daring and experiment with new models of correctional education, and test and evaluate them through research.* If and when these new programs and practices have been proven effective through research, we hope that the findings will be widely disseminated through publications.

This part of the publication is based on a number of sources. First, it is based on the correctional education literature reviewed in Part I and documented and annotated in Part III. Second, we have added findings from the Effective Schools Research which we believe is of particular relevance to correctional education since it deals with very similar types of students—disadvantaged and at-risk children. Third, we have also, and for similar reasons, brought in the findings of the Secretary's Commission on Acquiring Necessary Skills (U.S. Department of Labor) and Job Training Partnership Act youth programs. Since many of the effective practices identified in Part III are derived from the Effective Schools Research, which may not be widely known among correctional educators, we have provided a brief introduction below.

Effective Schools Research

It has been estimated that more than one in five public school children comes from families in poverty. By the mid-1980's it became painfully clear that despite extra resources from Federal programs such as Chapter I, these disadvantaged children failed disproportionately and early in their school years and remained "on a track for failure" which barred them from further pursuits of learning, jobs, and personal fulfillment (Knapp and Turnbull, 1990). It was further determined that some of the remedial help they received may even have put them at a further disadvantage. As a consequence, the Federal government funded a major, three-year research study to determine how instruction can be changed to improve the school performance of poor and at-risk children.

This research study included a number of components. It involved a review of the literature that has emerged from the "effective schools movement" that goes back to the early 1970's, to identify and highlight factors that influence student learning directly or indirectly such as instructional methods, curricula, school climate, organizational change, policy, leadership, professional development, parental involvement, and community support. The research also included a detailed study in 140 classrooms across 15 schools serving a large proportion of disadvantaged children to identify effective practices. It led to the identification of a set of alternative practices found more effective with these children than "conventional" practices. The findings from these studies together with a series of commissioned papers are available in print.

The research evidence led "to an overall conclusion that much recent thinking about the education of disadvantaged students has been flawed." The results challenge "conventional wisdom" about what works in curricula and instruction for these children and call for a careful reexamination in five key areas: (1) the conception of the "disadvantaged" learner; (2) the sequencing and challenge of the curriculum; (3) the role of the teacher; (4) the relationship between educational tasks and classroom management; and (5) the degree and nature of differentiation to accommodate students of different levels. Conventional assumptions about disadvantaged learners stressed their *deficiencies*, often with the result of ignoring what they do know, misdiagnosing their learning problems, and having low expectations of these students. Conventional curricula are usually sequential, with skills ordered from basic to higher-order. Many disadvantaged children have become fixed at the basic skills levels, barred from more challenging and interesting tasks developing cognitive skills, and deprived of more meaningful contexts for their studies. Traditionally the instruction has been teacher-controlled, with students being taught and supervised rather than working on their own or with one another. Classroom management has traditionally depended on uniformity and rigid rules. Finally, ability-grouping may have solved the problem of matching students with appropriate tasks but may have exacerbated other problems. Children often got stuck in lower-level groups, segregated in pull-out programs, and negatively labeled. This may lead to poor self-esteem and self-fulfilling expectations of failure or low achievement.

The Effective Schools Research introduces alternatives to the "conventional wisdom" in the five key areas summarized above. It focuses on the *strengths*, cultural context, experience and knowledge disadvantaged children bring to school, not on their deficiencies. It proposes an intellectually more challenging curriculum and challenging tasks, balancing routine skill learning with novel and applied tasks. It argues for instruction that stresses meaning and understanding. The Effective Schools Research suggests that teachers need to expand their repertoire and that there be a balance between

teacher-directed and learner-directed instruction. These researchers see classroom management as a function of academic work, with emphasis on preventive techniques. Finally, they strongly suggest that grouping should in the main be homogeneous, involving cooperative and team learning. They recommend that individual help for low-achieving students be on an ad hoc basis, not on a long-term separate group basis, and that supplementary assistance, such as Chapter I, be as much as possible integrated with regular classroom activities or be provided at a time that does not require students to miss regular classes.

The research literature provides a great deal of elaboration and specific examples and applications of the alternatives to conventional wisdom reviewed above. It focuses in great detail on the areas of reading, mathematics, and writing at the elementary school level. It further addresses a wide range of administrative and policy issues involved in creating the foundation and school climate for introducing more effective curricula, instructional strategies, and classroom management techniques. It should be noted that this particular Federal research effort focused on the first six grades. The researchers themselves, however, raised the question of whether their findings would be applicable to the secondary level as well and responded in the affirmative. Although these findings have not yet had an impact on juvenile correctional education, they are of great relevance and potential significance. The type of students who were the focus of the Effective Schools Research--poor, disadvantaged, traditionally low-achieving youths, who are often school failures, and often drop-outs--are the same as those most commonly found in juvenile correctional facilities. Furthermore, although delinquents are typically of secondary school age, their actual performance levels are quite commonly at the elementary grades. We believe that with few exceptions and with room for adaptations, the findings from this body of research are directly applicable to juvenile correctional education.

Organization, Documentation, and Use of Part III

For the purposes of clarity, ease of using the materials, readability, and avoidance of too much repetition from the other parts of this study, we have organized the materials on effective practices in a schematic format, as a series of declarative action oriented Statements with minimal discussion and/or documentation. Obviously, the Statements are not enough to implement the practice it describes. Users of this publication, who would like to get further information in order to develop a strategy or find appropriate materials to implement a certain practice, are referred to the topical index, which in turn guides the user to specific entries in the annotated bibliography. Furthermore, the topics in this part correspond to topics in the first part of this study, the analytical review which provides additional information and documentation.

Section 1

Characteristics of Effective Schools

A basic premise in effective schools research is that there are more effective and less effective schools with identifiable characteristics and that a school's total learning and working environment determines its relative effectiveness. The following is a combination of commonly accepted factors that characterize effective schools in general and those that are specifically applicable to correctional school settings.[34]

1. The facility offers a comprehensive education program that includes basic academic skills, high school completion, GED preparation, special education, pre-employment training, and other programs as needed aimed at enhancing students' social, cognitive, and life skills. Postsecondary education is facilitated for older youths with a high school diploma or GED.

2. Education is considered by facility and system administrators to be the most important part of the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents.

3. The education program comes first and is not made to compete with other institutional programming.

4. There is a productive, safe and orderly school climate.

5. The educational program is supported with space and equipment meeting State and professional standards and the objectives of a comprehensive education program.

6. Institutional education programs are supported by appropriate print and non-print instructional materials, technologies (video, computers), and library services.

7. There are written Statements of expected, measurable performance outcomes in each subject area.

8. Student/teacher ratios are established for each program area. These staffing patterns reflect the needs of the students, the requirements of the subject area, availability of equipment and other resources, and the requirements of law, rules, or regulations.

9. There is coordination of instructional support services.

10. There are high expectations for students.

11. Student progress is carefully monitored.

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[34] These are derived mostly from the Effective Schools Research, the Chapter I - Neglected or Delinquent research, and the standards promulgated by the Correctional Education Association.

12. Academic achievement is positively reinforced through a range of incentives, including diplomas and certificates.

13. Each school has an on-going orientation program to inform prospective students of available educational programs, their nature, requirements, and goals.

14. Programs ensure that minority and women students have educational equity.

15. Educational services are made available to students placed in secure and/or segregated settings.

16. Staff is of high quality and has a bias for action.

17. The principal provides strong academic leadership.

18. Faculty collaboration and cohesiveness exist.

19. Teachers have positive attitudes toward students.

20. There is a written plan and regular time schedule for the evaluation of the education program.

21. Parents and the community are involved and provide support.

Section 2

Effective Practices in Administration

The following administrative practices are primarily derived from the Effective Schools and Chapter I—Neglected or Delinquent Federally supported research and the Standards for Adult and Juvenile Correctional Education Programs promulgated by the Correctional Education Association. They stress the need for education to be the centerpiece in the rehabilitation efforts for juvenile delinquents, supported by *correctional* as well as *educational* staff. They focus on the need for correctional education systems to be administered as LEA's, with budgets separate from those for security, treatment, and housing. These practices reflect the need for high quality staff, receiving the same renumeration as their public school peers and adequate training opportunities for their special, correctional assignments. Finally, these practices reflect support for school-level management, decision making, and leadership in school reform.

1. The system, as well as each local correctional education program, has a written philosophy and goals Statement. This Statement is shared with all staff and students and serves as a vehicle to communicate the purpose of the correctional education program to the legislature, agencies providing funding and other services, and the public at large.

2. The facility administration supports, but does not control or run, the education program.

3. Education is perceived by all correctional facility staff (e.g. security, treatment, and school) to be the key component of each youth's program.

4. All youths—regardless of their educational level--are required to participate in education programs designed to enhance their academic levels and/or employment readiness.

5. Schools operate twelve months per year.

6. The correctional education system/school functions as an LEA, or as a component of an LEA, for the purposes of funding and other resources.

7. Both system-wide and local correctional education programs are administered by *education* credentialed administrators with authority over the correctional education budget, personnel, and programs.

8. System-wide and local education administrators have key roles in the administrative structure of their correctional agency or facility and participate in overall planning, policy, classification and other management considerations.

9. The school principal is an instructional, management, and political leader, whose key role is to create the conditions that support effective instruction and the climate and requirements for local school reform.

10. Each system and school has written policies and procedures that are kept up-to-date and are communicated to all staff.

11. Appropriate accreditation from State, regional, and/or professional accrediting bodies is sought for each correctional school.

12. All local school programs meet the standards promulgated by the Correctional Education Association.

13. There is a separate budget, or a separate line item, for correctional education.

14. The administration maximizes the use of Federal funding.

15. Chapter I and other Federal funds are used as seed money for designing and implementing innovative programs.

16. The administration makes sure that all education programs are supported by the materials and equipment necessary for a positive and up-to-date learning environment.

17. Periodic assessments are conducted to gauge students' needs, staff development needs, and to serve as a basis for planning and program improvement.

18. Teacher recruitment practices attract highly qualified staff appropriate to the student population.

19. Staff salaries and benefits are comparable with those of adjacent school districts.

20. New staff are provided pre-service orientation and training in the procedures and principles of providing educational services to delinquents in a correctional school setting.

21. Opportunities and incentives for in-service and other forms of staff development (i.e., professional conferences, visiting other sites, and collaborating with others) are provided systematically.

22. In-service training is provided at least annually.

23. Staff development includes current research on effective instructional strategies and appropriate programming for at-risk students to prepare them for more advanced schooling and/or work.

24. Site-based management exists that give teachers and local school administrators authority and flexibility to change structures and practices in exchange for their accepting responsibility for results.

25. The system administration encourages and provides leadership and support for school-level innovation, experimentation, and change, providing schools with the authority and flexibility to alter what is not working well, and providing school faculties with access to knowledge and the time to learn and plan.

26. The workplace is restructured to provide opportunities for staff interaction, collaboration, planning, and renewal.

27. School staff are given access to the training, knowledge and skills needed to plan critically and change existing programs and practices.

28. The administrative unit responsible for the system-wide delivery of correctional education conducts meetings as needed, at least annually, with local correctional education administrators to enable their participation in budgeting and planning, policy development, and program development.

Section 3

Effective Practices in Academic Programs

A fundamental assumption underlying much of the academic curriculum in America's schools during the past decades is that certain skills are "basic" and have to be mastered before students are given more "advanced" tasks, such as problem solving, cognitive reasoning, reading comprehension, and communication in written form. The Effective Schools researchers found that disadvantaged children falling behind in school often were pulled out of regular classes to be provided drill in practice in basic skills in isolation from any applications. Although this practice may have enhanced their basic reading and computational skills somewhat, it came at the cost of postponing more challenging and interesting work--sometimes forever. They believe that this approach--common in the "back to basics" reform movement of the 1980's--may actually have put these children at an even further disadvantage from their more advantaged peers.

Current thinking discards the assumptions of skill hierarchies and the belief that there are certain basics that have to be fully mastered before a student can go on to higher levels of thinking and knowledge. The Effective Schools researchers believe that we have underestimated what disadvantaged children are capable of doing. They recommend that the old model of schooling be replaced with one that is based on the assumption that all students can learn and succeed and that students regarded as educationally disadvantaged or delayed can profit from more challenging tasks, including those involving higher order thinking skills, applied learning, and problem solving--all critical in modern jobs.

Teachers' instructional strategies, however, as well as the curriculum must change to help disadvantaged learners handle more advanced tasks. These learners must be fully included in the mainstream, not be separated out for drill and practice. This thinking has permeated a "new" view of Chapter I programming, as reflected in the recent reauthorization of the enabling Federal legislation.

The classrooms in correctional settings have all too long reflected the "old" model, with heavy emphasis on remediation, drill and practice in the basics, and individual student workbook exercises. Assessments have often zeroed in on what students cannot do in order to provide instruction in those areas. Generally, teachers and other staff seem to have rather low expectations of these students. Classroom management seems to focus on discipline and control, with "time out"--i.e., separating the offending learner from the classroom, other students, and the ongoing learning. To judge from the facts that most of the delinquents, 16 years of age and older, do not return to school to stay until graduation and the recidivism rate remains so high, it is hard to claim that this model deserves to be perpetuated.

The recommendations emerging from the Effective Schools Research in the 1980's and early 1990's are particularly relevant to the type of student most common in correctional settings—the educationally disadvantaged who often lag several years behind their public school peers. The effective practices advocated by these researchers deserve a good try in corrections where they are likely to prove more effective than those utilized in the past. The following list of such practices only scratch the surface of the Effective Schools and Chapter I research on which they are based. They do,

however, provide the foundation of a new, and hopefully more effective, approach, involving substantial changes in philosophy as well as in curriculum and instruction.[35]

1. There is a system for initial screening, assessment, and evaluation to determine the educational and related needs of each youth at intake.

2. The curriculum in all academic subjects emphasizes comprehension and complex, meaningful problem solving tasks, allowing students to develop their cognitive skills individually and in teams.

3. The curriculum embeds basic skills instruction in more global and meaningful tasks that allow students to transfer skills to real-world situations.

4. The curriculum allows for a number of discrete skills to be applied together in more complex tasks.

5. Knowledge sharing is emphasized through cooperative learning, peer tutoring, and team problem solving classroom activities.

6. Teachers "model" higher-order intellectual processes through a variety of instructional strategies, e.g., thinking aloud, externalizing thought processes, encouraging multiple approaches to problem solving, providing "scaffolding," and by focusing on dialogue and reciprocal learning.

7. A variety of assessment and evaluation measures are used, including portfolio assessments and observations. Progress is based on mutually defined individual student goals, with emphasis on competence first, followed by credentialling (grades, credits, diplomas) as appropriate.

8. "Metacognition"—the knowledge of one's strengths and weaknesses—is meaningfully integrated throughout classroom instruction.

9. Materials used in academic subjects are based on life and social skills competencies and provide students the opportunity to practice such skills.

10. Chapter I programs support students in their regular classwork and enable them to stay in the regular classroom, providing them with the same opportunities for complex, challenging, and interesting tasks and for interaction with all students, including those who are more advanced. Chapter I programs provide supplemental help, not separate or alternative help. Pull-out programs and tracking are to be avoided.

11. Reading instruction emphasizes meaning and comprehension, focusing on the full range of cues (phonetic, contextual, etc.) and discussion, rather than on discrete decoding skills out of context.

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[35] For further detail, see the references listed under "Effective schools research" in the index.

12. Reading materials are varied, reflecting student interests and cultures.

13. Instruction involves multiple strategies (direct instruction, explicit instruction, phonics, whole language, neurological impress, etc.) appropriate for the learner's interests, learning style, and needs.

14. Students have opportunity for silent reading and for discussion of what they have read.

15. Reading, writing, and oral expression are interrelated and integrated in the classroom.

16. Writing is a daily activity with emphasis on communication, thinking, and creativity.

17. There is less emphasis on the mechanics of writing (spelling, punctuation, grammar) in isolation. Mechanics are stressed more as students become more confident in expressing themselves in writing and are taught in context.

18. Students are exposed to a variety of types of writing.

19. Mathematics instruction emphasizes the understanding of mathematical concepts and the application of skills to actual situations and problems.

20. In the upper elementary school grades and beyond, there is reduced emphasis placed on computational skills, especially out of context drill and practice.

21. Teachers model and teach mathematical problem-solving strategies explicitly.

22. Teaching is project-centered and encourages students to work in structured task groups with peer leadership.

23. Technology (such as computers, calculators, video) are integrated into the instruction to teach mathematical concepts, problem-solving skills, and composition by word processing.

24. Older students who will not return to public school after release, and who can pass the practice GED test, are given the opportunity to prepare for and take the GED. However, the GED preparation is enriched with other program components, e.g., social and life skills, employment preparation, independent living skills, counseling, and transition programming.

25. Students with a GED or High School Diploma are offered postsecondary academic or vocational opportunities, and/or work experience, while also participating in social and life skills, employment preparation, independent living skills, counseling, and transition programming.

Section 4

Effective Practices in Special Education

Research has shown that between 25 and 40 percent of all children in correctional facilities have some form of disability creating impediments to their education. It is therefore essential that all correctional education programs have the appropriately trained and certified staff and the capacity and resources to provide a full spectrum special education programs and services. Correctional facility staff should be prepared to place incoming youths with active IEP's (Individual Education Plans) promptly in programs in which they can carry out their goals and objectives. Correctional special education programs must also be equipped to identify students potentially in need of and eligible for special education who have not previously been identified in their public school settings.

Federal law mandates that the State education agency is fully responsible for ensuring that all children with disabilities under age 21 receive appropriate special education services in the least restrictive environment. It outlines in great detail the processes and procedural safeguards to be followed. These constitute *mandated effective practices* and will not be repeated here.[36] Federal law and State rules and regulations State *what* must be provided and with what procedural safeguards. They do not usually define *how*. The following effective practices are derived from the extant, relatively substantial literature on *correctional* special education. These identify practices that have been found effective with delinquent students and within the confines of correctional agencies and facilities. If implemented, they would ensure that special education is not a paper tiger but a meaningful support and change agent helping youths with disabilities better cope with their post-release lives in terms of further education, independent or family life, work, and recreation.

1. All facilities and/or programs for delinquent youth offer special education in full compliance with Federal and State law (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act [IDEA], Section 504 of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973, and the Americans with Disabilities Act [ADA]).

2. The correctional education administration develops communications, collaboration, and interagency agreements as needed with the State education agency (SEA) vested with the responsibility to ensure that IDEA is implemented in all settings with eligible students under age 21, including corrections.

3. The correctional education administration ensures that juvenile corrections clients and staff are included in all State annual plans, needs assessments, and staff development opportunities.

4. The administration ensures that all monetary and other resources provided by law for each eligible special education student are received and utilized as appropriate while that student is under a correctional jurisdiction.

[36] Each state has rules and regulations that translate the Federal mandate to the state level. Correctional education administrators should obtain these and work with SEA officials to make sure that youths in a correctional setting are receiving all the same appropriate services they would receive in a community setting.

5. All correctional education staff are trained to know the legal mandates of IDEA and their roles in fulfilling such mandates.

6. The correctional special education program contains the following essential components: (1) functional assessment of the deficits and learning needs of disabled offenders; (2) a functional curriculum that meets each individual student's needs; (3) vocational training opportunities tailored to meet the needs of students with disabilities; (4) transitional services that link the correctional special education services to prior educational experiences and to the educational and human services needed after release; (5) a comprehensive system for providing a full range of education and related services; and (6) effective pre- and in-service staff training in correctional special education to develop, maintain, and upgrade their skills.

7. The administration makes sure that barriers, pre-conditions, or disincentives to the access of disabled students are removed and that, to the greatest extent possible, these students are fully *included* in regular programs, classrooms, and activities.

8. The facility has a list of committed and trained surrogate parents, not in the employ of the correctional facility or agency, who are ready to serve as needed.

9. The correctional facility has a scheme for diagnosis and classification that approximately defines the intellectual and developmental levels of each youth and places him/her in the appropriate program and security setting.

10. The educational assessment is functional, aimed at determining the discrepancy between a student's functioning and the standard for his age group and to provide the appropriate interventions if such a discrepancy is determined to exist.[37]

11. The functional assessment utilizes a variety of techniques and instruments, e.g., achievement tests, class assignments, observations, client interviews, parent interviews, and interviews with previous school functionaries.

12. A *functional curriculum* preparing students for adult living--consisting of independent living, social, and vocational skills--is offered as an alternative to, or in conjunction with, the regular academic curriculum for the portion of special education students who have dropped out of school, exhibit severe behavior problems, are mildly mentally retarded, who are learning disabled and are reading four grade levels behind their peers at the time they reach the ninth grade.[38]

13. The independent living skills curriculum includes at a minimum the following skills areas: telephone, newspaper, transportation, money, shopping, menu planning, cooking, home and yard maintenance, survival reading, use of calculator, measurements, and leisure time.

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[37] The effective practices in assessment are derived from Howell's chapter in Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford (1987).

[38] The effective practices in the functional curriculum area are derived from the Fredericks and Evans chapter in Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford (1987).

14. The social skills curriculum, aimed at teaching student to effectively cope with the social demands of their living and work environments, covers at a minimum human awareness (i.e., self-esteem, personal rights, relationships, feelings, problem solving, and sexual knowledge) and communications (i.e., compliments, assertiveness, listening and speaking skills). The social skills training includes identification of behaviors to be learned, modeling, role-playing, performance feedback, and transfer training.[39]

15. The vocational skills training includes applying for a job, interviewing for a job, performing on the job, and using correct social skills on the job.

16. A student's current functional level in the three areas is assessed prior to individual program development and placement.

17. Skills that can be taught in a classroom setting are taught there, and opportunities for practicing skills in real life settings are provided within the facility at large and/or the community.

18. Students are issued credentials (certificates, diplomas) for completing programs and/or components of the functional curriculum.

19. All correctional education staff and appropriate correctional facility staff are trained to either teach or support and reinforce aspects of the functional curriculum.

20. The special education program includes a transition component that helps youths in their movement between public schools and corrections or between corrections and independent living and work.[40]

21. The special eduction transition program includes formal and informal interagency agreements to facilitate: (1) awareness among receiving and sending agencies of one another's programs and services, eligibility criteria for services, and contact persons; (2) exchange of information about clients; (3) joint program planning prior to a transition; (4) transfer of records; (5) feedback after transfer; (6) staff development and training.

22. The administration identifies agencies in the community that provide the educational, vocational, and human services needed by special education students either during or after release from a correctional program. It coordinates such services, and enters into formal and/or informal agreements to ensure that students receive the educational and related services that meet their needs and are required by Federal law.

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[39] For further details, see Goldstein's chapter in Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford (1987). Also see effective practices listed in Section 5 of Part II.

[40] For further details, see Section 7 in this part of the publication which deal with effective practices in transition programming. They are primarily derived from a Washington State model which was originally developed for special education students in juvenile correctional facilities.

23. All correctional special education staff become familiar with standards and model policies pertaining to the education for disabled persons promulgated by the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), the Correctional Education Association (CEA), the American Bar Association (ABA), and the American Correctional Association (ACA).

Section 5

Effective Practices in Psychoeducational Programming

Research indicates that delinquents are often deficient in cognitive problem solving skills, moral reasoning, and the communications and social skills essential for successful functioning in daily living and work environments. Research has also shown that the common component of successful correctional programs is any technique that not only deals with the offender's academic and vocational deficiencies but affects his/her thinking and social skills. It is essential that every juvenile correctional education program includes a substantial social, meta-cognitive component, i.e., programming aimed at *teaching* (as opposed to counseling or treating) social, moral, and cognitive skills. Juvenile correctional education literature identifies a number of excellent models in this area.[41]

1. The total correctional education program includes a *separate*, intensive (at least one hour per day) social meta-cognitive skills program focusing on areas such as social interactions and communications; moral and spiritual values and understanding; cognition and problem solving; self, emotional, impulse and anger control; negotiation and conflict resolution; critical thinking and decision making; social perspective taking; self-recognition and self-esteem.

2. There is a specific, comprehensive social meta-cognitive skills curriculum.

3. Students are functionally assessed in social skills and cognitive reasoning, with testing tied to the curriculum, and assigned groups and work as needed.

4. Students receive additional social skills practice, training, and reinforcement in all subjects taught. All instructors stress and model appropriate social skills, problem solving, and cognitive reasoning.

5. Social skills education is integrated with the total life of the school and facility, i.e., residential life, work, mealtimes, sports, and recreation.

6. Opportunities are created for practicing and applying social skills in the community (e.g., through field trips, community service, and work experience).

7. *Social skills instructors* receive intensive, in-depth training in both curriculum content and teaching methodologies.

8. All *academic and vocational instructors* receive training in how to incorporate, model, and apply social skills and cognitive reasoning in their classes, regardless of subject matter.

9. All *facility staff* receive training in how to integrate and support social skills learning in the total facility program.

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[41] The effective practices summarized in this section are based primarily on the work of Ross, Fabiano, Ross, Goldstein, and Larson. For further details, see "Moral/cognitive education" and "Social skills training" in the index.

10. Opportunities exist for student participation in school and facility government.

11. All instructors use techniques such as the following to foster cognitive reasoning and social skills: modeling, small group discussions, cooperative learning, positive peer culture, positive behavior modification, values clarification, self-analysis and rating, means-end reasoning, social problem solving, role-playing, and opportunities to apply and practice skills.

Section 6

Effective Practices in Employment Preparation

Research indicates that the majority of delinquents, age 16 and above, do not return to school after release from a correctional setting, or return for only a very short time and do not graduate from high school. While correctional educators need to find better ways to prepare and motivate students for return to school and higher levels of academic and vocational education, they also need to provide students with the awareness, knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to obtain and succeed in entry level jobs. The practices listed below reflect the recommendations made by the Secretary's Commission on Acquiring Necessary Skills (SCANS, U.S. Department of Labor) for incorporating workplace know-how preparation in all areas of secondary schooling.[42]

1. Education programs afford students the opportunity to develop the skills and competencies identified as the "three-part foundation" by SCANS: (1) basic skills (reading, writing, arithmetic/mathematics, listening, and speaking; (2) thinking skills (creative thinking, decision making, problem solving, conceptualizing, knowing how to learn, and reasoning); and (3) personal qualities (responsibility, sociability, self-esteem, self-management, and integrity/honesty).

2. Education programs afford students the opportunity to develop the "five workplace competencies" identified by SCANS, namely: (1) use resources, such as time, money, materials, space, and staff; (2) work productively with others on teams; (3) acquire, organize, and use information; (4) understand and utilize systems; and (5) use technology (e.g., computers) to perform specific tasks.

3. Staff development opportunities are made available to all education staff to ensure that they have adequate knowledge of the current and future labor market, its implication for education of youths, and how to incorporate new subject matter, skills, and techniques in their programs to enhance the employability of their students.

4. All students are assessed in terms of their current degree of "employability," and programs and strategies are built into their individual education plans to enhance their employability.

5. Students are made aware of the changing labor market, and the components of "workplace know-how," and shown how this impacts on their academic and vocational preparation.

6. Teachers help students connect knowledge and skills to the workplace.

7. Students are given opportunities to apply knowledge in real-life situations or simulations, such as OJT, work experience, internships, apprenticeships, mentorships, or "shadowing" workers on a job.

[42] The practices listed in this section also reflect ideas from current JTPA youth programs, the Job Corps, and the correctional education vocational and pre-vocational experience.

8. The correctional education program teaches job finding and job keeping skills, in theory and practice, and stresses the work ethic.

9. All prevocational and vocational courses teach up-to-date skills and knowledge and use the tools, materials, and equipment currently in use in the labor market.

10. Students develop a portfolio, which includes credentials (e.g., grades, diplomas, certificates, awards), work samples (e.g., written work, sample applications), work history, resume, letters of recommendation, relevant community service, and extra-curricular experiences.

11. Students with special needs are provided employment preparation programs and services; and curricula, instruction, and equipment are adjusted as appropriate.

12. Students have opportunities to receive counseling related to employment and/or employment preparation.

13. Transition programs, while encouraging and assisting students to go back to school, include information and services for students moving directly into the labor market.

14. Interagency cooperative relationships are developed between the school and agencies and organizations in the community which provide skill development, on-the-job training, and job placement, in order to enhance programs and provide postrelease linkages and support services for clients.

15. Partnerships are developed between the school and employers in the community in order to enhance current programs with support and enrichment and to provide postrelease linkages and support for students.

Section 7

Effective Practices in Transition and Support Services[43]

Juvenile correctional education literature calls for more and better transitional services in order to bridge the gap from community schools to correctional facilities and/or programs and back again to home or independent living, school and/or work. There is general agreement that the lack of appropriate transition and support programming may undo a great deal of the benefits students have derived in correctional education programs and the successes they may have experienced in such programs. It is generally believed that effective transition and support programs may increase the rate of student reenrollment in school, the high school graduation rate, and postrelease success in employment and independent living.[44]

1. Effective transitional services include the following components: interagency coordination, pre-placement joint planning, transfer of records prior to a student's move from one jurisdiction to another, a continuum of services and care, family services, and frequent client contacts.

2. A variety of specific educational pre-release programs are provided such as social skills, survival skills, independent living skills, pre-employment training, and law-related education.

3. A variety of noneducational support services are provided such as work experience and placement, alcohol and drug abuse counseling, vocational assessment and counseling, health education, training for parenthood, and driver's education.

4. External resources (such as speakers, tutors, mentors, vocational trainers, substance abuse counselors, employers, volunteers, and job counselors) are tapped.

5. Special funds are earmarked for transition and support services, including additional Chapter I N or D funding.

6. Students in correctional education programs have access to a comprehensive library, with an interlibrary loan program, which contains a variety of materials related to transition and support services and reflect the varied and multicultural interests and needs of the students.

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[43] "Transition" is used in this section exclusively with the meaning of the passages from community (home, school, etc.) to correctional program setting and back again. It is considered here a component of total correctional education programming, especially in residential facilities.

[44] Most of the effective practices cited in this section are derived from The Juvenile Corrections Interagency Transition Model (Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford, 1987) and the study of Chapter I N or D programs in correctional settings (Rowe and Pfannenstiel, 1991).

7. Interagency awareness of clients' needs and one another's services are developed through interagency administrators' meetings, inter-agency inservice training, and correctional institution and community school visits.

8. Procedures and inter-agency agreements are developed to ensure that students' records are transferred in a timely fashion between the releasing and the receiving institutions in order for pre-placement decisions to be made.

9. A planning and placement decision process is developed at the program level for using all available educational information to make prompt and appropriate placement, including identification of those with active Special Education IEP's and those potentially in need of and eligible for Special Education and related services.

10. An individual education plan is developed for each student that includes transitional services and goals.

11. A preplacement planning team is formed that develops a plan for the student's placement after release prior to the release date and based on a review of all options.

12. Students are scheduled and preregistered prior to their reentry into community schools. If possible, students attend such preregistrations.

13. A system is developed among criminal justice and educational jurisdictions (e.g., public school counselor, principal of correctional education program, and parole officer) for maintaining placement and communication after students' release into school or work in the community.

14. Public schools are encouraged to assign all adjudicated youth to one counselor who can serve as an advocate for these youths, cultivate parent involvement, maintain communications with other jurisdictions, and place students in classes with supportive teachers.

15. A system is developed for periodic evaluations of the transition program and all of its components.[45]

[45] See Nelson, Rutherford, and Wolford, 1987, for an evaluation model derived from Washington state.

Section 8

Effective Practices in Program Evaluation and Research

As documented in this publication, there is a great need both for more and better correctional education research. Practitioners need more process as well as outcome research, especially scientifically designed, rigorous evaluation studies, to improve programs and practices. Legislators and funding agencies require further proof of effectiveness when determining future policies and allocations of resources. The following effective practices provide a foundation for solid correctional education research on local, system-wide, and national bases.

1. Student intake data are collected and kept systematically in order to have a baseline for student achievement in the correctional education program. Student performance data are linked to specific skill areas and competencies in the curriculum.

2. There is a system for regular evaluation of each student's progress, and cumulative student data are systematically kept to serve as a basis for overall evaluation of programs and staff. Grade equivalent scores are not used to measure pupil progress nor to evaluate programs and staff. Rather, evaluations are curriculum-based and assess mastery of specific competencies by students individually and in the aggregate.

3. System-wide and/or facility level policy and procedure provide for systematic and periodic evaluation of the correctional education program, at no more than three year intervals.

4. The correctional education administration makes linkages with the college community to obtain assistance in developing and conducting scientifically designed research, including follow-up studies.

5. The correctional education administration makes linkages with other jurisdictions (e.g., juvenile parole and aftercare, employment agencies, public schools), and enters into interagency agreements as necessary, in order to be able to conduct follow-up research on released students.

6. The correctional education administration invites, supports, and/or facilitates monitoring and evaluation from outside bodies (e.g., 19 accrediting bodies, State and Federal program monitors, professional association such as the Correctional Education Association {CEA} or the American Correctional Association {ACA}) and uses their findings to improve programs.

7. The correctional education administration actively seeks State, Federal, or private funding to conduct evaluation and research activities.

8. The administration actively encourages and provides opportunities (e.g., time and resources) for correctional education staff to initiate, participate in, conduct, and/or learn about correctional education evaluation and other types of research.

9. In-service training includes updating staff on relevant research findings.

10. All correctional education research, whether conducted internally or by an outside contractor, is conducted in accordance with conventional standards of social science and education research.

11. Research findings are published and disseminated to other practitioners, researchers, policy makers, and legislators and entered into existing information systems and clearing houses.

PART III

Bibliography With Abstracts

Bibliography With Abstracts

001. Adwell, S., and B. Wolford. 1983. "Development and Growth of Standards for Correctional Education." ***Journal of Correctional Education.*** 34(4): 123–125.

Abstract: Describes the development and growth of standards for correctional education with focus on the role of the American Correctional Association (ACA). As part of its development of correctional standards, the ACA developed standards for academic and vocational education. Annually, ACA Committee on Standards and the Commission on Accreditation for Corrections reviews old and considers new standards. The Correctional Education Association (CEA) assisted in refining and expanding the twenty correctional education standards for the second edition.

002. Albrecht, L. 1991. "Decoding and Encoding Life." ***Journal of Correctional Education.*** **42(2): 60–64.**

Abstract: Describes social education as a treatment model in two New York facilities for female juvenile delinquents with emphasis on a skills-based curriculum for interpersonal living, life skills, and work. Program had positive impact on self-esteem and cognitive development.

003. Alford, D.J., and K.A. Larson. 1987. "Cognitive Problem Solving: An Effective Model for Implementing a Comprehensive Training Program in a Correctional Setting." ***Journal of Correctional Education.*** **38(2): 71–76.**

Abstract: Argues that administrators' key function is to bring about positive change. Presents a nine step cognitive problem solving model for correctional education administrators to use in implementing a comprehensive program. Can also be used in training staff in problem solving techniques. Model provides a common language.

004. Allen-Hagen, B. 1991. "Public Juvenile Facilities: Children in Custody 1989." Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice.

Abstract: Provides summary data from latest census of juveniles in public facilities. Shows 6 percent increase in number of facilities to 1,100; 14 percent increase in total population to 54,351; and 19 percent increase in rate of custody to 221 per 100,000. Number of females decreased by 8 percent to 6,680. Number held in 1989 for alcohol and drug offenses increased 150 percent from 1985, with 11 percent of all juveniles in public facilities held for drug-related offenses. Nine out of 10 were held for delinquent offenses that would be crimes if committed by adults. Serious offenses (murder, manslaughter, robbery, aggravated assault) increased 8 percent by males and 17 percent by females since 1987.

005. Allen-Hagen, B., and M. Sickmund. 1993. "Juveniles and Violence: Juvenile Offending and Victimization." Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice.

Abstract: Presents statistical data on the rise of both violent juvenile crime and juvenile victims of violence. Between 1987 and 1991, juvenile arrests for murder increased by 85 percent and the juvenile violent crime index was the highest in history. Gun possession and use and drug possession and use among juveniles have risen dramatically. Juvenile arrest rates for heroin/cocaine increased more than 700 percent between 1980 and 1990, and in 1990 one in 5 high school students reported carrying a weapon, at least once, during the past month. Juvenile are at high risk of being victimized as well. In 1991 more than 2,200 youth under 18 were murdered in the United States—an average of more than 6 youth killed a day. More than 70 percent of these teenage homicide victims were shot to death. Authors State that evidence continues to reveal that a small proportion of offenders commit most of the serious and violent juvenile crimes and recommend focusing on identifying and helping this group.

006. Allington, R. 1990. "Effective Literacy Instruction for At-Risk Children." In *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom, Vol II: Commissioned Papers and Literature Review,* edited by M.S. Knapp and P.M. Shields. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Washington, D.C.: Policy Studies Associates.

Abstract: Argues that research shows poor readers in the traditional school are given low-level tasks with emphasis on working alone, emphasizing word and sentence rather than comprehension. Believes long term effects of this approach to be negative.

007. Allison, K., P.E. Leone, and E.R. Spero. 1990. "Drug and Alcohol Use Among Adolescents." In *Understanding Troubled and Troubling Youth,* edited by P.E. Leone. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Abstract: Summary of research on relationship between drug/alcohol abuse and social/emotional competence, school performance, delinquency and coping behaviors. Relationships found between drug and alcohol and the following: depression, suicide, eating disorders, school failure, low commitment to school, family conflict, personal problems, and school dropout. One study found program of social competency training effective in reducing drug use. Authors argue that prevention programming should focus on young children at risk for learning and behavior problems to delay early drug use.

008. American Bar Association, Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship. 1992. *"Law-Related Education Programs in Juvenile Justice Settings, September 1992."* Chicago: Author.

Abstract: Listing with brief program summaries of law-related education programs in institutional schools, diversion projects, teen courts, community-based programs. Provides names of contact persons.

009. American Correctional Association. 1986. *Public Policy for Corrections: A Handbook for Decision-Makers.* College Park: Author.

Abstract: Includes three policies relevant to juvenile correctional education: (1) *Public Correctional Policy on Juvenile Corrections,* (2) *Public Correctional Policy on Offender Education and Training,* and (3) *Public Correctional Policy on Offenders with Special Needs.* Policies call for training programs and provide guidelines for delivery and maintenance. Policies also require early identification of offenders with special needs and a plan for providing services to meet those needs.

010. Amster, J., and P. Lazarus. 1984. "Identifying Learning Problems in Youthful Offenders; Rationale and Model." *Journal of Offender Counseling, Services and Rehabilitation.* 8(4): 65–77.

Abstract: Provides rationale and model for identifying youth with learning deficiencies while they are housed in a short-term detention center (screening intervention model). Specific strategies presented for use of diagnostic information by personnel working with youth in pre- and post-release programs.

011. Andrew, J.M. 1981. "Reading and Cerebral Dysfunction Among Juvenile Delinquents." *Criminal Justice and Behavior.* 8(2): 131–141.

Abstract: Reports on the testing of five theories accounting for connection between organic brain disfunction and poor reading/dyslexia on a sample of juvenile offenders. Results indicate that poor reading appears to relate to left hemisphere dysfunction in juvenile offenders.

012. Arbuthnot, J., and D.A. Gordon. 1986. "Behavioral and Cognitive Effects of a Moral Reasoning Development Intervention for High-Risk Behavior-Disordered Adolescents." *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology.* 54(2): 208–216.

Abstract: Hypothesizes that adolescents at risk for delinquency would benefit cognitively and behaviorally from intervention designed to accelerate moral reasoning development. Subsequent to participation in cognitively based moral reasoning development program (16–20 weekly 45-minute sessions), adolescents identified as aggressive and/or disruptive demonstrated advance in moral reasoning and improvement on behavioral indexes. One-year followup data showed significant positive effects as measured in behavior referrals, academic performance, and absenteeism.

013. Arbuthnot, J., and D.A. Gordon. 1988. "Disseminating Effective Interventions for Juvenile Delinquents: Cognitively-Based Sociomoral Reasoning Development Programs." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 39(2): 48–53.

Abstract: Argues that important factors in dissemination and replication of effective innovative programs are: (1) organizational support; (2) overlap of organizational needs and intervention goals; (3) convincing evidence of program's prior success; (4) evidence of cost effectiveness; and (5) initial and continuing contact with a credible and effective consultant for training, supervision, and troubleshooting. Also important are a strong onsite advocate of innovation and careful selection of trainees.

014. Arbuthnot, J., and D. Gordon. 1983. "Moral Reasoning Development in Correctional Intervention." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 34(4); 133–138.

Abstract: Argues that correctional education programs should focus on offenders moral development. Studies indicate that juvenile delinquents operate on a lower level of moral development than nondelinquents, and that moral education programs can produce elevation in stage of moral reasoning.

015. Askov, E.N., and T.C. Turner. 1990. "The Role of Instructional Technology in Correctional Education." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 41(2): 82–85.

Abstract: Lists advantages and disadvantages of instructional technology in correctional education. Advantages listed are: privacy, individualization, achievement gains, cost effectiveness, control of learning, flexibility on scheduling, open entry-open exit, and a modern way to learn. Disadvantages include: change, lack of expertise, lack of training, inappropriate instruction, curriculum integration, and role changes. Authors refer to the Gannett Foundation as a good resource for literature of best practices in literacy training using technology.

016. Auerbach, S., and C. Werner. 1984. *Basic Education Competencies for JTPA Youth.* Los Angeles, CA: Los Angeles Unified School District.

Abstract: Provides competency Statements for reading, writing, and mathematics skills for youth participating in JTPA programs.

017. Auletta, K. 1982. *The Underclass.* New York: Vintage Books.

Abstract: Classic study of the nine million who "do not assimilate," i.e., the "underclass of the title." Based on experience with supported work programs for the poor in New York, Auletta distinguishes four classes of "poor": passive poor (longterm welfare recipients); hostile (street criminals who commit violent crimes); hustlers (earn living in underground economy); and traumatized (drinkers, drifters, homeless, mental cases). Claims that "to
understand underclass is to understand current violent crime epidemic." Good source for correctional educators in gaining understanding of the social context of their clients.

018. Auspos, P., et al. 1989. *Implementing JOBSTART: A Demonstration for School Dropouts in the JTPA System.* New York: Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation.

Abstract: JOBSTART addressed employability problems of school dropouts by testing a program of basic education, occupational skills training, support services, and job placement assistance for young, economically disadvantaged dropouts who read below the 8th-grade level. In the first year, 2,312 applicants were randomly assigned either to the experimental JOBSTART program or to a control group not offered JOBSTART but other community services. Twleve-month followup evaluation showed: (1) participants receiving basic education followed by job training had better educational attainment than those in concurrent education/training programs; (2) JOBSTART participants were substantially more likely to receive high school diplomas or equivalency—however, they earned less than control group in short term; and (3) job placement was least successful component.

019. Austin, G., and D. Reynolds. 1990. "Managing for Improved School Effectiveness: An International Survey." *School Organization.* 10(2-3): 167-178.

Abstract: Reviews research generated by different countries and relates findings about good school characteristics to broader managerial issues involved in implementation of effective schools research. Argues that school improvement programs should be school-based and "whole school"-oriented and dependent on outside resources.

020. Ball E., L. Parker, and J. Saunders. 1982. "Incarceration and the Rate of Achievement of Learning Disabled Juvenile Delinquents." *Journal of Experimental Education.* 51(2): 54-56.

Abstract: Research based on 55 juvenile delinquents identified as learning disabled in the South Carolina Department of Youth Services. Subjects administered the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills upon entering institution and again prior to departure. Found improved academic performance attributable to positive effect of combining disciplined environment with structured and mandatory education program, but also negative correlation between tenure and achievement.

021. Bass, R.V., and J.F. Bass. 1991. "Meeting the Needs of At-Risk Students: Youth Opportunities Unlimited." In *Reaching Our Potential: Rural Education in the 90's.* Nashville, TN: Rural Education Symposium.

Abstract: Describes the JTPA funded Youth Opportunities Unlimited (YOU) program initiated at Arkansas State University in 1989 targeted at economically disadvantaged 14- and 15-year olds identified as likely to drop out of high school. Participants live on campus for 60 days and work 20 hours a week, earning one semester credit in English and mathematics. Students are administered Metropolitan Achievement Test at beginning and end of program to assess program's academic effectiveness. Job developer is responsible for locating jobs for students, keeping records of time worked, monitoring job performance, and acting as liaison between YOU program and job site supervisors. Students completing program are followed through high school and their grades are reported to followup coordinator each semester. Although exact figures are not available, program for 1990 seemed successful as all students were still in school one year later.

022. Beeler, M.B., et al. 1987. *Youth Rights Handbook: Revised Edition.* Albany, N.Y.: New York State Division for Youth Independent Review Board.

Abstract: Handbook prepared to help youth understand their legal rights and what happens to these rights as a result of placement in the Division for Youth. Topics include the DFY Ombudsman, arrests and warrants, court procedures, detention, rights while incarcerated, and rights in regards to secure facilities, community services, health, education, and special hearings. Although based on NY law, could be used as a model for development of similar handbooks in other States and integrated in law-related/social skills training.

023. Behre, C., D. Edwards, and C. Femming. 1982. "Assessment of the Effectiveness of a Juvenile Transitional Center for Facilitating Re-entry." *Journal of Offender Counseling Services and Rehabilitation*. 6(3): 61–72.

Abstract: Describes results of evaluation of the Jefferson Parish Day Care Transitional Center. Research involved measures in four areas: (1) reading, spelling, and math proficiency as measured by Wide Range Achievement Test, (2) intelligence quotients as determined by administration of Slosson Verbal IQ Test, (3) personality traits as derived by Minnesota Multiple Phasic Inventory Test or KinCannon short version for low readers, and, (4) arrests/offenses as recorded in Jefferson Parish Juvenile Courts Services masterfile. Results indicate that program has positive effect on participants.

024. Bentley, J.L., and M.W. Conley. 1992. "Making Connections Between Substance Abuse and Literacy Difficulties." *Journal of Reading*. 35(5): 386–389.

Abstract: Discusses linkages between substance abuse and literacy difficulties and calls for integrated programs combining assessment to identify substance abuse and literacy problems, instructional interventions, and discourse among professionals.

025. Bergsmann, I.R. 1989. "Adolescent Female Offenders: Program Parity Is Essential To Meeting Their Needs." *Corrections Today*. August 1989: 98–103.

Abstract: Describes typical adolescent female offender and educational services and programs available to her. Vocations offer potential for high pay continue to be offered to males more frequently than to females in both the institution and on study release.

026. Bergsmann, I.R. 1988. "Results of State Juvenile Justice Education Survey." Washington, D.C.: Council of Chief School Officers.

Abstract: Results of national survey of female juvenile offenders in State facilities from 32 States and more than 2,000 female offenders. Average age was 16 with 26 percent found to be learning disabled. Office Education found to be most common vocational course, followed by Home Economics and Food Service. Inequities were found to persist in programming. Health education found to be high priority, life skills less so. Lack of funding identified as most serious problem followed by low number of girls limiting range of programs.

027. Besag, F.P., and J.B. Greene. 1981. "Once Is Too Much, II: Exceptional Education Definitions." *Journal of Correctional Education*. 32(3): 17–20.

Abstract: Authors argue against use of standardized achievement tests at juvenile correctional facilities and that the standard definitions of handicapping conditions are useless in an "exceptional" population. They suggest alternative method for diagnosing and meeting educational needs of incarcerated juveniles. Authors recommend that these youths not be labeled but be aided through the concept of "Special Educational Needs" (SEN) although aware of the fact that Federal funding is not available for SEN identified youths.

028. **Biller, E.F. 1985.** ***Understanding and Guiding the Career Development of Adolescents and Young Adults with Learning Disabilities.*** **Springfield: Charles C. Thomas.**

Abstract: Provides historical review and model for classifying learning disabilities. Shows effects on career development and behaviors associated with LD. Explores career assessment for LD, outlines an appropriate curriculum.

029. Blachowicz, C.L.Z., and B. Zabroske. 1990. "Context Instruction: A Metacognitive Approach for At-Risk Readers." ***Journal of Reading.*** **33(7): 504–508.**

Abstract: Discusses techniques for teaching vocabulary to at-risk readers through context instruction. Readers taught to identify clues provided by context and how to use clues to make sense of unknown meanings.

030. Bobal, C.M. 1984. "An Unconventional Approach to Providing Education Services to Violent Juvenile Offenders." In ***Violent Juvenile Offenders: An Anthology,*** **edited by R. Mathias, P. DeMuro, and R. Allinson, 273–281. San Francisco: National Council on Crime and Delinquency.**

Abstract: Describes from a teacher's perspective effective strategies in education program at the Shelby County (Memphis, TN) Violent Offender Project, a residential research treatment facility for chronic violent offenders. Program is highly individualized, with small classes three hours per day and two hours homework. Author advocates an unconventional classroom setting (no desks, teacher's desk or bookshelves), challenging materials, emphasis on thinking skills, field trips, frequent feedback, rewards for progress, and specific goal setting. Reports successful results for first eleven graduates.

031. Bowen, M. 1981. "Preparing Correctional Educators to Teach Delinquents with Learning and Reading Disabilities." ***Journal of Correctional Education.*** **33(1): 15–16.**

Abstract: Summarizes Illinois State University training institute for special education teachers and related supportive staff who will work with learning and reading disabled delinquent youth. Participants taught to: (1) select and administer battery of diagnostic tests to identify assets and deficits in academic content areas; (2) write set of long- and short-range instructional objectives; (3) write specific, clinical teaching plans; (4) demonstrate use of alternative teaching methods and strategies; (5) evaluate teaching plan for student skill development; (6) demonstrate appropriate application of supplementary instructional materials and media; (7) behavior management and record keeping; (8) summarize student skills and present summary of performance in written report and staffing conference; (9) write task analysis of and adapt set of assigned materials to match student's skill level; and (10) demonstrate knowledge of terms as they apply to treatment programs for adjudicated youth.

032. Bowling, L., and L. Hobbs. 1990. In *Transitional Services for Troubled Youth,* edited by B.I. Wolford, et al., p. 45–50. Richmond, KY: Eastern Kentucky University.

Abstract: Describes the Kentucky Division of Childrens' Residential Services day treatment centers which were set up to provide individualized treatment in the least restrictive setting. Major component is education, funded by the local boards of education from the district where the center is located. Each client has an individualized treatment plan as well as an individualized education plan. A social worker, paraprofessional, and teacher are assigned on intake and follow the child through the treatment process. Treatment plan involves juvenile and his/her family. Volunteers provide complementary services. A Citizens' Advisory Committee serves the program.

033. Braaten, S., R.B. Rutherford, and C.A. Kardash., eds. 1984. *Programming for Adolescents with Behavioral Disorders.* Reston, VA: Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders.

Abstract: Collection of professional papers from the first national multidisciplinary conference on disordered adolescents held in Minnesota in 1982. Papers deal with teacher training, curriculum, therapy, social skills, interagency intervention, and corrections.

034. Brier, N. 1989. "The Relationship Between Learning Disability and Delinquency: A Review and Reappraisal." *Journal of Learning Disabilities.* 22(9): 546–553.

Abstract: Reviews data on relatively high prevalence of learning disabilities among delinquents and examines three explanatory hypotheses in context of research literature: (1) susceptibility hypothesis, (2) school failure hypothesis, and (3) differential treatment hypothesis. Author arrives at a multifactorial explanation.

035. Broder, P., N. Dunivant, E. Smith, and L. Sutton. 1981. "Further Observations on the Link Between Learning Disabilities and Juvenile Delinquency." *Journal of Educational Psychology.* 73(6): 838–850.

Abstract: Cohort of 1,617 boys, ages 12–15, were classified as LD or non-LD and interviewed individually concerning family backgrounds, school attitude, and self-reported delinquent behavior. Of these, 633 had been adjudicated delinquent by juvenile courts, and 984 had no previous adjudication. 36.5 percent of the delinquent boys were LD as compared to 18.9 percent of the nondelinquent. Results suggest that learning-disabled youths do not evidence more delinquent behavior than nonlearning-disabled youths, but they are more likely to be found delinquent by juvenile courts.

036. Brophy, J.E. 1990. "Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students." In *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom, Vol. II: Commissioned Papers and Literature Review,* edited by M.S. Knapp and P.M. Shields. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Washington, D.C.: Policy Studies Associates.

Abstract: Summary and analysis of key findings and recommendations of "Effective Schools" research. Begins with assumptions about disadvantaged students. Identifies school- and classroom-level features believed to be effective for these students. Recommends a "reduced curriculum", with emphasis on mastery of materials and attention to problem solving, decisionmaking, and higher order applications in addition to lower-level knowledge and skills. Finds individualized instruction and programmed

materials and workbooks less effective for disadvantaged students. Goal of instruction is empowerment of student, thus emphasis should be on what students need to succeed in society. Emphasis in reading should be on reading for information and enjoyment and on developing reading habits. Recommends more extended text readings, less time on skills worksheets. Writing should emphasize organization and communication for particular audiences and purposes, with basic writing skills (mechanics and spelling) taught later and as strategies to accomplish goals. Recommends teaching of mathematical concepts as well as operations with emphasis on their application to problem solving, consumer and household practices. Although research focused on elementary public school education for disadvantaged youth, it has great relevance to juvenile correctional population.

037. Brophy, J. 1982. "Successful Teaching Strategies for the Inner-City Child." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** **63(8): 527-530.**

Abstract: Based on "research of the seventies," eight teacher characteristics or behaviors are identified: (1) teacher expectations and responsibility, (2) giving students opportunity to learn, (3) classroom management and organization, (4) curriculum pacing, (5) active teaching, (6) teaching to mastery (overlearning), (7) grade-level differences, and (8) supportive learning environment. Stresses traditional teacher roles vs. active learning.

038. Brown, S.M., and M.J. Robbins. 1981. "Serving the Special Education Needs of Students in Correctional Facilities." ***Journal of Correctional Education.*** **33(1): 11-14.**

Abstract: Identifies need for special education programs for handicapped youth in correctional settings and offers suggestions for how this need may be met through direct services, support, and management services. Curriculum for specialized instruction should include at least academic and remedial instruction, career and vocational instruction, and interpersonal development. Management responsibilities are to seek funding for special programs, advocate relevant legislation, endorse and assist program development and staff training, encourage development of standards for specialized education, and seek liaison with other local and State education agencies.

039. Brozo, W.G. 1990. "Learning How At-Risk Readers Learn Best: A Case of Interactive Assessment." ***Journal of Reading.*** **33(7): 522-527.**

Abstract: Looks at interactive assessment vs. static assessment. Under interactive assessment a student's reading comprehension is not fixed or constant, but varies across texts, tasks, and settings. Goal of interactive assessment is to discover conditions under which a student will succeed in reading, rather than merely describing student's current status as a reader. Brief case study discussed.

040. Brunner, M.S. 1992. ***Reduced Recidivism and Increased Employment Opportunity Through Research-Based Reading Instruction.*** **Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice.**

Abstract: Author reviews selected research and concludes there is a link between academic failure (especially in reading) and delinquency. Argues that reading failure is most likely a cause of delinquent behavior and that delinquents are not receiving instruction recommended by experimental research. Indicates reading teachers have inadequate training to meet needs of handicapped readers. Recommends inservice training for correctional teachers in systematic phonics methods.

041. Bureau of Justice Statistics. ***Children in Custody, 1975–85: Census of Public and Private Juvenile Detention, Correctional, and Shelter Facilities, 1975, 1977, 1979, 1983, and 1985.*** **Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice.**

Abstract: Report provides broad overview of trends and statistical data on characteristics of youth in custody. Census started in 1971 and is conducted every two years. Key findings include: (1) Increase in youth in custody of 12 percent from 1975–85. (2) Increase in rate per 100,000 of 30 percent, from 241 to 313. (3) Admissions to public facilities decreased 18 percent and to private facilities increased by 78 percent. (4) Juveniles held in public facility in 1985 most likely to be male, white (non-Hispanic), between ages 14–17. (5) Population of juveniles held in secure facilities increased 54 percent. (6) Average cost to house resident for one day was $69 in 1984. No data on programs.

042. Buzzell, T. 1991. "Using Law-Related Education as an Intervention with High-Risk Youth." ***American Bar Association/LRE Project Exchange.*** **8(2): 37.**

Abstract: Outlines the benefits of LRE for institutionalized delinquents. Shows that both the content and the interactive learning approaches involved in LRE impart social skills. Discusses the evaluation of the LRE project at the State Training School for Boys at Eldora, Iowa. Preliminary results indicate the following benefits: (1) Students had better awareness of "triggers" of conflict and confrontation; (2) They had increased understanding of the legal process and terminology; (3) They seemed to have better self-awareness and acceptable ways of expressing emotions such as anger; (4) They had better appreciation for rules and became more involved in governing; (5) Communications between staff and students improved. Also points out the LRE enhances critical thinking skills, decisionmaking, cooperation, teamwork, and leadership.

043. Cabinet for Human Resources, Department of Correctional Services. 1988. ***Youth In Transition: From Incarceration to Reintegration, A National Survey of State Juvenile Correctional Services.*** **Eastern Kentucky University: Training Resource Center Project; Department of Correctional Services.**

Abstract: Results from national telephone survey to determine how States address problems associated with transition of youth from correctional facilities to home communities. Survey covers the organization of juvenile correctional services, policies and procedures related to transition, and transitional programs in each State. Forty-one States reported having written guidelines for transition. Only 23 States conducted any followup studies. Useful descriptions of organizational structures in various States although some are outdated due to subsequent changes.

044. Calabrese, R.L., and J. Adams. 1990. "Alienation: A Cause of Juvenile Delinquency." ***Journal of Adolescence.*** **25(98): 435–440.**

Abstract: Investigated alienation by administering Dean Alienation Scale to 157 incarcerated and 1,318 nonincarcerated adolescents. Found that incarcerated adolescents had significantly higher levels of total alienation, isolation, and powerlessness. Given high recidivism rates, results suggest reduction of both alienation and rejection of societal norms should be major component of rehabilitation programs for incarcerated juvenile delinquents.

045. Campbell, R.E., L.M. Bullock, and M.J. Wilson. 1990. "Applicability of Behavior Rating Scales for Juvenile Correctional Settings." In *Transitional Services for Troubled Youth*, edited by B.I. Wolford, et al., p. 37–44. Richmond, KY: Eastern kentucky University.

Abstract: Authors argue that appropriately selected and used behavior rating scales can provide correctional staff with a time efficient and inexpensive means of assessing problem behavior, monitoring behavioral change, evaluating programs, and conducting research. Describes the validation of the Behavior Dimensions Rating Scale (BDRS) with juvenile offenders, finding it factorially equivalent for both general educational and correctional education settings.

046. Carducci, D.J. 1980. "Positive Peer Culture and Assertiveness Training: Complementing Modalities for Dealing with Disturbing Adolescents in the Classroom." *Behavioral Disorders*. 5(3): 156–162.

Abstract: Describes Positive Peer Culture (PPC) as an effective approach to helping disturbed and disturbing adolescents. Concept based on the recognition of strength of adolescent peer culture and how to use it in a positive way. Also discusses limitations of PPC and how use of a complimentary tool, Assertiveness Training, can offset some of the limitations.

047. Carter, D. 1983. "From Institution to Community: A Reintegration Preparation Program Model, for Institutionalized Juvenile Offenders at Echo Glen Children's Center." Doctoral Dissertation, Seattle University.

Abstract: Purpose was to develop an educational reintegration preparation model that would facilitate the successful community reentry of juvenile offenders from Echo Glen Children's Center. Based on review of literature, State inquiries and program visitations, researcher proposes an educational program model that includes specialized educational components, law related education, prevocational and vocational education, survival education, and social development education.

048. Carter, D. 1991. "National Needs Assessment Conducted to Determine Juvenile Justice Training and Service Needs." *Journal of Correctional Education*. 42(3): 146–147.

Abstract: May 1991, National Needs Assessment Forum conducted. The participants identified eight major issues/needs: leadership/management, strategic planning, programs, human resources, public/community relations, what's new and working, legal issues, and funding/budget. Consensus supported need to host a National Forum to develop a shared vision of critical issues in juvenile corrections and strategies for addressing them. Other objectives include: strategic planning with system; development and sharing of model programs; development of programs for serious and violent offenders; development of culturally competent/sensitive programs; and development of appropriate educational systems and methods for youth in the system.

049. Carter, D. 1986. "Review of Research Applications: Kohlberg's Theories in Correctional Settings." *Journal of Correctional Education*. 37(2): 79–83.

Abstract: Reviews research applications of Kohlberg's theory of moral development and moral education. Included are studies conducted in both juvenile and adult correctional settings. Review of

literature indicates that juvenile offenders are characterized by lower moral reasoning development and can benefit from moral education.

050. Casey, P., and I. Keilitz. 1990. "Estimating the Prevalence of Learning Disabled and Mentally Retarded Juvenile Offenders: A Meta-Analysis." In *Understanding Troubled and Troubling Youth,* edited by P.E. Leone. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Abstract: Analysis of studies of prevalence of LD and MR among juvenile offenders. From literature search, 310 incidence studies identified, only 31 of which met criteria of authors. Among these, prevalence rates for learning disabilities ranged from 1.7 to 77 percent across 22 studies. For mental retardation range was from 2 to 30 percent among 21 studies. Researchers rated studies on a scale from 1 to 4. From this they derived the "weighted average prevalence estimate" for LD juvenile offenders to be 35.6 percent and for MR 12.6 percent. Findings suggest that policy makers need to become aware of the magnitude of these disabilities and support more program development.

051. Chall, J.S. 1983. *Stages of Reading Development.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Abstract: Presents developmental theory of reading and what lies behind reading stages from psychological, linguistic, and neuroscientific view points. Stresses value of reading stage theory for instruction, testing, evaluation, and development of effective readings strategies. Discusses historical and cultural influences on readings and social policy. Argues that current average reading level is 12th grade and that 2 years below grade level is a "significant gap" that needs serious intervention.

052. Chall, J.S., V.A. Jacobs, and L.E. Baldwin. 1990. *The Reading Crisis: Why Poor Children Fall Behind.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Abstract: Children of poverty did as well as general population through 3rd grade, then problems intensified through 7th grade and continued through high school. Points out that reading comprehension consists of three basic components—cognitive, language, reading skills. Cognitive did not seem to be major problem. Basic reading skills was greatest problem and should be most teachable. Suggests that materials should be on or above reading level, not below in remedial classes. "Structure, challenge, enrichment" advocated. Recommendations: (1) Do not separate children in early grades for special reading. (2) Use varied approaches—different emphasis for various aspects of reading, word recognition, reading comprehension, structure for vocabulary gains. (3) Keep challenging level (above the present for which they can learn with help of teacher). (4) Make wide range of books available in classroom. (5) Encourage wide reading to help with vocabulary. (6) Use both basal readers and wider reading since they are helpful in word recognition and vocabulary development. (7) Increase instruction and practice of writing in elementary school.

053. Cheek, M.C. 1984. "The Educational and Sociological Status of Handicapped and Non-Handicapped Incarcerated Female Adolescents." Doctoral Dissertation, University of Maryland.

Abstract: Examined educational and sociological status of 52 randomly selected handicapped and nonhandicapped incarcerated adolescent females, ages 12–18; 57.7 percent black and 42.3 percent white. Analysis showed: (1) 60 percent of subjects were diagnosed as handicapped. (2) LEA's diagnosed fewer subjects than juvenile institution as handicapped. (3) 53.3 percent diagnosed as

handicapped by LEA's were provided appropriate special education and related services prior to incarceration. (4) 80 percent of parents signed IEP's which were developed by LEA's for their handicapped children. (5) Black females committed more personal offenses than white females, however, they did not differ significantly on number of other offenses committed. (6) Age was not related to total offenses committed. (7) Property offenses were most frequently committed by subjects, and drug offenses were least committed. (8) Subjects were on the average four grade levels behind in reading and math, and did not differ significantly by race and presence or absence of handicapping conditions on reading and math achievement.

054. Children's Defense Fund. 1991. *The State of America's Children 1991.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Provides statistical information and analysis on status of American children and their families, with emphasis on the poor, in terms of income, employment, child care, health, education, youth development, housing and homelessness, and vulnerability. Provides examples of successful programs and strategies. Presents recommendations for an agenda for the 1990's and beyond. Study claims that America is at "the crossroads of great national opportunity and grave national danger."

055. Clough, D.B. 1991. "The At-Risk Student: Designing Administrative Strategies." Paper presented at the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, San Francisco.

Abstract: Reviews 150 at-risk student programs and describes six basic weaknesses in current at-risk programs. Most programs failed to: (1) exhibit design to meet needs identified via a formal assessment process, (2) integrate effectively with school's total education program, (3) adequately address social and emotional needs of at-risk students, (4) offer preventive strategies at elementary school level, (5) adequately serve the most problematic at-risk students, and (6) address at-risk students' negative perception of the value of learning. Describes 7-step process for developing administrative strategies to implement programs that would meet at-risk students' needs: creating climate for change, conducting appropriate needs assessment, initiating organizational changes, assessing organization resources, determining program objectives, designing program components, and implementing action plan.

056. Coffey, O.D. 1988. "Handicapped Youth and Young Adults In Prison: Forgotten Clients In Search of Assistance." In *Monograph in Behavior Disorders: Severe Behavior Disorders of Children and Youth,* edited by Rutherford, R.B., and J.W. Maag, 97-105. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

Abstract: Describes problems encountered by individuals with disabilities especially MR, in all stages of the criminal justice system. Needs of delinquent, handicapped youths listed. Describes services needed from Special Education trained persons in areas of staff training, program development and monitoring, research, evaluation, and advocacy.

057. Coffey, O.D. 1983. "Meeting the Needs of Youth from a Correctional Viewpoint." In *Programming for Adolescents with Behavioral Disorders,* edited by Braaten, S., R.B. Rutherford, and C.D. Kardash, 79–84. Reston, VA: The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders.

Abstract: Address to noncorrectional special educators and State special education directors stressing needs of incarcerated children and youth, difficulties of implementing P.L. 94–142 in correctional facilities, and asking for assistance.

058. Coffey, O.D. 1986. "Trends in the Administration of Correctional Education." In *Correctional Education: Perspectives on Programs for Adult Offenders*, edited by Wolford, B.I. Columbus, OH: The ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education; The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University.

Abstract: Examines various administrative modes with emphasis on correctional school districts. Four of the ten examined are combined juvenile/adult systems. Examines the four most frequently identified advantages of the correctional school district: increased funding, better qualified staff, quality programs, and improved autonomy and status. Finds evidence in research only for the claim of increased funding. Identifies "crucial factors in effective education delivery" regardless of administrative setup as: (1) a systems approach to correctional education; (2) fully credentialed educational administrator in charge; (3) fully certified instructional staff; (4) compliance with all applicable Federal and State laws, regulations, and standards; and (5) a school board/advisory committee exclusively for the education program.

059. Coffey, O.D., N. Procopiow, and P. Miller. 1989. *Programming For Mentally Retarded and Learning Disabled Inmates: A Guide For Correctional Administrators.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice.

Abstract: Although guide focuses on adult MR and LD correctional population, most of content relevant to juvenile correctional education. Guide provides information on definitions and incidence of handicapping conditions, legal issues, implementation issues as regards P.L. 94–142 (now IDEA). Standards for educational and related services for LD as well as MR populations are provided. Includes resource and funding guides.

060. Coley, J.D., and D.M. Hoffman. 1990. "Overcoming Learned Helplessness in At-Risk Readers." *Journal of Reading.* 33(7): 497–502.

Abstract: At-risk readers often caught in failure cycle. Tend to view themselves as incapable of learning, this leading to "learned helplessness." Clear relationship between self-concept and poor reading achievement led to development of program with dual focus on improved performance in reading and enhanced self-concept of student as learner. Three elements selected to give students some overt structure and control over learning: (1) question response cues, (2) double/entry response journals, and (3) self-evaluation. Cues provided structure to aid in comprehension. Journals encouraged thinking through writing and provided positive feedback through teacher response. Self-evaluation placed students at center of their own learning.

061. Comer, J.P. 1988. "Educating Poor Minority Children." ***Scientific American.*** **259(5): 42–48.**

Abstract: Argues that in educating poor minority children, instead of focusing on academic concerns such as teacher credentials and basic skills, focus must be on a program which promotes development and learning by building supportive bonds that draw children, parents and school together. Intervention project conducted at two inner-city schools focused on building supportive bonds greatly improved academic performance.

062. Commission on Accreditation for Corrections. 1978. ***Manual of STANDARDS for Juvenile Community Residential Services.*** **Rockville: American Correctional Association.**

Abstract: Includes 3 standards pertaining to education requiring: (1) policy and procedure promoting school enrollment and meeting all legal educational requirements, (2) provision to meet special needs of disabled participants, and (3) assistance with language or literacy problems.

063. Commission on Accreditation for Corrections. 1979. ***Manual of STANDARDS for Juvenile Detention Facilities and Services.*** **Rockville: American Correctional Association.**

Abstract: Includes 4 education related standards requiring: (1) programs enabling detainees to keep up with their studies, (2) staff trained to determine remedial needs, (3) appropriate equipment, and (4) fully credentialed instructors. An additional standard requires availability of library services.

064. Commission on Accreditation for Corrections. 1983. ***Manual of STANDARDS for Juvenile Training Schools.*** **College Park: American Correctional Association.**

Abstract: Includes 16 standards for education and 6 for library services. Standards require a comprehensive program, open entry/exit scheduling, fully credentialed staff, a maximum 1/15 teacher/student ratio, individualized programs, provisions to meet special needs, appropriate placement, academic/vocational integration, use of community resources, and evaluation. Recent efforts have led to coordination of these ACA Standards with those of the CEA.

065. Committee for Economic Development. 1985. ***Investing in Our Children: Business and the Public Schools: A Statement by the Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development.*** **New York: Author.**

Abstract: Focus on employability skills needed for the changing work environment. Argues for a revised, common curriculum for all secondary schools. Describes need for vocational training and linkages between schools and employers. Argues for increased investment in education and teachers. Provides ideas on how business community can provide support to school. Uses specific examples of model programs that illustrate points.

066. Conrath, J. 1992. "Effective Schools for Discouraged and Disadvantaged Students: Rethinking Some Sacred Cows of Research." ***Contemporary Education.*** **63(2): 137–141.**

Abstract: Discusses how to prevent discouragement in disadvantaged students. Because systems cause at-risk students to feel inadequate, article suggests only systemic change can repair the problem. Too many students lose in present reward-and-punishment evaluation system. Effective schools must make students believe they have equal educational opportunities.

067. Cook, L.A. 1990. "Collaboration and Cooperation: Key Elements in Bridging Transition Gaps for Adjudicated Youth." In *Transitional Services for Troubled Youth*, edited by B.I. Wolford, et al., p. 15–21. Richmond, KY: Eastern Kentucky University.

Abstract: Summarizes some of the literature on successful interagency collaboration, stressing administrative support, shared philosophical stance, the use of existing organizational structures, sufficient time and resources, voluntary participation, cross-agency training, written guidelines, assigning a lead person, realistic expectations, informal networking and brokerage. Applies these principles to transitional service needs of institutionalized, delinquent youth and the cooperation needed among correctional education, and social service agencies.

068. Cook, J., and G. Hill. 1990. "Preplacement Characteristics and Educational Status of Handicapped and Non-Handicapped Youthful Offenders." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 41(4); 194–198.

Abstract: Report on study conducted between 1987–1989 in Louisiana with three objectives: (1) Present descriptive data for youth referred for evaluation as either status offender or as delinquent. (2) Present academic achievement and intellectual functioning data of this group. (3) Describe distributions of nonhandicapped and mildly handicapped students and educational services provided prior to evaluation. 220 adjudicated youth evaluated. Mean age was 15; 70 percent male—30 percent female; 48 percent white; 51.5 percent black; 5 percent other; over 60 percent came from single family home. Data concerning intellectual functioning and academic achievement show that 55 percent of those with L.D. characteristics and 33 percent of those with M.M.H. characteristics were not receiving appropriate educational services at time of adjudication because they had not been identified as exceptional and were not placed in special education.

069. Correctional Education Association. 1983. *Correctional Education - A Focus on Success - 1983 Correctional Education Association Conference - Call for Papers.* Huntsville, TX: Author.

Abstract: Thirteen papers address aspects of corrections education, including innovative methods to teach both juvenile and adult inmates, work versus academic programs, impact of budget restrictions, and staff training. Several papers focus on educational programs for juvenile offenders, describing a successful alternative education program for serious delinquents aged 14–17, inadequacy of services for handicapped juveniles in correctional facilities, and a method for individualizing instruction for mildly handicapped juveniles.

070. Correctional Education Association. *Proceedings of the Thirty-Sixth Annual Correctional Education Association Conference, July 5–8, 1981, Costa Mesa, California, Volume 1.* Huntsville, TX: Author.

Abstract: Papers on correctional education covering topics such as inmate higher education programs, education for handicapped juveniles, aspects of educational programs successful in changing inmate attitudes and behavior, and unique aspects of content and teaching methods of corrections education. One paper addresses juveniles specifically: "Review and Assessment of Recent Social and Self-Study Correctional Education Programs," by Douglas R. Cygnar.

071. Correctional Education Association. 1988. *Standards for Adult and Juvenile Correctional Education Programs.* College Park, MD: Author.

Abstract: First set of 31 standards developed entirely by and specifically for correctional educators in State and Federal correctional agencies, under joint auspices of Correctional Education Association and Association of State and Federal Directors of Correctional Education. Standards address both institutional and systemwide correctional education practices in an effort to strengthen coordination and direction. Intended as tool for self-evaluation and goal-setting. Standards focus on administration, staff, students, and programs.

072. Correctional Service of Canada. 1991. "Effectiveness of the Cognitive Skills Training Program: From Pilot to National Implementation." Paper presented by the Research and Statistics Branch, Correctional Service of Canada. Ottawa: Author.

Abstract: Reports postrelease outcome of 63 offenders who participated in the original Canadian Cognitive Skills pilot program. After 18 months, 20 percent of experimental group had been readmitted to prison with new convictions as compared to 30.4 percent of control group. With "high risk" offenders, difference was more dramatic, with 18 percent of experimentals readmitted as compared to 42 percent of controls. Pre- and post-assessment batteries included measures to assess cognitive ability, attitudes toward criminal justice system, identification with antisocial peers, impulsiveness, empathy, and risk taking. Offenders who had completed pilot training showed improvements in all areas. The Cognitive Skills-Training Program was implemented systemwide within the Correctional Services of Canada in 1990.

073. Council of Chief State School Officers. 1990. *Voices from Successful Schools: Elements of Improved Schools Serving At-Risk Students and How State Education Agencies Can Support More Local School Improvement.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Examines effect of successful school practices on educational outcomes of disadvantaged students. Determines ways in which State education agencies can support local school improvement efforts in secondary and middle schools. Involves review of current research, expert consultation, and site visitation of 19 exemplary schools. Information provided on school improvement initiation process, methods for improvement, staff training, evaluation and accountability, parent involvement, community and business support, and State intervention. Recommendations include provision of technical assistance by State education agencies, identification of successful schools, improved teacher training, increasing priority of early childhood education, use of innovative instructional methods and incentives, improved program information dissemination, and promotion of family and community support programs.

074. Coyle, L.M., and A.E. Witcher. 1992. "Transforming the Idea into Action: Policies and Practices to Enhance School Effectiveness." *Urban Education.* 26(4): 390–400.

Abstract: Review of literature on school effectiveness identifying elements at the system and building levels that contribute to effectiveness. Provides diagnostic tools for evaluating important components of school effectiveness, i.e., school culture and climate.

075. Crawford, D. 1982. "The ACLD - R&D Project; A Study Investigating the Link Between Learning Disabilities and Juvenile Delinquency. Executive Summary." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association for Children and Adults with Learning Disabilities, Pittsburgh.

Abstract: Describes academic treatment program for 120 adjudicated delinquents identified LD. Program based on an academic treatment model incorporating elements of process training and task analysis. Three major objectives addressed: to improve scholastic achievement, reduce delinquent activities, and improve school attitudes. Study revealed definitive evidence that LD youth engage in significantly more delinquent behavior that non-LD youth and that remediation programs improved reading and arithmetic achievement test performance.

076. Creemers, B., et al. 1992. "National and International School-Effectiveness Research in Retrospect and Prospect." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Abstract: Provides overview of national and international research on school effectiveness. Examines national studies with a focus on the differences in empirical evidence of effective school factors. Describes studies being conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) and the Educational Testing Service (ITS). Suggests that school effectiveness research needs to develop a multilevel, multifactor framework that utilizes outcome-oriented measurement.

077. Cruickshank, D.R. 1990. *Research that Informs Teachers and Teacher Educators.* Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappan.

Abstract: Review of selected literature on practices of teaching and teacher preparation. Compares models for conducting inquiry on teaching and teacher education with synthesis of research on what is currently known. Presents models for research on teaching and teacher education and presents research findings according to categories of variables posited by the models. Summarizes 22 effective schools studies. Lists 7 limitations of such research and suggests ways effective schools research can inform both preservice and inservice teacher education. Reviews research on teacher education according to 4 categories: preservice teachers, preservice curriculum and instruction, the education professorate, and context of teacher preparation.

078. Curran, D.J. 1984. "The Myth of the *New* Female Delinquent." *Crime and Delinquency.* 30(3): 386–399.

Abstract: Takes issue with the contention that the women's movement has resulted in a rapid change in both quantity and quality of female offenses. Argues that changes in rate of female delinquent activity as well as in disposition of youthful offenders are result of legal and political shifts.

079. Dade County Public Schools. 1985. *Dropout Prevention/Reduction Programs and Activities.* Miami: Author.

Abstract: Describes 17 activities or programs conducted in Dade County public elementary and secondary schools in order to reduce dropout. Programs included peer counseling, academic support services, vocational services, truancy prevention, and home instruction.

080. Davidson, W.S., R. Rednar, C. Blakely, C. Mitchell, and J. Emshoff. 1987. "Diversion of Juvenile Offenders: An Experimental Comparison." *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology.* 55(1): 68–75.

Abstract: Presents results of longitudinal experiment focused on relative efficacy of varying treatments for juvenile offenders. Four interventions using nonprofessionals were contrasted with attention-placebo group and treatment-as-usual control group. Systematic manipulation checks indicated high degree of integrity in different treatment conditions. Examination of outcomes was accomplished using multiple measures of self-reported delinquency and official recidivism. Results indicated no significant differential effects on self-reported delinquency. However, all treatment conditions involving a specific intervention model located outside formal juvenile justice system produced lower recidivism rates than attention-placebo conditions, treatment-as-usual conditions, or intervention conditions located within juvenile justice system.

081. Davis, W. 1987. "Newstart: Correctional Education at the Maine Youth Center." Paper presented to the CSPD Committee, Maine Youth Center.

Abstract: Outlines trends in juvenile justice and the impact of local, State, and Federal legislation on services for adjudicated youth. Examines theories on causes of crime, psychology of juvenile delinquency, and characteristics of adjudicated youth. Reviews history of correctional education, Federal and State standards and laws, and special educational needs of adjudicated youth. Looks at issues in curriculum planning and design. Correctional education program at the Maine Youth Center described.

082. DeCencio, S. 1991. "LRE in a Detention Setting." *American Bar Association/LRE Project Exchange.* 8(2): 7–9.

Abstract: Describes a LRE program at Camden County Youth Center in New Jersey, a short term detention facility with a typical stay of three weeks. Includes lessons on juvenile justice system, rules, laws, distributive justice, civil and criminal justice, and the Bill of Rights. Four recommendations for LRE in a detention facility are: (1) Make lessons short enough to be completed in one or two days. (2) Adapt subject matter to the requirements of each group (age, ability level). (3) Provide hands-on activities such as small groups, mock trials, and cooperative learning. (4) Be sure that resource people are familiar with the uniqueness of detention populations.

083. Deshler, D.D., and J.B. Schumaker. 1986. "Learning Strategies: An Instructional Alternative for Low-Achieving Adolescents." *Exceptional Children.* 52(6): 583–590.

Abstract: Describes the University of Kansas Institute for Research in Learning Disabilities designed and validated set of task-specific learning strategies as instructional alternatives for handicapped students. Learning strategies teach students how to learn, rather than teach students specific curriculum

content. Project utilized strategies to help students acquire information from written materials, to enable students to identify and store information, and to aid students in written expression and demonstration of competence.

084. Dolman, G. 1985. "Application of the Delphi Technique to the Identification of Effective Educational Programming for Youth in Corrections." Doctoral Dissertation, Seattle University.

Abstract: Objective of research was to identify components of effective educational programming for youth in corrections in Alaska, Idaho, Oregon, and Washington. Delphi technique used to ascertain a consensus concerning characteristics of effective educational programming in youth corrections as observed and reported by a selected group of educators, social workers, and law enforcement personnel. Process resulted in identification of 56 components in areas of school facilities, instructional materials, curriculum, classroom climate, organization and structure of schools, instructional staff, and disciplinary procedures. The 11 top rank-ordered of those components are described in more detail.

085. Dougherty, V., et al. 1989. *Current Practice: Is It Enough?* Denver: Education Commission of the States.

Abstract: Authors examine current practice for youth at risk in six urban secondary schools. Describes major elements of at-risk policies and programs and raises concerns about strategies currently in place at the sites. Strategies discussed include curriculum and instruction intervention, social and support services, staff development, world of work experiences, collaboration with other agencies, and district leadership. They suggest framework for thinking about restructuring schools for academic success and achievement for all students.

086. Dowling, B. 1982. "Microcomputer Behind Bars: CAI for Juvenile Delinquents." *Classroom Computer News.* 3(1): 42.

Abstract: Describes computer assisted instruction used to increase reading level of juvenile delinquents at the Fred C. Nelles School in California. Most students over a five-year period increased reading level by one month for each month in project.

087. Druian, G., and R. Spill. 1983. *An Introduction to Competency-Based Employment and Training Programming for Youth Under the Job Training Partnership Act.* Waltham, MA: Brandeis University.

Abstract: Provides introduction to competency-based employment and training under the JTPA. Describes in general terms steps service delivery areas should take to implement competency-based employment and training systems for youth. Content based on experiences of practitioners and intended as a working introduction to major issues in design, operation, and management of competency-based programs. First part provides information on JTPA legislation and regulations, concept of competency-based employability development for youth, advantages of competency-based approach, and roles and responsibilities. Second part introduces elements of competency-based employment and training. Third part focuses on implementation issues. Fourth part summarizes the program process. Appendices include a sample competency-based system and an annotated resource guide containing assessment instruments.

088. Dubnov, W.L. 1986. "The Glen Mills Project: Innovation in Juvenile Corrections." *Journal of Offender Counseling, Services, and Rehabilitation.* 10(4): 87–105.

Abstract: Describes innovations such as open-system, normative culture, and guided group interaction. Five year study assessed status of former students three years after release from program. Preliminary results indicate former students are far below recidivism rates of other juvenile correctional institutions and also show impressive rates of employment among former students.

089. Duguid, S., ed. 1989. *Yearbook of Correctional Education: 1989.* Burnaby, Canada: Simon Fraser University.

Abstract: Collection of papers with primary focus on correctional education history, mission, theory. Several papers deal with international correctional education. One paper deals exclusively with juveniles, Katherine A. Larson's "Problem-Solving Training and Parole Adjustment in High-Risk Offenders," (see Larson for abstract).

090. Duguid, S., ed. 1990. *Yearbook of Correctional Education: 1990.* Burnaby, Canada: Simon Fraser University.

Abstract: Collection of papers with primary focus on issues in areas of mandatory programs for adult inmates, program evaluation, research, and higher education. A series of papers provides information on correctional education in foreign countries. Primary focus on adult correctional education, but some of the theoretical papers are of interest to professionals in juvenile correctional education.

091. Duguid, S., ed. 1991. *Yearbook of Correctional Education: 1991.* Burnaby, Canada: Simon Fraser University.

Abstract: Series of papers around three major themes: international perspectives on the education of prisoners, current issues, and research. Emphasis on adult correctional education and postsecondary programs. Some of the theoretical articles are of interest to juvenile correctional educators.

092. Dumdi, E.S., and G. Roelofs. 1984. *Successful Linkages Between Education and Business/Industry in Oregon: Report and Handbook.* Corvallis, OR: Oregon Alliance for Program Improvement.

Abstract: Examines linkages between education and work in Oregon. Purpose of handbook is to: (1) cite examples of existing linkages around State; (2) suggest ways to initiate and nurture linkages; (3) cite benefits that accrue from such linkages; and (4) provide names of resource people who have indicated their willingness to provide information on how to start and maintain a successful linkage or partnership.

093. Dunivant, N. 1982. ***The Relationship Between Learning Disabilities and Juvenile Delinquency: Executive Summary.*** **Williamsburg, VA: National Center for State Courts.**

Abstract: Summary of cross-sectional study of 1,943 adolescent males sampled from public schools, courts, and correctional facilities. Found LD and delinquency significantly related even when differences in sociodemographic backgrounds and other variables were statistically controlled. LD boys showed higher rates of general delinquency as was their tendency to engage in violence, school disruption, and substance abuse. Evaluation of an academic treatment program demonstrated that remedial instruction was effective in improving academic skills and decreasing self-reported and official delinquency. Implications for public policy and future research discussed.

094. Eggleston, C.R. 1991. "Correctional Education Professional Development." ***Journal of Correctional Education.*** **42(1): 16–22.**

Abstract: Outlines the development of the correction education profession. Initially, correctional education was modeled after the public schools. Eventually efforts to adapt correctional education to it's unique setting and population were undertaken. Today, the correctional educator has access to video teleconferencing (by the CEA), the Developing a Curriculum Series (DACUM), and various teacher preparation programs at colleges and universities. Suggests that training in the future should include a core of required courses as well as an area of specialization. Lists a brief synthesis of current correctional education programs in the U.S.

095. English, K., and M. Edwards. 1989. ***T.A.P.S. (To Allow Pupils to Succeed) A Model Program for At-Risk Students Linking Vocational Education and Alternative to Social Promotion, Final Evaluation Report.*** **Kaufman: Kaufman Independent School District.**

Abstract: The Kaufman Independent School District (TX) developed model program for students at risk of dropping out. Program linked current basic skills instructional program with a vocational education program and an at-risk program. Goal of TAPS was to produce high school graduates with marketable skills who could be integrated within society. Program activities included remediation, counseling, preemployment skills training, computer literacy, peer modeling, promotion of positive attitudes, job awareness, enhancement of employment skills of students with disabilities, and inservice training to help teachers deal with low achievers. Approximately 122 at-risk students volunteered to participate; 77 remained in program throughout the year. Program evaluated through comparisons of test scores, evaluation of dropout and passing rates, and surveys of teachers, counselors, administrators, students, and parents. Program led to 50 percent decrease in dropout rate of participants. Produced mixed results in other areas, although test scores improved in some subjects as did self-esteem.

096. Faddis, C.R., S.J. Goff, and J.P. Long. 1986. ***Funding Vocational Education in a Correctional Setting.*** **Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University, The National Center for Research in Vocational Education.**

Abstract: Prepared for the National Corrections Education Consortium, this guide provides compact information on kinds of available funding from Federal, State, and private sources. Provides detailed

procedures for developing a funding proposal and influencing funding policies. Includes resource list of foundations, sample proposal, and directory of State vocational directors.

097. Farrelly, T.M. 1993. "A New Approach to Moral Education: The Integrated Character Education Model." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 44(2): 76–82.

Abstract: Describes a model for "integrated character education," based on the psychological theories of Erikson and Knowles. Discusses the underlying theories, curriculum design, goals, instructional design, and evaluation. Emphasis of this model is on development of the whole person and on interaction with the total environment. Character education should be integrated with the total curriculum and total life of school, i.e., the academic curriculum, recreation, administrative and social systems.

098. Fejes-Mendoza, K., and R. Rutherford. 1987. "Learning Handicapped and Nonlearning Handicapped Female Juvenile Offenders' Educational and Criminal Profiles." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(4); 148–153.

Abstract: Interviewed 30 female juvenile offenders incarcerated in Arizona using series of free response questions and funneling procedure in order to describe educational and criminal profiles in comparison with subgroup of handicapped female juvenile offenders. Results reveal that respondents had fallen an average of one grade level behind age group; over half failed one or more grades. 27 percent interviewed had some degree of educational handicap. Those handicapped were more likely than nonhandicapped to have been incarcerated for the first time, to have been with female friends during commission of crime, to have failed one or more grades, and to have belonged to a gang.

099. Fink, C.M. 1990a. "Special Education Inservice for Correctional Educators." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 41(4): 186–190.

Abstract: Discusses benefits of using, and theory behind SNAP, Smart Needs Assessment Program, a micro-computer based expert system developed by researchers at the Institute for Study of Exceptional Children and Youth at the University of Maryland. System designed to train teachers in special education and provide assistance to teachers in clarifying and solving problems in classroom. Teachers identify problem situations and access recommended teaching techniques in areas of behavior strategies and teacher/learning strategies.

100. Fink, C.M. 1990b. "Special Education Students At Risk: A Comparative Study of Delinquency." In *Understanding Troubled and Troubling Youth,* edited by P.E. Leone. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Abstract: After brief review of incidence studies and theories concerning learning disabilities (LD), and mental retardation (MR), and emotional disturbance (ED) and their relation to delinquency, author summarizes findings from a research project attempting to define relationship among disability, special education, and delinquency. Findings indicate significant differences between handicapped and nonhandicapped students. Special education students reported significantly higher internal loci of control, lower self-concept, and lower interpersonal competency. They were less attached to school, less conforming to rules, more alienated, more absent from school, and more frequently punished.

They had more failing grades, poorer test results, more fear, and more victimization from peers. MR students reported more school involvement than LD students, more negative peer influence, and less parental involvement. Author believes findings support the "school failure" theory of link between disability and crime and call for further research to test the "susceptibility" and "differential treatment" hypotheses.

101. Flood, J., and D. Lapp. 1990. "Reading Comprehension Instruction for At-Risk Students: Research-Based Practices That Can Make a Difference." *Journal of Reading.* 33(7): 490–496.

Abstract: Most educators agree effective comprehension results from interaction of four sets of variables: reader variables, text variables, educational context variables, and teacher variables. Authors discuss seven practices proven successful in helping at-risk students develop comprehension abilities: (1) preparing for reading practices, (2) reciprocal teaching practices, (3) understanding and using knowledge of text structure practices, (4) questioning practices, (5) information processing practices, (6) summarizing practices, and (7) voluntary/recreational reading practices.

102. Forbes, M.A. 1991. "Special Education in Juvenile Correctional Facilities: A Literature Review." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 42(1): 31–35.

Abstract: Argues that correctional education for juveniles has progressed slowly in the past century, but appropriate programs are increasingly available, and the needs of handicapped offenders are currently being assessed. Standards of practice for juveniles in need of special education include both P.L. 94–142 and the standards for juvenile detention facilities set forth by the ACA. Research that seeks to develop the link between special education and corrections points to a need for a continuum of services incorporating educational, vocational, and special educational needs, a correctional education profession, appropriate curriculum designs, and a coordination of efforts on the part of all who service the handicapped juvenile. Successful programs demonstrate the need for one-on-one relationships between the juvenile and the correctional employee, day rather than residential programs, and mandatory attendance. Better Standards for handicapped juvenile offenders are needed, as well as further research specific to this population.

103. Ford, V.H. 1983. "Lessons from Job Corps." *Vocational Education.* 58(1): 36–38.

Abstract: Argues that comprehensiveness is key to success of Job Corps programs. Corps centers attempt to rectify deficiencies in social attitudes, self-esteem, drug/health problems, and work habits, while providing intensive skill training and work experience to economically and educationally disadvantaged youth.

104. Fox, J. 1990. *The Impact of Research on Education Policy. Working Paper.* Washington, D.C.: Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Abstract: Presents examples of how research has contributed to development of constructive education policies and practices throughout country. Discusses use of research in California, South Carolina, Florida, and Connecticut, and efforts of specific organizations using research to reform education policies. Describes three broad uses of research to influence education policy: (1) effective schools research, (2) studies of early childhood education, and (3) research on higher order thinking. Cites

research-backed education reforms of raising student standards, evaluating teacher quality, and restructuring schools. Documents impact of several major Federal research programs.

105. Freasier, A. 1986. "Involving Juvenile Offenders in the IEP Planning Process." ***Journal of Correctional Education.*** **37(4): 134–139.**

Abstract: Describes juvenile male offender involvement in IEP planning process and procedures developed at Louisiana Training Institute-Monroe. Found enhanced performance produced when students allowed to participate more actively in educational decisionmaking. Components found essential in the Pre-IEP Conference Interview are: (1) wide variety of options with regard to both content and process, (2) continuum of structure, (3) active decision making by student related to major decisions, (4) informal and formal conferences, (5) contractual agreements, and (6) ongoing assessment and formative evaluation. By participating in Pre-IEP Conference Interviews and making guided self-evaluation, reviewing programs, services, and entrance criteria; offenders practice self-assessments and decisionmaking and gain in self-esteem.

106. Gagne, E. 1977. "Educating Delinquents: A Review of Research." ***Journal of Special Education.*** **11(1): 13–21.**

Abstract: Research on education of delinquents is reviewed, covering delinquents' problems in school achievement, psychological characteristics, and physiological problems. Survey of literature suggests delinquents have particular problems with verbal communication and reading. These areas should be addressed in order to avoid increasing incidence of delinquency.

107. Gallegos, G.E., and M.W. Kahn. 1984. "Factors Predicting Success of Underprivileged Youths in Job Corp Training." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Western Psychological Association, Los Angeles.

Abstract: To examine demographic characteristics of successful and unsuccessful enrollees at the Southwestern Job Corps Center, 125 youths were administered a 57-item questionnaire covering ten areas including school, work, self-concept, and family relations. Results showed ethnicity significantly related to outcome. Asian subjects (Vietnam refugees) were 100 percent successful, European-Americans were 71 percent successful, Blacks 67 percent successful, Mexican-Americans 58 percent successful, and native Americans 52 percent successful. Born out of the region, a long stay in program, and having been in school or work immediately prior to training were associated with success. Findings suggest that the Job Corps program does well with individuals with certain characteristics but must find ways to reach almost 50 percent who presently do not show positive change from program.

108. Garcia, G., and D. Pearson. 1990. "Modifying Reading Instruction to Maximize its Effectiveness for 'Disadvantaged' Students." In *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom Vol. II: Commissioned Papers and Literature Review,* edited by M.S. Shields, and P.M. Shields. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Washington, D.C.: Policy Studies Associates.

Abstract: Argues that research shows that basal readers and emphasis on discrete and isolated basic skills have not proven effective and have held at-risk children back. Research suggests a more effective approach is to focus on comprehension, and suggests instructional strategies for the teacher. Recommends approaches that include direct and explicit instruction, whole language, reading texts that are culturally familiar, modeling by teacher, and gradual movement toward student control of the learning.

109. Gehring, T. 1990. "Results of a Nationwide Survey; Correctional Education Organizational Structure Trends." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 41(4): 174–181.

Abstract: Presents State-by-State study of generic types of organizational structures used to deliver correctional educational services. Three generic models found are decentralized pattern (in which each correctional facility administers its education program), bureau (in which correctional education is administered systemwide from a central office), and correctional school district (which is set up and functions like a public school district). All fifty States were surveyed and categorized as adult, youth, or adult/youth combined. At the time of the survey, 37 States had separate youth and adult correctional systems. Survey determined that 13 States had decentralized correctional education systems for youth; 18 operated under the Bureau model; and 6 operated as a school district. It found that another 15 States had considered a youth correctional school district but not adopted this structure. Although the author does not see the correctional school district as a "panacea", he views it as a progressive development in which educators assume more and more of the responsibility and control over correctional education.

110. George, P., and P. Mooney. 1985. "Miami Boys Club Delinquency Prevention Program." *Educational Leadership.* December 1985–January 1986, 76–78.

Abstract: Describes innovative program in Miami, operated by Boys Clubs and Circuit Court's Juvenile Division, that provides one year of rehabilitation to male juvenile delinquents who have had at least three court appearances and would otherwise be sentenced to a detention facility. Each boy placed in reading, English, and mathematics classes and follows rigid daily schedule consisting of academic instruction, counseling, and recreational activities at the Boys Club. Students who have completed program exhibit lower rates of school absenteeism, reduced criminal activity, and improved school performance.

111. Gerry, M. 1985. *Monitoring the Special Education Programs of Correctional Institutions: A Guide for Special Education Monitoring Staff of State Education Agencies.* Washington, D.C.: National Association of State Directors of Special Education.

Abstract: Guide for special education administrators in State education agencies in developing monitoring plans for evaluating P. L. 94–142 compliance in State-operated adult and juvenile

correctional institutions. Reviews legal and policy background for compliance monitoring and presents profiles of juvenile and adult correctional facilities, pretrial detention centers and jails, and publicly and privately operated group homes. Development of an annual monitoring plan requires identification and selection of programs to be monitored, establishment of screening criteria, and collection and analysis of targeting information. Areas to be monitored include right to education, individualized education programs, confidentiality, least restrictive environment, and protection in evaluation. Also to be monitored are child identification, location, and evaluation, and comprehensive system of personnel development. Additional subissues for monitoring identified, and checklist for monitoring individualized education programs provided. Includes checklist for procedural safeguards. Some aspects of this guide are outdated due to subsequent legislative changes.

112. Gibbs, J.C. 1990. "Fairness and Empathy as the Foundation for Universal Moral Education." Paper presented at the Meeting of the Association for Moral Education, Notre Dame.

Abstract: Discusses Piaget and Kohlberg's theories as background to suggesting strategies for instilling empathy and fairness in juvenile delinquents. Positive Peer Culture, perspective taking, and dealing with "thinking errors" are described.

113. Gold, L.N., et al. 1991. *States and Communities on the Move: Policy Initiatives To Create a World-Class Workforce.* Washington, D.C.: William T. Grant Foundation, Commission on Work, Family, and Citizenship.

Abstract: Identifies promising and innovative responses to employment-related education reform. Includes descriptions of student apprenticeship in Arkansas, Oregon, and Pennsylvania; business and education partnerships in Massachusetts, New York, Illinois, Georgia, and Maryland; alternative learning centers in New Jersey, Kentucky, New York, and Minnesota; and examples of an innovative use of the Federal Job Corps. Also describes postsecondary initiatives in New York, Rhode Island, Michigan, Louisiana, Maryland, and Kansas.

114. Goldstein, A.P. 1981. *Psychological Skill Training: The Structured Learning Technique.* New York: Pergamon Press.

Abstract: Training guide for persons who deal with those deficient in social skills, including mental patients, adolescents, and children with aggressive behavior. Outlines a 50 skill curriculum and provides information on how to implement it. Of particular value to the correctional educator is the complete "Structured Learning Trainers' Manual for Adolescents", which provides background on structured learning and detailed step-by-step information on selecting participants, structuring sessions, modeling, role playing, group management, forms and checklists.

115. Goldstein, A.P., et al. 1986. "Aggression Replacement Training: A Comprehensive Intervention for the Acting-Out Delinquent." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 37(3): 120-126.

Abstract: Describes rationale and constituent procedures of Structured Learning, a prosocial skills training intervention designed for antisocial adolescents. An anger management procedure, Anger Control Training, and a moral education intervention were added to constitute a combined intervention package labeled "Aggression Replacement Training." Describes curricula and preliminary evaluation with a sample of sixty incarcerated adolescents.

116. Goldstein, A.P., and H. Keller. 1987. *Aggressive Behavior: Assessment and Intervention.* New York: Pergamon Press.

Abstract: Targeted at therapists and others who deal with persons with aggressive behavior. Provides information on the assessment and evaluation of aggression and different types of interventions. Outlines sequence of aggressive behavior and types of training that would modify behaviors at the various levels of the sequence. Provides detailed descriptions and techniques on the following interventions: anger control training; relaxation training; communication, negotiation, and contracting training; contingency management training; prosocial skill training; and prosocial values training. The prosocial values training is derived from the theories of L. Kohlberg whose six stages of moral reasoning are summarized and analyzed.

117. Goldstein, A.P., R.P. Sprafkin, N.J. Gershaw, and P. Klein. 1980. *Skillstreaming the Adolescent.* Champaign, Il: Research Press.

Abstract: Describes the background and development of "Structured Learning." Introduces procedures for implementing it with adolescents. Provides step-by-step prescriptions for teaching 50 Structured Learning Skills, including methodology, materials, and behavior management. Includes an annotated bibliography of Structured Learning Research.

118. Gottfredson, D.C. 1990. "Changing School Structures to Benefit High-Risk Youths." In *Understanding Troubled and Troubling Youth,* edited by P.E. Leone. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Abstract: Article presents theory of learning process consisting of modeling behavior, reinforcement through rewards or punishments, prior influences, and capacity for self-reinforcement. Reviews three programs aimed at changing delinquent behaviors and improving academic achievement of high-risk public school youth: (1) "pull-out program" with counseling and tutoring "add-on" services, (2) alternative class program focusing on law-related education in a combined English and social studies class, and (3) alternative school program focusing on basic schools and job readiness. Research found pull-out program ineffective in reducing delinquency and only mildly effective in academic gain. Alternative school was counter-productive. Alternative class program found effective in all areas—academic gain, social bonding, attitude toward social institutions, and reduction in delinquency.

119. Gottfredson, D.C. 1985. "Youth Employment, Crime, and Schooling: A Longitudinal Study of a National Sample." *Developmental Psychology.* 21(3): 419–432.

Abstract: Data from national study of delinquency prevention programs used to examine effect of working on delinquent behavior. Samples of students attending participating schools asked to report work experiences and extent of involvement during last year in delinquent activities. Regression analysis used to examine effect of working while attending secondary school on self-reported delinquency. Evidence from study implies that teenage working does not increase delinquency and does not have detrimental effect on commitment to education, involvement in extracurricular activities, time spent on homework, attachment to school, or attachment to parents. Models examined suggest working decreases school attendance and dependence on parents for some subgroups, but these effects do not translate into increases in delinquency.

120. Grande, C.G. 1988. "Educational Therapy for the Failing and Frustrated Student Offender." *Journal of Adolescence.* 23(92): 889–897.

Abstract: Describes methods of treatment for meeting needs of failing and frustrated student offenders. Attention given to both public school and juvenile justice settings for the following areas of treatment: classroom management systems, curriculum and instructional adjustment, counseling and support services, and alternative educational programming.

121. Grande, C.G. 1987. "GED Predictions: An Administrative Tool for Planning Correctional Education for Male Youthful Offenders." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(3): 124–127.

Abstract: Correctional educators within minimum custody correctional facility were asked to provide GED predictions (i.e., written estimations in months of when their students would complete GED) for all students enrolled in school during the course of one school year. Study showed that any male youthful offender, age 18–21, predicted to complete GED in less than 5 months, stands a 50-50 chance of doing so, if given opportunity. Finding requires correctional administration response for early identification of student offenders who have ability to complete GED and provision of services that would enable them to do so within the time frame of their incarceration.

122. Grande, C.G., and M.A. Koorland. 1988. "A Complex Issue: Special Education in Corrections." *Children and Youth Services Review.* 10(4): 345–350.

Abstract: Correctional administrators usually cite three reasons for inability to comply with P.L. 94–142: (1) uniqueness of the correctional setting, (2) lack of interagency cooperation, and (3) lack of trained correctional special educators. Emphasis needs to be on training of correctional special educators to help implement the law.

123. Grande, C.G., and A. Oseroff. 1991. "Special Education Planning in Jails." *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation.* 16(3–4): 103–111.

Abstract: Describes jail education services and suggests ways special education services may realistically be provided. Limited jail educational services are due to number of factors: newness of correctional education field, psychological and physical obstacles within jails, negative inmate attitudes, and lack of administrative support. Recommendations include using small county jails as correctional diagnostic centers, using volunteers, and providing opportunities for academic and vocational skill development.

124. Grissom, G.R., and S. McMurphy. 1986. *College-Correctional Collaboration in the Treatment of Juvenile Offenders: Evaluation of a Program Model in Six Sites, Final Report.* Philadelphia: University City Science Center.

Abstract: Presents results of evaluation of model program featuring collaboration between community colleges and New Jersey correctional education programs at six sites. Program goals were to improve students math and verbal skills, create more favorable attitudes toward learning, and teach meaningful job skills. Results indicate students showed strong gains in both math and verbal skills, with improvements being double and triple (respectively) their rate of growth prior to program entry. Involvement by community colleges contributed to youths' self-image and helped neutralize effects of labeling. Benefits greatest when classes were conducted on college campuses.

125. Haberman, M., and P.E. Lerman. 1982. "Educational Follow-Up Study of Juveniles Released from Ethan Allen and Lincoln Hills Schools." Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin, Employment and Training Institute.

Abstract: Three-year study examined educational experiences of all 759 youth released from Ethan Allen and Lincoln Hills Schools in Wisconsin in 1979. Findings refute that correctional schools must continue to offer traditional high school curriculum based on Carnegie Units because released youth will return and finish high school in local communities. Only 1.6 percent who returned to communities finished high school. Over 50 percent of students were noncompleters, while 40 percent earned GED's. Eighty earning GED's did so after leaving the correctional institution. For overwhelming majority, correctional institution provided the first and only successful high school experience: 42 percent of 15 to 17-year-olds arrived with no high school credits; 61 percent of those who completed GED's while incarcerated entered with less than four high school credits. Authors argue that traditional high school curricula, whether in public school or in correctional settings, do not meet educational needs of delinquent youth. Most of these youth neither come from, participate in, or return to traditional high school settings.

126. Hains, A.A., and A.H. Hains. 1987. "The Effects of a Cognitive Strategy Intervention on the Problem-Solving Abilities of Delinquent Youths." *Journal of Adolescence.* 10(4): 399-413.

Abstract: Social problem-solving skills and self-evaluation procedure were taught to institutionalized youths as part of a cognitive-behavioral therapy program. A multiple-baseline design across subjects and an alternating-treatments design were used. Five youths participated in the program in which hypothetical social dilemmas were presented in individual sessions. Also, the effects of intervention on the youths' self-recorded personal problem solving were assessed. Training involved the acquisition of a problem-solving strategy for the hypothetical dilemmas. All youths showed improvement during the training of problem solving on the hypothetical dilemmas. The self-evaluation procedure had little effect on performance. Some youth generalized their use of the problem-solving strategy to the untrained problems during the alternating-treatment condition. Followup data suggested that maintenance of treatment gains occurred for all youths. General improvements in the youths' social behavior outside of therapy sessions were suggested by anecdotal information that showed improved rates of progress through the institution's behavioral level system.

127. Halasz, I., and K. Behm. 1982. *Evaluating Vocational Education Programs: A Handbook for Corrections Educators.* Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University, The National Center for Research in Vocational Education.

Abstract: Practical, step-by-step handbook for correctional educators with little or no experience in program evaluation. Includes checklists, worksheets, and a hypothetical case study. Includes examples of evaluation materials from correctional agencies and an annotated resource list. Can be used to develop internal or external evaluations of individual vocational programs or systemwide programs. Provides guidelines for process and outcome evaluations.

128. Hamm, M. 1987. "The Human Potential Seminar: A Strategy for Teaching Socially Adaptive Behavior in a Correctional Classroom." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(1): 4–7.

Abstract: Research was conducted at Catalina Mountain School in Tucson, Arizona. Subjects were 70 male offenders, age 15.5 to 18, average IQ 103.4. Subjects in experimental treatment group participated in Human Potential Seminars (HPS) for period of three weeks. Control group experienced only normal program offered by well-staffed institution. Data were collected to measure: self-concept, social control, and institutional behavior. Pre- and post-tests administered. Results suggest that HPS had a greater effect on adolescent delinquents than did normal program of high quality institution. Strong consistent difference between experimental and control groups in terms of self-concept, commitment to school, belief in delinquency, and institutional behavior.

129. Harper, G. 1988. "Mental Ability and Academic Achievement of Male Juvenile Delinquents." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 39(1): 18–22.

Abstract: Traces history of assessment of mental ability and academic achievement of male juvenile delinquents. Argues that today's juvenile delinquent is probably more intelligent and more capable than has been reported in past. Study conducted to determine if wards were capable of growth and what amount of growth could be expected while incarcerated. Found no significant difference between growth rates of recidivists and nonrecidivists. Found gains in academic achievement during incarceration above expected gains for normal population.

130. Harrington, M. 1984. *The New American Poverty.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Abstract: Classical, liberal viewpoint of American "poverties." Contains chapter on relationship between crime and delinquency and poverty. Shows that economic structures are an important element in family breakdown, crime, etc., not the cause. Argues that poverty affects those who are "already on the edge" to criminal behavior. Critiques views of James Q. Wilson, Bruce Chapman, Daniel Patrick Moynihan.

131. Hartmann, H.J. 1989. "Computer Adaptive Testing: A Technological Advance in Educational Measurement Ideally Suited for Correctional Education." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 40(3): 138–141.

Abstract: Correctional education facilities have unique testing and measurement needs which differ substantially from conventional education programs. Describes limitation of traditional norm-referenced programs. Computer Adaptive Testing as implemented by Los Angeles County Office of Education's Juvenile Court and Community Schools program proposed as alternative ideally suited for use in correctional education environment. Combines microcomputer technology with advances in psychometric theory in order to generate unique test, individually tailored to examinee's ability.

132. Hartnagel, T., and H. Krahn. 1982. "High School Dropouts, Labor Market Success, and Criminal Behavior." *Youth and Society.* 20(4): 416–444.

Abstract: Discusses linkages between high school dropouts, labor market, and criminal behavior. Research on link between school failure and delinquency shows those who fail are more likely to

engage in delinquent behavior. Research also suggests presence of labor market and crime relationship. Unemployment is related to most measures of crime and drug use.

133. Hawkins, J. D., and D.M. Lishner. 1983. "Cooperating to Prevent Delinquency: A School-Based Approach." Seattle: Center for Law and Justice.

Abstract: Paper summarizes link between school experience and delinquency. Presents a school model and describes instructional strategies, including interactive teaching, cooperative learning, and proactive classroom management. Describes an implementation experiment in Seattle schools.

134. Hazel, J.S., J. Schumaker, J. Sherman, and J. Sheldon-Wildgen. 1982. "Social Skills Training with Court-Adjudicated Youths." *Child and Youth Services.* 5(3/4): 117-137.

Abstract: Describes theoretical and programmatic issues in development of social skills training program for court-adjudicated youths. Relevant issues in development of social skills training program organized along dimensions of content, methodology, and practicality. Resulting social skills training program described with major research findings. Future research directions in social skills training proposed.

135. Helfeldt, J.P., and W.A. Henk. 1985. "Alternative Approaches to Reading Instruction in Correctional Settings." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 36(1): 4-7.

Abstract: Describes limitations of traditional phonics approach and outlines six alternative teaching strategies that are highly sensitive to correctional student's need for immediate feedback and success, as well as their preference for oral reading from a book format. Recommended alternative methods: (1) Imitative Reading (teacher orally reads a segment of text while student follows along silently); (2) Repeated Reading (involves students orally reading sections of text over and over); (3) Radio Reading (student given a script to read aloud; only reader and teacher have a copy to save reader from embarrassment); (4) Chunking/Phrase Reading (can be used to progressively expand students' units of analysis from word to phrase, clause, and sentence levels); (5) Paired Reading (two students orally read same text in unison); and (6) Neurological Impress (system of simultaneous oral reading by student and teacher to "impress" fluid reading pattern of teacher on student).

136. Henderson, M., and C. Hollin. 1983. "A Critical Review of Social Skills Training with Young Offenders." *Criminal Justice and Behavior.* 10(3): 316-341.

Abstract: Authors argue that Social Skills training has not yet been proven effective and there is lack of followup data showing maintenance of improved social skills. Technique has limitations and should not be looked at as a cure.

137. Herr, D.E., and R.J. Linn. 1990. "Behavior Management Techniques Useful in Helping the Transition to School: Preparing Teachers to Handle Misbehavior." In *Transitional Services for Troubled Youth,* edited by B.I. Wolford, et al., p. 12–14. Richmond, KY: Eastern Kentucky University.

Abstract: Argues that most teachers receive inadequate training in management techniques and that this area is listed as high priority by correctional and special education teachers. Article summarizes preventive, anticipatory, and response techniques found to be effective, with emphasis on the preventive. Preventive techniques include providing students with attention and approval, establishing firm rules, modeling while moving around the classroom, and carefully planning activities. Anticipatory techniques include moving near the problem student, giving attention, signaling interference, modulating the voice, reminding of rules, and probing. Finally, assertiveness, logical consequences, and conferencing are recommended as responses to misbehavior.

138. Herr, D.E., and R.J. Linn. 1992. "Helping the Transition to School Through the Use of Preventive and Anticipatory Behavior Management Techniques." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 43(1): 32–37.

Abstract: Focus on three techniques with proven effectiveness in controlling misbehavior in both public schools and institutions: preventive planning techniques, anticipatory response techniques, and systematic interventions. Argues that corrections staff must possess these behavior management skills in order to effectively transition youth with behavior problems back into school and in the community.

139. Hill, E.C. 1990. *Aids Education in Correctional Facilities: A Review.* Sacramento: California Legislative Analyst.

Abstract: Argues that AIDS education programs in California's prisons and jails are inadequate, lacking elements indicated in research findings to be necessary to lead to behavior change. Recommends changes in existing programs. Recommends HIV classes for wards of California Youth Authority and that all HIV education efforts should be coordinated within each facility. Legislature can either mandate a certain level of HIV education and provide for State reimbursement of local costs or establish advisory guidelines that would not entail reimbursement.

140. Hodges, R.B., and J.R. Evans. 1983. "Effects of Three Instructional Strategies with Juvenile Delinquents of Differing Learning Styles." *Journal of Offender Counseling, Services, and Rehabilitation.* 7(3–4): 57–65.

Abstract: Examined whether determining a delinquent's preferred cognitive mode and instructing to it facilitated academic achievement. Hypothesized that verbal/analytically competent delinquents would learn better with verbally oriented instruction, while those competent in visual/spatial skills would learn better with a visual/spatial type presentation. Results did not support this. However, since studies show that majority of delinquents are visually/spatially oriented, a visual approach may nonetheless be more effective.

141. Hoellein, R.H., and N.H. Yauger. 1988. "Psychoeducational Assessment and Special Education Programming for the Juvenile Offender." In *Classification: Innovative Correctional Programs,* edited by B. Wolford, and P. Lawrenz, 11-21. Richmond, KY: Eastern Kentucky University, Department of Correctional Services.

Abstract: Psychoeducational assessment of juvenile offenders in a correctional institution requires cooperative effort of all staff members to evaluate a youth's multiple skills in academic, behavioral, and vocational domains. Describes a multifactorial and multidisciplinary approach to psychoeducational assessment and programming developed at a private correctional institution in Pennsylvania. Youth complete screening assessment that includes evaluation of previous school and psychological records and behavioral and educational assessments by institution, guidance staff, and educational personnel. Additional evaluation is conducted by school psychologist if indicated. Basic assessment battery includes measures of intelligence, perceptual motor function, achievement, adaptive behavior, social behavior, personality, and vocational instruments. If diagnosis of exceptionality is substantiated, an Individualized Education Program Plan is developed that also includes an individualized behavioral program.

142. Hollander, H.E., and F.D. Turner. 1985. "Characteristics of Incarcerated Delinquents: Relationship Between Developmental Disorders, Environmental and Family Factors, and Patterns of Offense and Recidivism." *Journal of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry.* 24(2): 221-226.

Abstract: Survey of 200 incarcerated male juvenile offenders in terms of offenses, family status, socioeconomic background, and DSM-III classification. Results indicated that 47 percent had borderline IQ's; 34 percent had overlapping symptoms of Schizotypical Paranoid, and Borderline personality disorders; 18.8 percent had Specific Developmental Disability (SDD) and/or Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD), including 6.4 percent who also had personality disorders. Diagnosis of Undersocialized Conduct Disorder was significantly associated with borderline IQ. This diagnosis and diagnosis of Conduct Disorder with Personality Disorder were significantly associated with violent crime. Recidivism found statistically linked to family and socioeconomic status.

143. Howell, K.W. 1987. "Functional Assessment in Correctional Settings." In *Special Education in the Criminal Justice System,* edited by C.M. Nelson, R.B. Rutherford, and B.I. Wolford. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company.

Abstract: Presents information on the functional evaluation of clients in the correctional setting. Discusses the components of a meaningful evaluation which are appropriate content and appropriate standards. Identifies the four stages of a functional evaluation: fact finding, hypothesizing, validating, and decision making. Stresses the importance of keeping evaluation activities focused on the curriculum.

144. Howell, K.W. 1985. "Selecting Special Education Treatments." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 36(1): 26-29.

Abstract: Reviews procedures and instruments used to select educational treatments for handicapped and/or gifted students. Ability-based assessment and the diagnostic-prescriptive model of remediation have been discredited by a series of authors over a period of years. However, advocates of the model continue to recommend its use. These recommendations have begun to appear in correction forums.

The author cautions against acceptance of nonvalidated techniques within correctional education and recommends a "teacher effectiveness" model rather than a "student ability" model.

145. Hugo, K.E., and R.B. Rutherford. 1992. "Issues in Identifying Educational Disabilities Among Female Juvenile Offenders." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 43(3): 124–127.

Abstract: Research into incidence of disabilities among female delinquents is limited. In 1987 Fejes-Mendoza and Rutherford used self-concept information to determine percentage of female juvenile offenders who were learning handicapped. Study sought to obtain information about female juvenile offenders incarcerated in a State correctional facility to determine which offenders had received special education services while in public schools and to collect information regarding their perceptions of school. Thirty-eight girls were randomly selected from population of 62 offenders incarcerated in the State juvenile detention center for females in Arizona. Subjects were aged 13–17. Data obtained from files revealed that students with disabilities came in contact with juvenile justice system earlier than nondisabled subjects.

146. Hymel, G.M. 1990. "Harnessing the Mastery Learning Literature: Past Efforts, Current Status, & Future Directions." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston.

Abstract: Review of literature on mastery learning (ML) which falls into four major areas: (1) "typing" of ML efforts in context of a comprehensive literature review, (2) compilation of state-of-the-art bibliographies of ML, (3) synthesis of empirical ML studies through meta-analysis, and (4) interrelating concepts and variables common to ML, effective schools, and outcome-based schooling via a macro-model. Future efforts should focus on bringing more organization, control, and accessibility to vast collection of ML literature.

147. Illinois Council on Vocational Education. 1988. *Correctional Education: A Way to Stay Out Recommendations for Illinois and a Report of the Anderson Study.* Springfield: Author.

Abstract: Presents recommendations for correctional education proposed by the Illinois Council on Vocational Education. Includes summary of Anderson study "Monitoring and Evaluating the Services for Correctional Inmates." Recommendations deal with external and internal evaluations of academic and vocational programs, implementation of training in life management skills, five-year comprehensive plan for correctional education, establishment of vocational technical center, Federal support, incentive plans for inmates in educational programs, and allocation of funds for research and development projects.

148. Illinois State Council on Vocational Education. 1991. *Education for Employment: A Follow-Up Study of 1987–1988 Suggestions and Recommendations.* Springfield: Author.

Abstract: This three-year followup report describes actions taken by the Illinois Council on Vocational Education (ICOVE) during 1989–1991 to respond to 140 suggestions and 29 recommendations of 12 technical reports related to education for employment. Correctional education included in Council recommendations. These included: (1) establish performance standards; (2) retrain, upgrade, and maintain work force; (3) provide services for special populations and improve program access;

(4) identify program service needs; (5) facilitate preparation for work; and (6) identify private sector commerce, industry, and labor needs for education and job-specific preparation.

149. Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority. 1991. *Trends and Issues 91: Education and Criminal Justice in Illinois.* Chicago: Author.

Abstract: Examines relationship between school failure and criminality in Illinois and describes ways Illinois is addressing school crime, causes and effects of student dropout, and educational needs of offenders. Based on two surveys. One asked Illinois public high school students and teachers about crime in schools, and the other asked offenders about their education. Results showed that 1 in 12 had been physically attacked in or near their schools in past school year, and one-third had brought a weapon to school in order to protect themselves. Programs to address problems include law enforcement in schools, special education services, programs to address truancy and prevent dropouts, correctional education, and adult education.

150. James, T.S., and J.M. Granville. 1984. "Practical Issues in Vocational Education for Serious Juvenile Offenders." In *Violent Juvenile Offenders: An Anthology,* edited by R. Mathias, P. DeMuro, and R. Allinson, 337-345. San Francisco: National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

Abstract: Describes New Pride, a Denver-based, nonresidential program for serious, repeat offenders. Program has four major components: Diagnostic/ needs assessment, remedying academic deficiencies, intensive supervision and counseling, and vocational training and job placement. On-the-job training has been developed through linkages with small businesses. New Pride has also developed its own small business where clients can gain work experience. New Pride's cost per client is $4,500 per year as compared to $28,000 per year in a State training school. Majority of clients (90 percent) have remained in community, and 70 percent of completers are reintegrated into school and/or work.

151. Jennings, W.S., and L. Kohlberg. 1983. "Effects of a Just Community Programme on the Moral Development of Youthful Offenders." *Journal of Moral Education.* 12(1): 33-50.

Abstract: Discusses effects of a just community program on moral development of youthful offenders in a group home. The home operated on "just community" stressing moral discussion and participatory democracy in making and enforcing rules and in resolving interpersonal conflicts. During "just community" period, residents moved up an average of one-third of a stage in reasoning on Kohlberg moral judgement interview. Included comparison group of offenders in a secure behavior modification program and a secure transaction analysis program. Insignificant increase in residents' moral reasoning found in these programs. Just community program perceived as highest on amount of: (1) moral discussion and dialogue, (2) resident power and responsibility for rules and decisions, (3) concern about fairness of rules and policies, and (4) self-perceived moral behavior change.

152. Johnson, J.K. 1992. "Performance-Based Teacher Evaluations: A Necessary Component for Effective Schools." *Contemporary Education.* 63(2): 142-145.

Abstract: Believes in high expectations for teachers. Job descriptions and evaluation forms must have specific performance criteria and standards. Discusses development and implementation of performance criteria and standards which can be used in staff development.

153. Johnson, T.R., and M. Troppe. 1992. "Improving Literacy and Employability Among Disadvantaged Youth: The Job Corps Model." *Youth and Society.* 23(3): 335-355.

Abstract: Describes initiatives undertaken by the Job Corps in recent years to improve educational abilities of enrollees. Reports results of various research efforts to examine effectiveness of some of these initiatives. Evidence suggests that Job Corps initiatives have improved basic skills of students.

154. Johnston, W., and A. Packer. 1987. *Workforce 2000: Work and Workers for the 21st Century.* Indianapolis: Hudson Institute.

Abstract: Research study providing basic intelligence on the job market as a foundation for public policy and new initiatives. Describes the forces shaping the American economy and the demographics that will shape the labor force by the year 2000. Of particular value for the correctional education planner, administrator, and teacher is the information on the fastest growing as well as dwindling jobs, with service industries providing the most opportunities in the future. Describes the educational requirements for full participation in the future labor market, with the median requirement of 13.5 years of basic schooling; with emphasis on more language, math, and reasoning skills.

155. Just, D. 1985. "The Relationship Between Delinquent Behavior and Work Values of Noninstitutionalized Youth." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 36(4): 148-154.

Abstract: Purpose of study was to determine whether work values of delinquent youth differ from those of other youth, and if so, how. Information derived from analysis of responses of 12,686 youths to 1980 New York Survey of the National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Market Experience. Findings indicate that no significant relationship exists between delinquency and work values.

156. Kane, B.J., and R.C. Bragg. 1984. "School Behavior Study." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 35(4): 118-122.

Abstract: Examined empirically held notion that adjudicated juvenile delinquents demonstrate more asocial behavior than their peers. Two populations questioned on self-reporting survey. Juvenile delinquent population and nonjuvenile delinquent population were found to differ significantly on survey. Results support the notion that juvenile delinquents manifest asocial behavior to a larger degree than their nondelinquent peers.

157. Kansas Task Force on Youth Competence. 1985. *JTPA Youth Employment Competency System: A Model - Revised.* Topeka, KS: Kansas State Department of Human Resources.

Abstract: Describes a youth competency model developed for JTPA programs in Kansas to evaluate program participants' competency in 4 areas: preemployment, work maturity, basic education, and job-specific skills. Discussed are the 4 competency areas: workings of a youth competency system, foundation for such a system in the JTPA and regulations, advantages and disadvantages of such a system, roles and responsibilities of program practitioners, and steps in establishing a youth competency system. Second half of report describes model's provisions for documentation and certification/credentialing and includes section on assessing youth competency in each of the four competency areas.

158. Kardash, C.A., and R.B. Rutherford. 1983. "Meeting the Special Education Needs of Adolescents in the Arizona Department of Corrections." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 34(3): 97-98.

Abstract: In 1981-82, identified 62 percent of the youth incarcerated in the Arizona Department of Corrections in need of special education services. At that time only 21 percent were receiving special education services. Identifies the problems associated with meeting the special education needs of these youth. These problems are: a lack of funds, inadequate facilities, transitory nature of the youth, poor communication between agencies, and a shortage of qualified personnel.

159. Kaseno, S.L. 1985. "The Visual Anatomy of the Juvenile Delinquent." *Academic Therapy.* 21(1): 99-105.

Abstract: Project offering comprehensive vision therapy evaluations and visual-perception testing to juvenile delinquents revealed high percentage of undiagnosed and previously untreated visual perceptual problems. Treatment has resulted in marked reduction in recidivism and increases in reading skills.

160. Keilitz, I. and N. Dunivant. 1986. "The Relationships Between Learning Disability and Juvenile Delinquency: Current State of Knowledge." *Remedial and Special Education.* 7(3): 18-26.

Abstract: Describes background, research, and results of the multiyear Learning Disability-Juvenile Delinquency Project. Results showed adolescents with learning disabilities had significantly higher rates of delinquent behavior than nonlearning-disabled adolescents. Likelihood of arrest and adjudication was also substantially higher for LD youth. Evaluation of an academic treatment program demonstrated that remedial instruction was effective in improving academic skills and decreasing delinquency of LD youth who had been adjudicated.

161. Kletzien, S.B., and M.R. Bednar. 1990. "Dynamic Assessment for At-Risk Readers." *Journal of Reading.* 33(7): 528-533.

Abstract: Presents dynamic reading assessment procedure (DAP) for at-risk readers. DAP particularly valuable for at-risk readers by giving a profile of reading ability and behaviors, including current reading level, reading efficiency in strategy use, ability and willingness to modify reading behavior, and "zone of reading potential" (range from reader's independent level through level where reader can be successful working with an adult or more capable peer).

162. Knapp, M.S., et al. 1993. *Academic Challenge for the Children of Poverty: Volume I: Findings and Conclusions.* Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Washington, D.C.: Policy Studies Associates.

Abstract: Final report in three-year study of schooling for disadvantaged children. Describes what has been learned with examples from schools and classrooms across nation. Contrasts "conventional wisdom," that has not been very effective, with alternatives that have proven more effective. Although focus is on first six grades, most of findings are relevant to juvenile correctional education. Provides ideas on effective alternatives in reading, writing, mathematics instruction, school environment,

teaching/learning strategies, and classroom management. (Discussed in greater detail in the body of this publication.)

163. Knapp, M.S., P.M. Shields, and B.J. Turnball. 1992. *Academic Challenge for the Children of Poverty: Summary Report.* Menlo, Park, CA: SRI International. Washington, D.C.: Policy Study Associates.

Abstract: Summary of the final report in the Study of Academic Instruction for Disadvantaged Students, a three-year investigation of curriculum and instruction in elementary schools serving high concentrations of children from low-income families. Emphasis on reading, writing, and mathematics instruction.

164. Knapp, M.S., and B.J. Turnball. 1990. *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom, Vol I: Summary.* Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Washington, D.C.: Department of Education, Policy Studies Associates.

Abstract: Summarizes themes emerging from the nine commissioned papers and review chapters contained in Volume II (Knapp and Shields, abstracted below). Focus on curriculum and instruction in reading, writing, and mathematics, and on instructional strategies and classroom management. Compares "Conventional Wisdom," i.e., traditional approach to teaching/remediating at-risk students and findings from "Effective Schools" research and its implications for U.S. education.

165. Knapp, M.S., and P.M. Shields. 1990a. *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom, Vol II: Commissioned Papers and Literature Review.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Education, Office of Planning, Budget and Evaluation.

Abstract: Volume includes nine commissioned papers and four literature review chapters synthesizing current research-based thinking about effective academic instruction for elementary schools serving high proportions of students from impoverished families. Although original research was focused on elementary school, most of findings are generalizable to junior, even senior high levels. With an extremely high proportion of disadvantaged children in corrections, this report provides invaluable information for correctional educators. Until recently, most of the effort of remediating deficits of disadvantaged learners included breaking down curriculum into discrete skills, lots of basic drill and practice, ability-level groupings, pullout classes, individualized workbooks and sheets, and teacher directed instruction. It is now believed that this approach has not been effective in assisting disadvantaged children but may have held them back. Effective Schools research suggests another approach: emphasis on knowledge students do bring to school, not their deficits; early emphasis on higher order tasks and challenging tasks; emphasis on meaning and understanding in all academic instruction; combination of teacher and learner directed instruction; extensive opportunities to learn and apply skills in context. Four papers (Allington, Garcia and Pearson, Moll, and Knapp and Needles) focus on research findings in area of effective literacy instruction. Another four (Porter, Secada, McKnight, and Zucker) on effective mathematics instruction. Four papers (Brophy, Doyle, Neufeld, and McCollum) summarize research on effective instructional strategies and classroom management. A final paper (Shields) focuses on classroom, school, community relationships necessary for effective schools. (Papers most relevant for corrections education are abstracted separately under entries by specific authors.)

166. Knapp, M.S., and P.M. Shields. 1990b. "Reconceiving Academic Instruction for Children of Poverty." *Phi Delta Kappan.* 753–758.

Abstract: Calls for paradigm shift. Need to stop focusing on what disadvantaged students lack and start assuming all students arrive at school with ways of speaking and interacting. Need to get away from specific sequential skill instruction and offer more challenging curriculum based on the "big picture". Argues for new balance between teacher direction and student direction.

167. Knapp, M.S., and M. Needels. 1990. "Review of Research on Curriculum and Instruction in Literacy." In *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom, Vol II: Commissioned Papers and Literature Review,* edited by M.S. Knapp, and P.M. Shields. Washington, D.C.: Department of Education, Office of Planning, Budget and Evaluation.

Abstract: Summarize "Effective Schools" research findings on literacy instruction. Analyzes types of approaches to teaching reading and reading curricula. Find that disadvantaged students are better served by: (1) active, comprehension-focused curricula; (2) exposure to wide variety of texts (not basal readers); (3) instruction in which students are a resource for one another's learning; (4) instruction in which teachers play active role, and with greater emphasis on explicit teaching of comprehension strategies; and (5) learning activities that place reading in context of real tasks and applications. Cites research on writing which emphasizes need for more writing for meaningful communication and putting basic skills (punctuation,spelling, capitalization, etc.) not first, but as the editing phase of communicative writing. Focus on need for teachers to understand dialect and/or foreign language background of students.

168. Krisberg, B., R. DeComo, and N.C. Herrera. 1992. *National Juvenile Custody Trends: 1978–1989.* San Francisco: National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

Abstract: Report indicates that although youth population declined by 11 percent 1979–1989, juveniles in custody rose by 31 percent. Custody rate per 100,000 rose 46 percent, from 251 to 367. Admissions of females increased 18 percent. Juveniles confined in private facilities increased by 13 percent. In 1989, however, 82 percent of youth in public facilities were in training schools. Majority of youth in private facilities were held in halfway houses. Proportion of Black and Hispanic youth grew (9 percent and 4 percent respectively), proportion of white youth declined 13 percent. Overall increase of 22 percent in committed youths in public facilities and 53 percent in detained youth. Most data based on 1-day counts.

169. Kyle, C., et al. 1992. *Time To Learn: A Study of the Educational Histories of Incarcerated Juveniles, Preliminary Report to the Illinois General Assembly.* Chicago: De Paul University.

Abstract: Analysis of 1990–91 educational histories of incarcerated juveniles in Illinois to assess value of educational intervention strategies prior to incarceration, consisting of open-ended interviews with public officials and structured interviews with 200 juvenile offenders. Surveys revealed 71 percent of respondents were from broken homes. While in elementary school, 79 percent cared for by neighbors during mother's absence, and 51 percent were latchkey children by 6th grade. A third attended four to six schools before dropping out, and 40 percent had conduct problems prior to 4th grade. Almost all indicated they liked going to school, although liking decreased as student progressed through

grades. Over time, there was decline in number of teachers going out of their way to help these children. About three-fourths of those suspended in junior high school believed they would graduate from high school, but only one-third thought they would graduate from college. As most of these delinquents and their families have high regard for education, academic assistance and personal counseling while still in educational setting could reduce juvenile delinquency rates.

170. Larson, K.A. 1985."The Effects of Cognitive Training for Social Competence in Learning Disabled And Non-Learning Disabled Delinquents." Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California.

Abstract: Tests the hypothesis that social meta-cognitive deficiencies increase risk for delinquency in LD youth. Investigated efficacy of social meta-cognitive training for enhancing social competence in LD and non-LD low-achieving delinquents. Treatment significantly improved behavior. Social cognitive skills for both LD and non-LD delinquents also improved. Evidence indicated that LD youth may be at greater risk for delinquency because of ineffective meta-cognitive approaches to social problem solving.

171. Larson, K.A. 1989. "Problem-Solving Training and Parole Adjustment in High-Risk Young Adult Offenders." In *Yearbook of Correctional Education, 1989,* edited by S. Duguid. Burnaby, Canada: Simon Fraser University.

Abstract: Tests the hypothesis that training in social problem-solving skills reduces recidivism and criminal behavior in high risk young adult offenders. Underlying assumptions were: (1) Social problem-solving skills are associated with social competence. (2) Offenders are likely to manifest deficits in social problem-solving skills. (3) Social problem-solving skills mediate social competence and criminal behavior in offender groups. Eighteen subjects systematically chosen, divided into two equal groups, and tracked daily for fifteen months. Experimental group received problem-solving training, control group did not. Dependent variables measured were number of charges/arrests; number of good street, jail, AWOL, and recommitment days; prosocial street days; and State and county supervision/detention costs. Results support hypothesis that social problem-solving training can reduce recidivism and criminal behavior in high-risk youth. However, research points out that "train and hope" method of social skills training lacks necessary aspects of maintenance, generalization, and transfer of skill.

172. Larson, K.A. 1988a. "Remediating Social Problem-Solving Skills." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 39(2): 70–74.

Abstract: Researchers and practitioners identified social problem-solving skills that youthful offenders lack or use ineffectively. Curriculum entitled "Social Thinking Skills" systematically teaches social problem-solving. Uses nine-step approach in teaching social problem-solving skills: recognize a problem exists, stop and get ready to think, State problem and goals, get facts, make plans, pick the best, be prepared, take action, and check it out. Results suggest that training high-risk youth and young adults in social problem solving will increase social effectiveness, socially acceptable goal attainment, and prosocial behaviors.

173. Larson, K.A. 1988b. "A Review and Alternative Explanation of the Link Between Learning Disabilities and Delinquency." *Journal of Learning Disabilities.* 21(6): 357–363.

Abstract: Current hypotheses explaining link between learning disability and delinquency reviewed and evaluated. Alternative hypothesis suggests that ineffective social cognitive problem-solving skills increase risk for delinquency in learning disabled youth.

174. Larson, K.A., and M.M. Gerber. 1987. "Effects of Social Metacognitive Training for Enhancing Overt Behavior in Learning Disabled and Low Achieving Delinquents." *Exceptional Children.* 54(3): 201–211.

Abstract: Learning disabled and low-achieving incarcerated delinquents (16–19 years) assigned to social metacognitive training, attention control, or test-only control groups. Those given metacognitive training improved in rehabilitation achievement and other areas of social adjustment, with a greater proportion of the learning disabled subjects improving.

175. Laufenberg, R. 1987. "Positive Peer Culture: A Peer Group Approach to Behavior Change." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(4): 138–143.

Abstract: Positive Peer Culture (PPC) is based on peer group approach to behavior change. Assumes strongest influence on delinquent is that exerted by another delinquent. PPC programs help delinquents identify problems, see problems as opportunities to change, rather than something to be ashamed of, and teach students to accept responsibility for own behavior. Key to success of PPC is trained professional staff.

176. Laufer, W.S., and J.M. Day. 1983. *Personality Theory, Moral Development, and Criminal Behavior.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Abstract: Collection of papers by various researchers. Provides background and theoretical framework on relationship between moral, cognitive development and criminal behavior. Several papers deal with aspects of Kohlberg's theories and juvenile delinquency.

177. LeBlanc, L.A., and J.C. Pfannenstiel. 1991. *Unlocking Learning : Chapter 1 in Correctional Facilities. Final Report: National Study of the Chapter I Neglected or Delinquent Program.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.

Abstract: Final report of the ED funded national study of Chapter I programs in corrections. Study had five major objectives: (1) Collect information on characteristics of juvenile offenders, types of services provided by correctional institutions, and effects of programs. (2) Collect information on educational and support services provided by Chapter I N or D funding. (3) Gather information on State administration of such programs. (4) Describe and compare experiences of youth who did and did not receive Chapter I services. (5) Identify effective practices in Chapter I. Essential reading for correctional educators since report recommends improvements in Chapter I practices on Federal, State, and local institution levels. Note: Two other reports resulted from this national effort. See also: Rowe and Pfannenstiel (1991) and Tashjian, et al. (1991).

178. Leone, P.E. 1985. "Data-Based Instruction in Correctional Education." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 36(2): 77-85.

Abstract: Describes data-based instruction, an alternative to traditional teaching and assessment strategies in education. Data-based instruction is highly appropriate for correctional education programs where substantial number of students are deficient in basic academic and social skills. Data-based instruction allows students to become actively involved in charting and assuming responsibility for their progress.

179. Leone, P.E. 1993. "Education Services for Youths with Disabilities in a State-Operated Juvenile Correctional System: A Case Study and Analysis." *Journal of Special Education.* (In press).

Abstract: Describes and analyzes the findings from the review of the special education services in a State system of juvenile services, conducted as part of the "discovery" phase of a lawsuit. Study revealed grave deficiencies including delays in providing services to eligible children, an ineffective system for retrieving public school records, and a lack of related services. Study indicates that students with disabilities had a much higher number of infractions than their nondisabled peers. Those with mental health problems spent 33 percent of their time in confinement, those in special education 25 percent, as compared with 16 percent not in special education. As a result of study and class action lawsuit, improvements were made, including the hiring of a fulltime special education director and passing legislation creating a quasi-independent school district for the Department of Juvenile Services.

180. Leone, P.E. 1984. *Preservice and Inservice Training for Teachers of Incarcerated Handicapped Youth.* Paper presented at the Correctional/Special Education Training Conference, Arlington, VA.

Abstract: Identifies problems in delivering special education to handicapped inmates; describes corrections/special education training (C/SET) in Maryland and presents training recommendations based on recent survey of corrections educators. Maryland C/SET program provided college-based inservice training for corrections educators. 1984 survey of corrections educators attending a national conference identified perceived corrections training needs. Survey results are basis for recommendations for format and content of preservice and inservice training for corrections educators who work with mentally handicapped juveniles and adults.

181. Leone, P.E. 1983. "Teaching Learning Disabled Adolescents to Monitor Their Behavior." *Pointer.* 27(2): 14-17.

Abstract: States that LD students need to show more independence and take greater responsibility for own behavior. Outlined are ways to help students monitor behavior through self-assessment, self-recording, and self-reinforcement.

182. Leone, P.E. 1990. *Understanding Troubled and Troubling Youth.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Abstract: Includes chapters by different authors on troubled youth from person and problem-centered, social ecological, and structural and cultural perspectives. Includes articles on legal rights and procedural safeguards, prevalence of handicapping conditions, peer context, drug and alcohol abuse, teen age fathers, and changing school structures to better deal with these fathers.

183. Leone, P.E. 1986. "Teacher Training in Corrections and Special Education." *Remedial and Special Education.* 7(3): 41–47.

Abstract: Reports results of a survey of 34 State directors of special education and 51 State directors and coordinators of correctional education. Participants ranked knowledge of the criminal justice system, knowledge of correctional institutions, instructional methods, and classroom management as priorities for preservice training. Also, reviews problems associated with educating handicapped incarcerated youth. Describes inservice and preservice training programs developed by the College of Education at the University of Maryland for teachers working with handicapped inmates, discusses elements of training programs for teachers of incarcerated handicapped youth, and notes that development of professional competencies is not enough.

184. Leone, P.E., T. Price, and R.K. Vitolo. 1986. "Appropriate Education for All Incarcerated Youth: Meeting the Spirit of P.L. 94–142 in Youth Detention Facilities." *Remedial and Special Education.* 7(4): 9–14.

Abstract: Argues that problems associated with providing educational services to incarcerated handicapped youth will not be remedied until appropriate educational services are available to all adjudicated youth. Identify problems associated with providing services to handicapped youth which are related to: (1) governance and standards of correctional education programs, (2) mobility and prior educational experiences of incarcerated youth, (3) contact between correctional education program and public schools, and (4) funding of correctional education. The Los Angeles County Juvenile Court Schools have an innovative approach to meeting educational needs of all youth in detention. Standards set in L.A. allow correctional education programs to meet the needs of handicapped youth.

185. Leone, P.E., M.B. Walter, and E. Edgar. 1990. "Multidisciplinary Perspectives on the Transition of Troubled Youth to Community Settings: Results of a Delphi Survey." In *Transitional Services for Troubled Youth,* edited by B.I. Wolford, et al., p. 5–11. Richmond, KY: Eastern Kentucky University.

Abstract: Reports the results from a survey gauging: (1) the transition priorities; (2) directions of change within correctional agencies, communities, and interagency collaboration; and (3) the training needs identified by four groups—corrections, employment agency/education, social services, and "other". Survey highlights the needs for improving staff experiences, liaison with community, and staff salaries. Training needs identified include techniques for teaching independent living and vocational skills to youth, for managing severely behaviorally disordered youth, and for teaching decision making and problem solving skills.

186. Leone, P.E., R.B. Rutherford, and C.M. Nelson. 1991. *Special Education in Juvenile Corrections (Monograph).* Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

Abstract: Provides compact overview of Special Education in juvenile corrections. Provides good summaries on (1) incidence of handicapping conditions among juvenile offenders; (2) probable causes of their overrepresentation; (3) types of educational services offered special education students in a variety of correctional settings; (4) focus on "promising" practices such as functional assessments, curricula, and instruction; transition services and linkages; (5) future trends; and (6) training needs and development of teachers in corrections.

187. Lerman, P. 1990. "Deinstitutionalization of Youth in Trouble: Recent Trends and Policy Issues." In *Transitional Services for Troubled Youth,* edited by B.I. Wolford, et al., p. 22–26. Richmond, KY: Eastern Kentucky University.

Abstract: Reviews deinstitutionalization policy and activities since the 1960's and finds that institutionalization in corrections and mental health has increased for troubled youth. Only youth under the age of 12 and status offenders have been effectively deinstitutionalized. Other trends noted are the net gain in number of facilities, stable residents number, sharp decrease in length of stay, increase in number of admissions to long-term correctional facilities, sharp decrease in average size of institutions, more homogeneous population, fewer youth under 12, and expansion of private and for-profit institutions. Concludes with a discussion of policy implications.

188. Levine, D.U. 1982. "Successful Approaches for Improving Academic Achievement in Inner-City Elementary Schools." *Phi Delta Kappan.* 63(8): 523–526.

Abstract: Discusses two approaches to improving academic achievement—curriculum alignment and group-based, mastery-learning reading instruction.

189. Levine, D.U. 1990. "Update on Effective Schools: Findings and Implications from Research and Practice." *Journal of Negro Education.* 59(4): 577–584.

Abstract: Points out that characteristics of schools that have succeeded in becoming unusually effective for all students include insistence that all participants take responsibility for improvement, persistence in seeking to attain high standards, resiliency in moving forward despite obstacles and discouragements, and consistency in implementing coordinated and coherent programs to improve instruction.

190. Libler, R.W. 1992. "Effective Schools: The Role of the Central Office." *Contemporary Education.* 63(2): 121–124.

Abstract: Examines school district practices which affect student performance. Rather than central offices making decisions for individual schools, districts should provide a framework within which teachers and principals can participate in decision making. Discusses central office role in leadership, curriculum, personnel, budget, faculty development, student monitoring, and commitment.

191. Locke, T.P., et al. 1987. "Evaluation of a Juvenile Education in a State Penitentiary." *Evaluation Review*. 10(3): 281-298.

Abstract: Reviews controlled study on impact of a Juvenile Education Program (JEP) at Lansing State Penitentiary (Kansas). Program introduced juveniles to realities of prison life. Study designed to assess extent to which JEP would effect recidivism rates of juveniles and young adult offenders. Fifty-three juveniles on probation participated in initial data collection. Thirty-six completed followup evaluation. Self-reported or criminal offenses committed during premeasure and followup periods measured in experimental and control groups. No significant differences in mean number of offenses found between groups.

192. Los Angeles County Office of Education. 1992. "1991-1992 School Accountability Report Card Assessment Areas." Downing, CA: Author.

Abstract: Provides good overview of administration, cost, programs, and accomplishments of the Los Angeles County Juvenile Court and Community School system, which serves 5,000 each day at 48 school sites for delinquent, neglected, and abused children. Schools operate in the community (as Day Center Schools), at probation camps, and in juvenile halls. Besides high school subjects and GED preparations, programs include counseling, prevocational and vocational training (including fire fighting), arts (opera), Olympic style competitions, and work experience. More than 100 school-community partnerships have been developed with businesses contributing to a scholarship fund to assist students to pursue higher education. Program evaluations show typical student gain of two months for every month in program and improved behavior and attitude toward school. The Juvenile Court and Community School system operates as a fully accredited local education agency.

193. Mace-Matluck, B. 1987. *The Effective Schools Movement: Its History and Context: An SEDL Monograph*. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Lab.

Abstract: Traces development of the effective schools movement from its early beginning in 1960's. Examines major events of and influences on the movement; some key concepts, terms and definitions frequently encountered in the literature; and some of the important studies relevant to the movement.

194. Maddox, M., et al. 1984. "Transitioning Adjudicated Youth Back to Community Schools." *Journal of Correctional Education*. 35(4): 124-128.

Abstract: The University of Washington Networking and Evaluation Team (NET) worked with youth agencies to develop a transition model. Juvenile Corrections Transition Model contains over 40 strategies in four areas: awareness of other agency activities and missions; transfer of records when entering institution and leaving for local school; preplacement planning for transition before youth leaves; and maintaining placement in public school and ongoing communication.

195. Mallar, C., et al. 1982. *Evaluation of the Economic Impact on the Job Corps Program: Third Follow-Up Report*. Princeton, N.J.: Mathematics Policy Research.

Abstract: Presents data and findings on economic impact of Job Corps on its participants and analyses of program's benefits in relation to costs. Findings based on postprogram experience of individuals enrolled in the Job Corps in 1977 compared to a group of disadvantaged youth not in the program. Presents empirical findings on whether Job Corps is successful in increasing employment and earnings; improving future labor market opportunities through higher education, military training, and other human capital activities; reducing dependence on welfare assistance and other public transfers; and

reducing criminality among former Corps members. Study confirms that Job Corps has had a positive impact on participants and that economic benefits for society have exceeded program cost.

196. Manzella, L.A. 1991. Improving Basic Literacy Skills of Juvenile Delinquents Through Relevant Experiences. Ed.D. Practicum, Nova University.

Abstract: Describes practicum aimed at improving basic literacy skills of juvenile delinquents in a county jail by using relevant experiences as basis of learning. Two corollary aims were to increase number of GED's and prepare students to function in outside world. Outcomes of practicum were positive. Students produced original papers based on relevant experiences; six of seven students passed the GED; and data showed improvement in basic literacy skills. In addition, practicum demonstrated that students in correctional facilities can take responsibility for their own learning; literacy is based in culture and related through relevant experience; technology is a motivating factor in student learning; and peer tutoring is beneficial for tutors, tutees, and teachers.

197. Mathias, B., P. DeMuro, and R. Allinson, eds. 1984. *Violent Juvenile Offenders: An Anthology*. San Francisco: National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

Abstract: Individual chapters cover various aspects of violent juvenile offenders, including: extent and causes of violent juvenile crime, systems response to such offenders, treatment intervention models, and program descriptions. Anthology includes two chapters on correctional education. (For abstracts of these, see Bobal, and James and Granville.)

198. Mayer, E.E., and R.A. Hoffman. 1982. "A Comparison of the Effects of Individualized Instruction with Group Instruction on the Academic Achievement and Self-Concept of Youthful Offenders." *Journal of Correctional Education*. 33(4): 11-12.

Abstract: Experiment tested two aspects of the rehabilitative process, academic achievement and self-concept, in four juvenile correctional facilities in Florida. Examined differences between two instructional methods, individualized and group, on academic achievement and self-concept. Two facilities assigned new inmates to an individualized basic skills program, and two grouped inmates according to grade levels. A pre-test and post-test were given. Students in individualized program achieved higher than students in traditional setting in all academic areas. They also manifested higher self-concept scores. Overall raw score gains for students in individualized program in achievement was 42 raw score points. This represents 9 months gain in grade levels. Traditional group gained 21 raw score points, or 7 months in grade level. Individualized program was most effective in the area of reading.

199. McCold, P.E., and M.S. Satin. 1992. "Evaluation of Educational Services to DFY Youth." *Research Focus On Youth*. 3(1). New York: New York State Division for Youth; Bureau of Program Evaluation and Research.

Abstract: Evaluated effect of educational services provided to youth placed with DFY through analysis of pre- and post-service reading and math attainment. Test pairs collapsed into two groups: (1) youth who received all educational services from DFY operated programs, and (2) those who received some educational services in public schools. Results indicated that youth who come to DFY have educational

attainment levels considerably below that of general population. Scores indicated that youth in DFY care, whether services are provided by DFY or public schools, make gains in excess of those expected had youth been enrolled in unsupervised program. Youth who received all educational services from DFY operated programs did consistently better than those attending public school.

200. McCollum, H. 1990. "Instructional Strategies and Classroom Management." In *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom, Vol. II: Commissions Papers and Literature Review,* edited by M.S. Knapp, and P.M. Shields. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Washington, D.C.: Policy Studies Associates.

Abstract: Summary of Effective Schools research on instructional strategies and management. Stresses need for cognitive modeling, explicit teaching, cooperative and team learning arrangements, and negotiating academic demands. Provides listing of effective instructional strategies based on research. Indicates that research shows that prevention is key to classroom management and that strategies maximizing student engagement are keys to good classroom management.

201. McKnight, C.C. 1990. "Mathematics Education, the Disadvantaged, and Large-Scale Investigation: Assessment for Stability Versus Assessment for Change." In *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom, Vol II: Commissioned Papers and Literature Review,* edited by Knapp, M.S., and P.M. Shields. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Washington, D.C.: Policy Studies Associates.

Abstract: Article identifies current problems in mathematics instruction for disadvantaged youth and proposes changes in environment and "learning scenarios," contrasting what is current with what could be more effective in future. Outlines goals and expectations for mathematics instruction that must be shared among community, family, school, and classroom. Lists 24 criteria for effective mathematics instruction.

202. Means, B., C. Chelemer, and M. Knapp. 1992. *Teaching Advanced Skills to At-Risk Students: Views from Research and Practice.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Abstract: Collection of chapters by various authors reflect current thought about effective teaching for educationally disadvantaged students. Book designed for individuals who "design, administer, or implement education." First chapter summarizes the "rethinking" about teaching disadvantaged students with emphasis on new attitudes toward the learner, reshaping the curriculum, and applying new strategies. Six commissioned chapters introduce models for teaching mathematics, literacy, and writing. Includes chapter on "cognitive apprenticeships." Also includes guidelines for implementation of new models for teaching advanced skills.

203. Meltzer, L.J., M.D. Levine, W. Karniski, J.S. Palfrey, and S. Clarke. 1984. "An Analysis of the Learning Styles of Adolescent Delinquents." *Journal of Learning Disabilities.* 17(10): 600–608.

Abstract: Fifty-three delinquent adolescents and 51 junior high school students compared on basis of learning profiles. Devised educational battery to evaluate quality of learning style and error clusters in addition to traditional grade-equivalents. Significant differences found in type and prevalence of

multiple error clusters within each of eight educational skill areas and across eight combined skills. Early school records and parent questionnaires reviewed. Results indicated significantly higher prevalence of school problems among delinquents as early as kindergarten. By second grade, 45 percent of delinquents were already delayed in reading and 36 percent in handwriting, in contrast to only 14 percent of the comparison group. Prevalence of special education services recommended or provided over years was surveyed. Concluded that learning styles of delinquents may be qualitatively different and early learning difficulties may provide indicator of risk for later delinquency.

204. MESA Corporation. 1985. *Education in Correctional Settings. A Guide for Developing Quality Vocational and Adult Basic Education Programs.* Washington, D.C.: GPO.

Abstract: Identifies successful vocational education programs in correctional settings, and those which result from effective cooperative vocational arrangements. Purpose is to help correctional educators plan and develop effective programs. Included are two program descriptions of youth facilities: Mount View School in Colorado and Olomana School in Hawaii. At Mount View School, the Community Oriented Remotivation (COR) Workshop is the result of interagency agreement and resource sharing between Division of Mental Health and Division of Youth Services. Olomana School has extensive prevocational and vocational programs.

205. Mesinger, J. 1987. "Educateur Training as a Resource Model for Special/Correctional Educators." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(4): 154–159.

Abstract: Difficulties in obtaining effective correctional education teachers are compounded by high rate of attrition among special education teachers for the emotionally disturbed. Educateurs are both teachers and therapists and provide a potential solution to this problem. Educateurs attend instructional and practical training programs that are longer than conventional teacher training programs. Focus of training is to use modeling as a way to teach mature, healthy behaviors to deviant youth.

206. Michigan Department of Social Services Institutional Services Division. 1981. *Institutional Centers - Objectives and Progress - An Update of Evaluation, 1974 Through 1980.* Lansing, MI: Author.

Abstract: Evaluation of nine residential and rehabilitation centers for juvenile offenders ages 12 to 17 operated by Michigan Department of Social Services. Centers have achieved high rates of educational progress and reduction in truancy.

207. Middleton, T. 1987. "The Special Education Software Center." Paper presented at the Multi-State Special Education Technology Conference, Austin, Texas.

Abstract: Describes Special Education Software Center, funded by U.S. Department of Education. Objectives are to improve availability, quality, and use of special education software. Center activities and products include: providing users information about special education software which is available and appropriate; offering technical assistance in the development of software; and hosting an annual conference to discuss design and development issues, and explore ways to encourage production, distribution and use of special education software. Easy access through a toll-free (800) number or the Center's HelpNet. Leading users are teachers and administrators inquiring about software to assist in educating students with learning disabilities, mentally retarded students, and the physically, vision, or

hearing impaired. Content areas include language arts, math, speech and language programs, and administrative software.

208. Miles, J.F. 1993. *A Descriptive Analysis of Correctional Education Funding in State Juvenile Agencies.* Master's Thesis, Eastern Kentucky University.

Abstract: Based on survey of 33 State agencies. Respondents derived 15.5 percent of funding from Federal sources; 83.7 percent from State; 0.7 percent from other. States with correctional school districts (45.1 percent of respondents) received more Federal funding, had experienced greater budget cuts, and spent in the medium range ($1001 to $2000 per pupil).

209. Miller, D., and R. Carrington. 1989. "Teaching Women's Literature to Adolescent Female Offenders." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 40(1): 6-9.

Abstract: Purpose of study was to investigate benefits of teaching women's literature to adolescent female offenders. Reading grade levels of girls ranged from 5.0 to post-high school, average at 8.6. Two pretests administered. The Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale, "The Way I Feel About Myself", provided data on the self-concepts. The Developmental Inventory of Feminine Values provided information on girls' perceptions of themselves as women. Significant difference found between pre- and post-test scores of Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale. No significant difference found between DIFV pre- and post-test scores. Authors believe specific needs of female offenders have been neglected, and women's literature should be a part of total curriculum for it is strong force in effecting positive changes in attitude and self-concept.

210. Moll, L.C. 1990. "Social and Instructional Issues in Educating 'Disadvantaged' Students." In *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom, Vol. II: Commissioned Papers and Literature Review,* edited by M.S. Knapp, and P.M. Shields.Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Washington, D.C.: Policy Studies Associates.

Abstract: Summarizes research showing that current instructional practices seriously underestimate capabilities of children from disadvantaged and minority communities. Shows that teachers need further training in cultures of these children, making students' experiences and interest focus of their learning. Recommends focus on literacy in terms of comprehension and integrated in all classroom tasks, daily writing activities, conscious examination of own and others' writings, rich content in materials. Strongly recommends against watering down curricula as "degrading and disrespectful to the children."

211. Montgomery, D. 1987. "SEED Curriculum (Social, Emotional, Educational Development). *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(1): 12-20.

Abstract: SEED curriculum focuses on learning following skills: self-control, appropriate behavioral interactions, social communication skills, social problem-solving, and goal setting and planning. Courses contained in SEED curriculum include: Personal Development, Work Assistance, Communication, and Life Skills. Students progress at own pace following specifically designed activities in a structured learning environment.

212. Moran, P.M. 1991. "Special Education and Transition Services in a Detention Center School." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 42(3): 152–158.

Abstract: Describes a transition model for identifying special education students at the county detention center in Seattle, Washington. Twenty-six percent of the individuals admitted had attended local public school and were special education students, a proportion three times that found in local public secondary schools overall. Severely behaviorally disabled students were found in proportions 13 times as large, learning disabled students in proportions almost 3 times as large, and mildly mentally retarded students in proportions almost 2 times as large.

213. Morford, J.A. 1987. "Effective Leadership: Research and Theory." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(2): 42–46.

Abstract: Describes key findings about which recent theorists and researchers agree: (1) the centrality of values to leadership, (2) the importance of an articulated goal or vision, (3) the necessity for disagreement and conflict in effective leadership, (4) the personal traits and styles of effective leaders, and (5) the critical interplay of these traits and styles with the leadership situation. Five lessons from these findings are applied to today's educational leaders.

214. Morgan, R.L., S. Gray Eagle, E. Esser, and W.M. Roth. 1993. "Moral Reasoning in Adjudicated Youth Residing at a Boys' Ranch." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 44(2): 62–66.

Abstract: Presents research with thirty-eight boys, ages 11-17, to determine their level of moral reasoning as compared to nondelinquent youths as related to a number of demographic factors. Each youth was tested with the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised and by their reasoning behind a specific moral action through the use of nine moral stories developed by Lee, based on Kohlberg's theories. Found evaluation of possible relationships between and among the demographic factors "unrevealing". Generally, youths were found to operate on the "preconventional level", the lowest level on Kohlberg's scale, indicating delays in moral development with focus on self and reliance on authority figures in moral reasoning.

215. Murray, L. 1987. "Seeking Commitment Through Teacher Involvement." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(2): 50–52.

Abstract. Discusses ways of dealing with teacher absenteeism in corrections. The Windham School, Texas Department of Corrections, found that its teachers used 227 percent more sick leave on average than their public school counterparts. Pooling teachers for their suggestions, the Windham system established the following policies to reduce sick leave use: (1) Teachers were allowed a "floating" week vacation in addition to the two scheduled weeks of vacation. (2) Teachers were allowed two personal days off per year with no strings attached, with an additional day as a reward for perfect attendance. (3) A "wellness program" was instituted. (4) Sick leave was regularly monitored and persons taking a lot were counseled.

216. National Academy of Corrections. 1991. "Competency Profile of Correctional Educator." Boulder, CO: Author.

Abstract: Developed through the DACUM process by a panel of correctional instructors, this profile covers the generic duties and tasks of teaching staff within a facility. It delineates the traits and attitudes, knowledge and skills, tools and equipment essential for correctional teachers. Although developed primarily for adult corrections, the profile is equally relevant in juvenile corrections. This is an indispensable tool in developing a position description or searching for an appropriate candidate for such a position.

217. National Academy of Corrections. 1990. "Competency Profile of Education Director Correctional Facility/Facilities." Boulder, CO: Author.

Abstract: Developed through the DACUM process by a panel of correctional education facility principals/directors, this profile covers the specific duties and tasks of the chief correctional education position within a facility or shared among several facilities. It delineates the traits, attitudes, knowledge, skills, tools; and equipment essential for this position. Although developed primarily for adult corrections, the profile is equally relevant in juvenile corrections. This is an indispensable tool in developing a position description or searching for an appropriate candidate for such a position.

218. National Academy of Corrections. 1990. "Competency Profile of State Director of Correctional Education." Boulder, CO: Author.

Abstract: Developed through the DACUM process by a panel of correctional education administrators, this profile covers the specific duties and tasks of the chief correctional education position on the State, systemwide level. Also delineates the traits and attitudes, knowledge and skills, and tools and equipment essential for this position. Although developed primarily for adult corrections, the profile is equally relevant in juvenile corrections. This is an indispensable tool in developing a position description or searching for an appropriate candidate for such a position.

219. National Alliance of Business, Inc. 1983. *Bottom Line Benefits: Increasing Profits through Targeted Tax and Job Training Incentives: A Handbook for Business.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Explains benefits and incentives provided by the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit (TJTC) and the JTPA and shows how businesses can take advantage of them. Explains how businesses can put TJTC to work. Tax savings are detailed: nine target groups defined; appropriate regulations explained. Explains how JTPA works on local level. Describes JTPA-sponsored activities that can benefit a business. On-the-job training (OJT) discussed in terms of setting up program, recruiting and screening candidates, developing training plan, and completing the OJT contract.

220. National Alliance of Business, Inc. 1982. *Explanation and Analysis of the Job Training Partnership Act of 1982.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Publication provides an overview of the 1982 JTPA legislation and how it is to be implemented. JTPA of 1982 continues long-standing Federal commitment to help disadvantaged persons prepare for employment. Legislation works primarily through a locally based program delivery

system to provide remedial education, training, and employment assistance to low-income and long-term unemployed youth and adults. Key feature of the JTPA is promoting equal roles for both public and private sectors in all aspects of programs set up under the act. Another is making both sectors partners in determining how funds are administered and programs managed at local level.

221. National Commission on Excellence in Education. 1983. *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.

Abstract: Challenging report on decline of American public education. Shocked nation with findings on massive adult illiteracy, decline in test scores and achievements, lack of job readiness as compared with other developed countries, and "risks" to this nation if decline is permitted to continue. Recommendations include: (1) call for back-to-basics in high school; (2) more rigorous standards for colleges as well as raised admission requirements; (3) increased time in elementary and secondary schools; (4) higher standards for teaching profession coupled with better salaries; (5) demand more accountability from school boards and administrators.

222. National Committee for Citizens in Education. 1991. *An ACCESS Printout on School Based Improvement and Effective Schools: A Perfect Match for Bottom-Up Reform.* Columbia, MD: Author.

Abstract: Outlines school-based management and improvement concepts, the effective schools connection, the Dade County (Florida) experience, and ten common pitfalls. Presents four-part annotated bibliography of effective-schools and school-based management literature. Effective-schools sections contain 12 magazine and journal articles and 14 reports, studies, and books by various experts. School-based management sections contain 20 magazine and journal articles and 21 reports, studies, and books by organizations and individual authors.

223. National Committee for Citizens in Education. 1990. *School Based Management and Effective Schools: A Perfect Match for Bottom-Up Reform. An ACCESS Printout.* Columbia, MD: Author.

Abstract: Presents research on school-based management approaches to educational reform, including effective schools research. Included are an introductory section on school-based improvement and link to effective schools, by Anne T. Henderson; descriptive summaries of 53 references; list of organizations to contact for further information; and two-page list of audio-visual materials on effective school and resources. Research is divided into two topics: effective schools and school-based management.

224. National Governors' Association. 1991. *Kids in Trouble: Coordinating Social and Correctional Service Systems for Youth.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Brief description of the Community Intensive Treatment for Youth Program (C.I.T.Y.) in Alabama, selected by the NGA as an innovative State program. Program provides intensive day treatment services, including education, to youth on probation. Represents creative linkages and partnerships. Funded by JTPA and the Alabama Department of Youth Services. Administered by the West Central Alabama Skill Center, which is under the auspices of the Alabama SEA. Buildings, utilities, lunch, and transportation are provided by the local school districts. Internally collected data

show an average of four months gain for each month in program. Program participants show an 85 percent drop in commitment to State institutions.

225. National Institute of Justice. *Aids and Youth (Topical Search).* (No Date.) Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Topical search identifies and abstracts 30 documents on AIDS in relation to needs of youth. Topics covered include education programs for in-school youths, policies and procedures for juvenile detention facilities, pediatric AIDS, outreach and other types of services. Lists materials suitable for AIDS education in juvenile corrections.

226. National Youth Employment Coalition. 1991. *JTPA and High-Risk Youth: A Guide to Successful Employment & Training Programs.* New York: Author.

Abstract: Presents activities, practices, problems, and solutions relating to developing, conducting, and reviewing youth employment programs. Manual uses key element approach and presents detailed information about fifteen elements in four functional areas: obtaining and retaining clients, preparing clients for employment and helping them obtain and retain employment, labor market, and program support and implementation. Contains instructions on how to use the key element approach and descriptions of fourteen youth employment programs.

227. Nelson, C.M., and R.B. Rutherford. 1990. "Troubled Youth in the Public School." In *Understanding Troubled and Troubling Youth,* edited by P.E. Leone. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Abstract: Argues that the distinction made in Federal law between "seriously emotionally disturbed" (SED) and "socially maladjusted" is artificial and detrimental to at-risk children in the public schools. According to P.L. 94-142, SED's are entitled to Special Education; the socially maladjusted are not. Authors argue that "social maladjustment" is a "handicapping condition", since it tends to lead to school failure, school dropout, and delinquency. Authors recommend that: (1) schools adopt better procedures for identifying and serving students at risk for emotional or behavioral difficulties early in their school career; (2) Federal law be amended to include the socially maladjusted under the definition of SED and among those entitled to Special Education; (3) better standards be developed for the identification, assessment, and service delivery for behaviorally disordered children. They believe that this may prevent further delinquency.

228. Nelson, C.M., R.B. Rutherford, and B.I. Wolford., eds. 1987. *Special Education in the Criminal Justice System.* Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company.

Abstract: Provides background information on juvenile and adult justice systems, processes, correctional education, and offender training opportunities. Discusses handicapped offender population, its special needs, and legislation and litigation regarding the provision of special education in correctional settings. Provides information on identification, incidence, characteristics, assessment, and programming for mentally retarded, learning disabled, and behaviorally disordered offenders. Functional evaluation and specific assessments are outlined. Examples are provided for functional, prevocational, and social curricula. Transition programs are described. Documents necessary

professional skills and competencies of the special educator in corrections. Vignettes provide case study information, personal perspectives, and program descriptions.

229. Newmann, F.M., et al. 1991. *National Center on Effective Secondary Schools: Final Report on OERI Grant No. G-008690007.* Madison, WI: Wisconsin Center for Educational Research.

Abstract: Presents findings of six projects conducted by National Center on Effective Secondary Schools. Center's mission is to improve academic achievement of all students, focusing on disadvantaged and less successful. Relevant project is, "Research on Programs and Policies To Serve At-Risk Students," which studies special programs and community interventions to improve achievement and engagement of at-risk students.

230. New York State Education Department. 1983. *Job Training Partnership Act: Implications for Education.* Albany, NY: Author.

Abstract: Information provided for educators concerning the JTPA. Discussion of governance structure at State and local levels, which has three primary components: service delivery area, private industry council, and job training plan. Attention given to Federal and State funding. Also covered are performance standards for youth and adult programs and eligibility requirements. Estimated timetable for JTPA included. Appendixes contain overviews of 17 current programs congruent with goals of JTPA.

231. Niles, W.J. 1986. "Effects of a Moral Development Discussion Group on Delinquent and Predelinquent Boys." *Journal of Counseling Psychology.* 33(1): 45-51.

Abstract: Research conducted in a school servicing an institutionalized delinquent and predelinquent population and in a day school program servicing a similar but noninstitutionalized population. Moral discussion group process compared with placebo group that received a values clarification program (similar to moral discussion group approach), and a no treatment control group. Results indicated that moral discussion group had significant impact on moral reasoning ability of delinquent and predelinquent adolescents as compared with placebo group and control group. Findings also indicated that gains in moral reasoning do not necessarily lead to improved classroom behaviors.

232. Norkunas, R., and J.E. Knable. 1987. "The Maryland Prospective Principals Internship Program." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(2): 58-59.

Abstract: Describes an innovative staff development program for correctional educators aspiring to become the principal of a correctional school. Provides overview of program, historical background, evaluation of the internships, and placement within the agency after completion. Candidates received intensive leadership training in an institute setting. Interns were then assigned to principals who served as coaches. Retreats reinforced learning and created networks. Interns also developed professional action plans. Program was positively evaluated, and five of the six trainees have since become principals in the Maryland correctional system.

233. Northwest Educational Cooperative. 1990. *Hospitality Occupational Skills Training Cooperative: Project HOST: Final Report.* Des Plaines, IL: Author.

Abstract: Project HOST (Hospitality Occupational Skills Training) provided vocational training and employment opportunities in the hotel industry to disadvantaged adult minority populations in Chicago. Demonstrated a model for successful cooperation between the business sector and a public vocational education agency and developed and piloted a vocational training curriculum that integrated basic, critical thinking, and on-the-job coping skills.

234. Northwest Regional Educational Lab. 1990. *School Improvement Research Series IV, 1989–1990.* Portland, OR: Author.

Abstract: Contains research syntheses and six research-based articles on effective schooling practices, educational time factors, expectations and student outcomes, teaching questioning skills, improving student attitude and behavior, teaching and assessing writing skills, and staff development to improve student writing.

235. Northwest Regional Educational Lab. 1991. *School Improvement Research Series V, 1990–1991.* Portland, OR: Author.

Abstract: Contains seven research-based articles on school improvement, summarizing research on educating urban minority youth. Discusses discipline and monitoring student progress, and describes four programs for improving elementary school mathematics and reading instruction.

236. Norton, L., and B. Simms. 1988. *The State of Correctional Education in the United States.* Ohio State University: The National Center for Research in Vocational Education.

Abstract: Reports results of a survey, with 49 percent response, of the State directors of correctional education. Found GED test preparation to be the only educational program offered across all types of correctional systems. Juvenile correctional systems spent much more per inmate than adult systems. Ninety-seven percent of all correctional educators were full-time employees. The average starting salary for a correctional teacher is $19,667 for twelve months. Juvenile correctional systems provided Chapter 1 and secondary academic programs at 80 percent or more of their institutions.

237. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. 1990. "Education in the Law: Promoting Citizenship in the Schools." *A Juvenile Justice Bulletin.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Provides an overview of Law Related Education (LRE) which has been funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) since 1978. Settings for LRE vary, but the philosophy is constant to actively involve youth in exercises which will enlighten them on the law. Listed are 5 organizations concerned with education in citizenship and the American legal system which participate in LRE programs: The American Bar Association, the Center for Civic Education, the Constitutional Rights Foundation, the National Institute for Citizen Education in the Law, and the Phi Alpha Delta Public Service Center. LRE was active in 43 States in 1990. OJJDP's goal for the 1990's is to make LRE as basic a requirement as reading, mathematics, or english.

238. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. 1992. *Juvenile Alcohol and Other Drug Abuse: A Guide to Federal Initiatives for Prevention, Treatment, and Control.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Provides information on promising programs, training and technical assistance, publications, and clearinghouses. Includes information on drug education curricula, programs, and instructional methods.

239. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. 1988. "A Private-Sector Corrections Program for Juveniles: Paint Creek Youth Center." *A Juvenile Justice Bulletin.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Describes how Paint Creek Youth Center was established, its treatment program, program costs, and preliminary evaluation results. Uses a positive peer community approach and a point-and-level system for immediate reinforcement. School program is provided by local school district. Work is stressed through the on site Freedom Factory, an employment and training center that hires youth and pays them a weekly salary. Portion of salary goes for restitution and court-ordered costs. Also includes drug and alcohol treatment and life skills training. Early results show positive outcomes.

240. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services. 1992. *Summary of Existing Legislation Affecting People with Disabilities.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.

Abstract: Provides up-to-date summaries of Federal legislation impacting people with disabilities. Covers areas of education, employment, health, housing, income maintenance, nutrition, rights, social services, transportation, and vocational rehabilitation. Summarizes legislation relevant to correctional education, e.g., ADA, IDEA, Carl D. Perkins Act, JTPA, Higher Education Act, ECIA (Chapter I), Library Services and Construction Act, and others.

241. Office of Vocational and Adult Education. 1985. *Guide to Law - Related Education.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.

Abstract: Law Related Education (LRE) is intended to support development of educated citizenry that understands and participates effectively in democratic system of government by providing knowledge and skills pertaining to the law, legal system, legal process, and underlying principles and values. Describes what LRE can do for youth. Included are final regulations providing funding for LRE programs and results of study indicating that LRE serves as deterrent to delinquent behavior among youth.

242. Office of Vocational and Adult Education/Corrections Program. *Building Partnerships for Excellence in Correctional Education Proceedings of a National Conference on Correctional Education - October 21-23, 1985, Arlington, Virginia.* 1985. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.

Abstract: Presents major addresses, panel presentations, and workshop abstracts from the 1985 National Conference on Correctional Education, whose goal was to develop cooperation among

correctional educators, Federal agencies, professional organizations, and private sector in addressing juvenile and adult offender education needs.

243. Ohio State Council on Vocational Education. 1991. *The Eight Percent Dividend: Exemplary JTPA/Vocational Education "Eight Percent" Projects.* Westerville, OH: Author.

Abstract: Reviews national literature on 8 percent JTPA programs and discusses Ohio's State Education Coordination and Grants Advisory Council (SECGAC). Notes that SECGAC has developed and publicized consistent policy regarding how 8 percent funds should and should not be used. Contains brief sketches of 19 exemplary programs in three groups corresponding to the three paths along which Ohio allocates money: 80 percent by formula to the 30 JTPA service delivery agencies for long-term training; 20 percent of that 80 percent to 4 State departments to help institutionalized people make the transition to the world of work; and remaining 20 percent as seed money for linkage and coordination activities. Recommends that other States copy Ohio's example and that Federal government do less in such programs in terms of regulations.

244. Oliver, J. 1990. "Exemplary Computer-Assisted Instructional Programs: Al Maresh Memorial Award Finalists." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 41(2): 96–102.

Abstract: Describes five program finalists for Al Maresh Memorial Award, given each year to an exemplary computer-assisted (CAI) correctional education program. Two programs of described. Main focus of McLaughlin Macintosh Project is to increase language arts skills, acquire working knowledge of computer literacy, learn graphic art techniques, gain opportunities through on-the-job training, and provide service to community. PAWS is CAI made up of Principle of Alphabet Literacy System (PALS) and Wasatch Education System Program. PALS is a multisensory computer program which provides literacy and life skills training to Chapter 1 students.

245. Opalack, N. 1988. "Dispelling the Myth: Juvenile Offenders Do Return to Educational/Vocational Programs Post-Incarceration." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 39(3): 126–128.

Abstract: Many young offenders leaving juvenile institutions do not receive specialized and intensive supports needed to reestablish themselves in appropriate community programs. Few offenders reconnect with educational/vocational programs. In Washington, D.C. a team of educational specialists provided educational assistance for youth returning to community post-incarceration. Educators note that more than 50 percent of referred youth are responsive to individualized services as evidenced by improved stability and attendance within appropriate community-based educational vocational placements.

246. Oregon State Department of Education. 1986. *At-Risk Youth Planning Document for the State Board of Education and the Oregon Department of Education.* Salem, OR: Author.

Abstract: Provides direction for development of cohesive State policy and plan for State of Oregon regarding services for at-risk youth. Also intended to serve as guide for school districts, community colleges, State agencies, and communities in further development and improvement of programs for at-risk youth. Eight proposals for action to serve at-risk youth discussed, and plan is given for each

proposal: (1) increase public awareness and cooperative efforts; (2) work with factors outside schools; (3) develop reporting procedures for schools; (4) report promising practices; (5) encourage local programs; (6) develop alternative programs; (7) develop programs for parent education and parenting skills; and (8) provide educator training. Section II focuses on State agency plans and budgeting. Summary of existing department resources for at-risk youth is included.

247. Orlich, D. 1989. "Education Reforms: Mistakes, Misconceptions, Miscues." *Phi Delta Kappan.* 70(7): 512-517.

Abstract: Mentions several school reform agendas in past, such as "A Nation At Risk," and "A Nation Prepared." Many reforms have been cosmetic and intrinsically inferior. Most reform is political and short-lasting. Suggests a new concept—local system analysis in which each local school district systematically studies its own culture and then implements a carefully researched, well coordinated, and well funded plan for specific improvements.

248. Ornstein, A.C. 1990. "School Size and Effectiveness: Policy Implications." *Urban Review.* 22(3): 239-245.

Abstract: Reviews debate during this century over optimal size for an individual school in terms of efficiency and student outcomes. Current consensus correlates small schools with school effectiveness, community and school identity, and individual fulfillment and participation, and large schools with school inefficiency, institutional bureaucracy, and personal loneliness.

249. Pasternack, R., and R. Lyon. 1982. "Clinical and Empirical Identification of Learning Disabled Juvenile Delinquents." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 33(2): 7-13.

Abstract: Identified LD subjects on basis of adherence to specific definitional components, including manifestation of average to above average intelligence, exhibiting discrepancy between intellectual ability and academic achievement, manifesting disorders in one or more of basic psychological processes, and evidence of learning problems attributed to environmental disadvantage. Each subject completed diagnostic battery of nine psychometric instruments. Results do not support contention that most juvenile delinquents exhibit learning disabilities. Four distinct delinquent subgroups identified through clinical and empirical processes refute contention that juvenile delinquents are relatively homogenous group. Results indicated no significant difference between prevalence of LD's in sample and in New Mexico public school population when age was held constant.

250. Pasternack, R., R. Portillos, and H. Hoff. 1988. "Providing an Appropriate Education to Adjudicated and Incarcerated Juvenile Delinquents: The Challenge to Correctional Education Administrators." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 39(4): 154-158.

Abstract: Since juvenile delinquents are a heterogeneous group with differing academic and vocational needs, appropriate educational programming must offer continuum of services designed to meet these needs. First step is developing a diagnostic classroom and then determining appropriate educational programs available at correctional facility. Correctional education administrators must ensure integration of academic and vocational instruction. At the New Mexico Boys School four academically distinct subgroups have been identified: delinquent nonhandicapped, learning disabled, behaviorally disordered, and mentally handicapped. Obstacles to providing appropriate educational programming

discussed, as well as incentives to providing appropriate educational programming. Programs must assist juvenile delinquents to make maximum amount of academic progress possible, since data shows these students do not return to public schools when released.

251. Pasternack, R., et al. (No Date). *Resiliency: The Next Dimension: A Curriculum to Promote Positive Lives for Our Children.* Santa Fe, NM: New Mexico State Department of Education.

Abstract: Research-based curriculum to enable at-risk youth to develop skills and knowledge they need to overcome negative factors. Curriculum proposal provides three levels for addressing "resiliency": integrating resiliency objectives through slight modifications in current curriculum, using classroom strategies and styles to enable students to achieve these objectives, and integrating ideas into schoolwide restructuring plans. Resiliency curriculum includes skills and understanding related to autonomy, self-esteem, cognition and problem solving, social interactions and communication, moral and spiritual values and understanding. Sample lesson plans for integrating resiliency objectives into subject areas are included.

252. Pavlak, M.F. 1983. "Developing a Career Guidance Program for Delinquent Youth." *Journal of Career Education.* 10(2): 111-120.

Abstract: Describes development and implementation of a career guidance program for delinquent youth in residential treatment settings. Uses an individualized career guidance plan and staff of agency to serve as career guidance facilitators. Purpose is to help youth to acquire knowledge of personal strengths and weaknesses, interests and values; use career exploratory resources to gain information about work world; learn and apply decision-making process; acquire behaviors necessary to work cooperatively with others; develop skills necessary for specific occupations; and acquire behaviors needed to search for, and maintain a job. Program is flexible enough to be adapted to any placement site's treatment processes, such as token economy or behavioral contracting.

253. Perlmutter, B. 1987. "Delinquency and Learning Disabilities: Evidence for Compensatory Behaviors and Adaptation." *Journal of Youth and Adolescence.* 16: 89-95.

Abstract: Suggests most learning disabled children and adolescents have ability to adapt through developing skills that allow them to compensate for handicapping conditions. If this is so, delinquency would be a function of interaction between learning difficulties and inability to develop compensatory skills, rather than function of early learning problems. If in fact adaptability and usefulness to society of learning disabled adolescents and adults depend on their developing compensatory skills as children, then additional focus must be directed toward examining these needs.

254. Peterson, D.L., and D.A. Williams. 1990. "PALS: An Advanced Technology Literacy Experiment with Delinquent Youth." Paper presented at the Rural Education Symposium of the American Council on Rural Special Education, Tucson, AZ.

Abstract: Principle of the Alphabet Literacy System (PALS) was used along with the IBM InforWindow system in reading instruction for juvenile delinquents experiencing academic difficulties. PALS lessons teach phonemic spelling and are constructed around fable that dramatized power of written word. Most students referred to project were junior high males with below grade level

achievement and low self-concept. Fifty-six students who completed twenty-week training averaged gains of 1.2 grade levels in reading comprehension and phonics skills. Most significant reading comprehension gains were made by students who were most at-risk academically. While PALS was not markedly successful with all students, it did have a positive and dramatic impact on about 30 percent of participants.

255. Petti, T.A., and M.K. Healy. 1987. "Pilot Study Surveying the Educational Needs of Delinquent Adolescents." *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry.* 26(4): 574–577.

Abstract: Perceived health, mental health, and education needs of incarcerated juvenile delinquents explored in 1981 and 1982 surveys of juvenile delinquents and their counselors. Results used to develop educational programs and formats. Drug and alcohol, education and training, and self-control and adaptive behavior showed highest mean scores for juveniles. Juveniles and counselors did not differ significantly in perceptions of needs.

256. Phyfer, G.M., and A.L. Peaton. 1981. "Practical Individualized Approaches to the Education and Treatment of Juvenile Offenders." In *American Correctional Association Proceedings, 1981*, edited by B.H. Olsson, and A. Dargis, 118–122. Laurel, MD: American Correctional Association.

Abstract: Describes four individualized programs for juvenile offenders, developed by Alabama Department of Youth Services: (1) A joint diagnostic center/teacher IEP and individual instructional program for Special Education students. (2) Project FREE BIRD, which was developed in conjunction with Auburn University, trains institutional teaching staff to provide educational services to these youth and to develop teacher interpersonal communications skills. (3) A pilot program providing evaluation, education, vocational skills development, placement, and followup. A planning, research, and staff development component support the project. (4) A community-based prison awareness project with seventeen counties participating. Project allows judges and probation officers to send youth on tours of State prisons to talk with selected inmates. The program can be used as a diversion alternative, a form of court disposition, or as a probation requirement.

257. Piliavin, I., and S. Masters. 1981. *The Impact of Employment Programs on Offenders, Addicts, and Problem Youth: Implications from Supported Work.* Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin.

Abstract: Evaluation of impact of Federal "supported work" program on delinquent youths showed that there was little effect on young delinquents' post-program employment or on their criminal activity during or after participation in the program. However, among adult offenders and drug addicts, there was a tendency toward increased employment and reduced crime. The results of this experiment thus suggest that older disadvantaged workers, including those who are known offenders, may be much more responsive to the opportunity to participate in employment programs than those who are younger.

258. Platt, J.S. 1986. "Vocational Education in Corrections: A Piece of the Bigger Pie." *Remedial and Special Education.* 7(3): 48–55.

Abstract: Estimates that 28 to 42 percent of incarcerated youths are handicapped. The high percentages of handicapped youth and exoffenders found among the unemployed call for sound vocational training programs in youth correctional facilities. These must include evaluation of the juvenile's vocational abilities and interests, development of an individualized program of skill buildout for each student, and an integrated delivery system which provides systematic transition from the institution to more advanced vocational training or to the world of work.

259. Platt, J.S., and L. Clark. 1987. "Correctional Administrators: Are You and Your Clients Getting Your Piece of the Pie?" *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(2): 77–83.

Abstract: P.L. 89–313 is a formula grant program that assists in transition of handicapped students from institutions back to community. P. L. 99–178 and P. L. 99–177 are Chapter I grants designed to meet needs of disadvantaged children, and the Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act authorizes use of Federal monies to support programs for handicapped. Examples of appropriate use of funds are to purchase materials, supplies, and equipment; to hire specialists to coordinate the identification, assessment, and placement process; and to support work of vocational specialists, aides, and paraprofessionals.

260. Platt, J.S., and W. Wienke. 1984. "The Development of an Effective Institutional Level and Individualized Inservice Program for Correctional Educators: A Personalized Selection and Evaluation System." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 35(1): 23–30.

Abstract: Argues that in the absence of good preservice for correctional teachers, inservice training is critical. Best training occurs when participants assist in planning, are responsible for portions of the instruction, and acquire immediately applicable skills. Authors offer a systematic method to identify skills vital to the profession and to develop an individualized inservice plan. Recommends that the Nominal Group Technique be used to identify skills and the Q-Sort Technique to identify priorities. From these, each potential trainee develops an Individual Personnel Training Plan (IPTP) assisted by the inservice coordinator. Article also discusses evaluation of individual and agency personnel training.

261. Platt, J.S., W.D. Wienke, and R.H. Tunick. 1982. "Need for Training in Special Education for Correctional Educators." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 32(4): 8–12.

Abstract: To meet needs of inmates, educators should have knowledge of educational, vocational, and psychological characteristics of handicapped learners. Preservice training programs to produce skills in correctional education and special education are necessary. Inservice programs which are carefully structured, planned, and documented are also needed.

262. Platt, J.S., J. Clements, J.M. Platt, and R. Alexander. 1988. "Self-Charting as a Technique to Increase Independence in Pre-Delinquent and Delinquent Youth." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 39(1): 12–15.

Abstract: Argues that prisons tend to reinforce prisoners' dependencies, a condition that makes it difficult for them to take positive charge of their lives once they leave prison. States it is responsibility

of correctional educators to provide inmates with skills that will enable them to take responsibility for their lives. To test whether cognitive self-management techniques can modify social behavior, authors studied 50 delinquent and predelinquent adolescents who were being treated at a mental health center, 44 males and 6 females. Group instructed in self-charting, a method that enabled adolescents to identify those aspects of behavior that they thought needed modification. Self-charting appears to be successful behavior change procedure. As people become aware of behavior and develop a way to monitor it, they become more responsible and independent.

263. Price, T., and K. Swanson. 1990. "Creating a Vision in Correctional Education." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 41(1): 4–6.

Abstract: Vision establishes direction and becomes force in drive to develop a strategic plan. Strategic plan guides educational program and allows organization and individuals within it to begin to move forward in a planned, organized fashion. Four steps in vision development are: creating a vision, communicating a vision, involving staff in vision implementation, and evaluating effectiveness of implementation. Vision should be future-oriented, inspirational, and rich in imagery. It also needs to be in touch with: business you're in, what motivates people, and culture and tradition.

264. Public/Private Ventures. 1989. *Teaching Life Skills in Context.* Philadelphia, PA: Author.

Abstract: Argues that adolescent childbearing and school dropout are known to be closely related phenomena with serious economic, social, and health repercussions for adolescent parents and their children, as well as implications for the national economy and work force. The Summer Training and Education Program (STEP) provides life planning courses. STEP is designed to address teen parenting, issues in an employment and training context. Instruction in reading, mathematics, sexual development, and responsible social behavior combined with summer work experience and critical support during the academic year. Important component of STEP is Life Skills and Opportunities (LSO) curriculum, for which underlying values and rationale, participation information, and a table of contents are presented.

265. Reingold and Associates, Inc. 1989. *Compendium of Successful Pre-Employment/Work Maturity Youth Employment Competency Systems: a Compilation of Resources, Samples and Examples for Program Practitioners: Volumes I–II, Appendices.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Contains descriptions of youth employment systems developed by local Service Delivery Area (SDA's) and Private Industry Councils (PIC's) to help disadvantaged youth under the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA). Designed for use by program practitioners, document explains context for current program requirements; clarifies what is mandatory versus what is discretionary; provides samples, models or alternative approaches to various elements of a system; and provides resource listings that SDA's can use to gather additional information. Volume I contains description of Youth Employment Competency Systems and explanation of why they are essential, description of seven elements of a sufficiently developed system, and 11 performance-based preemployment/work maturity core competencies and relationships among them. Volume II contains compilation of resources, samples, and examples from SDA's and PIC's around the country; seventeen-item annotated bibliography and resource listing; JTPA annual status report forms and reporting instructions; and a glossary.

266. Reis, R., and P.E. Leone. 1985. "Teaching Text Lookbacks to Mildly Handicapped Students." *Journal of Reading.* February, 1985: 416–419.

Abstract: Discusses strategies for teaching text lookbacks to mildly handicapped students who have difficulty remembering what they have read. Presents specific activities for teaching text lookback skills and how to determine if text lookback instruction will benefit the student.

267. Reiter, M. 1982. *School Achievement and Juvenile Delinquency: A Review of the Literature.*

Abstract: Reviews research investigating relationship between delinquency and school achievement. Finds 42 percent of population in juvenile correctional institutions handicapped as described in P.L. 94-142. Lower incidence of delinquency is found with individuals who participate in extracurricular activities. Evidence shows that social class variables are causal in nature, and children having certain class characteristics and identified as learning disabled should be considered high-risk for delinquency. Lower academic achievement, particularly in area of reading, has been associated with delinquent behavior. Lag in neurological development and deficiencies in attention span are evident in students with antisocial disorders, and youth who have low success rate are very vulnerable to delinquent behavior. Proposed educational solutions include observing caution to avoid labeling children with academic deficiencies as "predelinquent", exploring creative potential of delinquent youth, and augmenting traditional content-ladened lectures with additional visual stimuli.

268. Renchler, R. 1991. "Leadership with a Vision: How Principals Develop and Implement Their Visions for School Success." *OSSC Bulletin.* 34(5).

Abstract: Explores theoretical models of vision for school success and leadership forces in education. Discusses principals as visionary leaders. Offers practical advice on developing, implementing, and maintaining a vision for a school and leader's role in shaping a positive school culture. Also explored are definitions of successful school and relationship between principal's personal values, vision, and school culture. Profiles emphasize programs and strategies that define or promote schools' visions for success. Programs in school climate, cooperative environment, staff empowerment, result measurement, restructuring, cooperative learning, grade reporting, homeroom programs, at-risk students, talented and gifted students, writing, math, and study skills are included.

269. Richey, D.D. and T.W. Willis. 1982. "Improving Education for Handicapped, Incarcerated Youth: Priority Setting and Problem Identification by Front-Line Staff During Inservice Training." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 32(4): 27–30.

Abstract: Describes use of front-line staff at five residential correctional institutions and one classification unit for juveniles in order to identify major problems hindering efforts to meet educational needs of handicapped, incarcerated youth.

270. Rider-Hankins, P. 1992. "Review of the Research: The Educational Process in Juvenile Correctional Schools." Paper published by the American Bar Association, Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship. Chicago, IL: American Bar Association.

Abstract: Review of articles published since 1980. Contains brief analytical review of literature, list of organizations and clearinghouses, definitions, and a bibliography of referenced literature.

271. Rincker, J., T. Reilly, and S. Braaten. 1990. "Academic and Intellectual Characteristics of Adolescent Juvenile Offenders." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 41(3): 124–131.

Abstract: Factors related to delinquency have been identified and described, including demographic, behavioral, and scholastic achievement. Two specific factors have surfaced as potentially significant: educational environment of adolescent delinquent and academic demands made on the adolescent within this environment. Purpose of study was to investigate intellectual and achievement characteristics of adolescent juvenile offenders and implications for educational programming. Significant correlations found were: (1) the poorer a child's performance in school the more likely he/she is to become delinquent; (2) sample population showed underachievement level of four years with blacks having lowest achievement in reading comprehension and hispanic males lowest level in arithmetic comprehension. Intelligence scores found to have hover around low average and are not significantly related to adjudication. Schools are apparently contributing to delinquency problem by continuing to provide traditional programming, though it has failed repeatedly. Over half (52 percent) appeared to be eligible for, but not receiving, special or remedial educational services.

272. Roberts, A.R. 1986. "National Survey and Assessment of Sixty-Six Treatment Programs for Juvenile Offenders; Model Programs and Pseudomodels." In *Juvenile Justice: Policies, Programs, and Services,* edited by Roberts, A.R., 299–307. Chicago,Il: Dorsey Press.

Abstract: Reports on a national survey of 66 juvenile justice programs. Includes data on average annual cost of 11 types of programs, total number of youths completing each program, programs' duration, and reasons given by juvenile justice administrators for viewing their respective programs as worthy of replication by other agencies. Only 5 of the 66 respondents had conducted evaluative research on effectiveness of their programs. Concludes with suggestions for planning and implementing both quasi-experimental and longitudinal research.

273. Roberts, R. 1982. "The Professional Development of Correctional Educators." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 33(1): 20–21.

Abstract: Discusses plan developed by Oklahoma Department of Corrections to increase development of correctional educators. Director of Education hired in central office to provide leadership and coordination of Statewide educators.

274. Roberts, R., and Bullock, L.M. 1987. *Critical Skills of Correctional Education Personnel: A Survey of Perceived Needs, Final Research Report.* Rockville, MD: National Institute of Justice.

Abstract: Reports results from survey of educators in youth correctional facilities, State administrators of youth corrections, and college and university faculty in preservice teacher preparation programs for

correctional educators. Purpose of survey to identify the critical skills required of correctional educators. Recommends emphasis on Federal legislative guidelines for the education of incarcerated youth; development of the educator's skills in communication and interaction with facility administrators, parents, and local community agencies; and inclusion of vocational/career development and transitional programs in correctional settings.

275. Rominger, D.A. 1990. "Study in Vocational Program in a Correctional Setting." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 41(4): 168–172.

Abstract: Pictorial Interest Exploration Survey (PIES) was used to evaluate interests of juveniles to develop guide for planning appropriate vocational programs. The PIES test is visual. Juveniles view slides showing people working in different occupations and select those which most interest them. Results collected showed that construction and industrial production ranked high among males, and office occupations were high for females. Further discusses how to meet those interests in a correctional institution and their marketability in today's job market.

276. Ross, R.R. 1990. "Time to Think: A Cognitive Model of Offender Rehabilitation and Delinquency Prevention." Ottawa, Canada: University of Ottawa.

Abstract: Brief summary of sequential research over eighteen years. First stages included study of effectiveness of various interventions, isolating common components in effective programs to include emphasis on cognition. Further research determined evidence of delays in acquisition of cognitive skills among offenders. Combining best techniques from programs found effective, an experimental program was developed with emphasis on self-control, meta-cognition, social skills, interpersonal problems, creative thinking, critical reasoning, social perspective-taking, values enhancement, emotional management, helper therapy, and victim awareness. Followup research revealed drastic drops in recidivism rates.

277. Ross, R.R., and E. Fabiano. 1983. "The Cognitive Model of Crime and Delinquency Prevention and Rehabilitation: Assessment Procedures." Ontario, Canada: Ministry of Correctional Services.

Abstract: Introduces cognitive model and its theoretical framework. Discusses strategies and instruments for cognitive assessment. Summarizes a number of specific cognitive intervention programs and techniques found to be effective. Includes extensive list of references in cognitive field.

278. Ross, R.R., and B.D. Ross. 1989. "Delinquency Prevention Through Cognitive Training." *Educational Horizons.* 67(4): 124–130.

Abstract: Describes research on link between cognitive deficits and delinquency, its etiology and strategies for curative interventions. Describes a model for a school-based cognitive skills program with focus on decisionmaking, communication, conflict resolution, values, increasing attendance, decreasing disruption, suspension, violence, and vandalism.

279. Ross, R.R., E. Fabiano, and R.Ross. 1988. "(Re)Habilitation Through Education: A Cognitive Model for Corrections." *Journal of Correctional Education*. 39(2): 44–47.

Abstract: Found that effective programs view offender's behavior as consequence of a variety of social, economic, situational, cognitive, and behavioral factors, rather than assuming criminal behavior is symptom of some disease. Program component common to almost all successful programs is any technique which would influence the offender's thinking. Four decades of research reveal that many offenders lack necessary cognitive skills. Cognitive deficits seem to put individuals at risk of developing a criminal lifestyle. Effective programs emphasize following techniques: self-analysis, self-control training, means-end reasoning, critical thinking, and cognitive problem solving. Concludes that cognitive model of corrections is far more effective than medical schools, humane containment, deterrence or punishment models, or justice models.

280. Roth, H., and C. Nicholson. 1990. "Differences in Learning Styles Between Successfully and Unsuccessfully Mainstreamed Violent and Assaultive Youth." *Journal of Correctional Education*. 41(3): 134–137.

Abstract. Purpose of research was to examine relationship between learning styles of violent and assaultive youth and their success or failure in being mainstreamed into public schools. The Detroit Tests of Learning Aptitude (DTLA) was used to assess student's learning style. Results showed significant difference between successfully and unsuccessfully mainstreamed subjects. Students successfully mainstreamed tend to have better verbal skills. By being aware of differences in verbal ability between the two groups, special educators can select activities which increase a student's chances to be successfully mainstreamed. Suggests consideration of verbal skills as risk factor for mainstreaming violent and assaultive youth.

281. Roush, D.W. 1983. "Content and Process of Detention Education." *Journal of Offender Counseling, Services, and Rehabilitation*. 7(3–4): 21–36.

Abstract: Provides a model for juvenile detention education programming.

282. Rowe, B., and J.C. Pfannenstiel. 1991. *Unlocking Learning: Chapter 1 In Correctional Facilities: Effective Practices Study Findings: National Study of the Chapter I Neglected or Delinquent Program*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.

Abstract: For practitioners, the most important of the three volumes of the Federal, national study of Chapter I. After review of relevant literature, main focus is on identification of effective education practices for Chapter I students. A number of effective practices are described in areas of administration, funding, staffing, assessment, curriculum, teaching methods, classroom environment, transitional services, and support services. Case studies are included to illustrate these practices. Information crucial and not limited to Chapter I.

283. Rubenstein, F.D. 1991. "Facility-Wide Approach to Social Skills Training." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 42(2): 88–93.

Abstract: Describes the results of two social skills programs developed for integration into the curriculum of a Maryland facility for committed and detained youths. Short-term goals of the programs were to teach prosocial skills to youth and train staff in counseling and supervision techniques. Long-term goals were to give students skills and motivation to retain jobs upon their release, maintain successful relationships, and reduce recidivism. Rate of success in meeting short term goals was measured through staff rating of students, student self-ratings, and staff self-ratings. Results indicate that participation in the social skills training programs led to significant positive behavior modification in students, increased staff competence and confidence, and enhanced teamwork among staff.

284. Rutherford, R.B. 1988. "Correctional Special Education." *Teaching Exceptional Children.* 20(4): 52–54

Abstract: Identifies a set of six "best practices" in correctional special education: (1) functional assessments of skills and learning needs of handicapped offenders; (2) functional curriculum including academic, social, and daily living skills; (3) vocational special education; (4) transition procedures; (5) comprehensive system for providing institutional and community services to handicapped offenders; and (6) correctional special education training for educators.

285. Rutherford, R.B., and J.W. Maag. 1988. *Monograph in Behavioral Disorders: Severe Behavior Disorders of Children and Youth.* Reston, VA.: The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders.

Abstract: Although monograph contains only one piece exclusively on correctional clients, it is useful to special educator in corrections. Seventeen articles by various authors deal with severe behavior disorders in youth covering: assessment and diagnosis, social skills, depression and suicide, autism, intervention, and teacher training.

286. Rutherford, R.B., J.T. Behrens, and K. Fejes. 1987. "Preventive Programs for Adjudicated or Incarcerated Youth." *Teaching Exceptional Children.* Summer, 1987: 58–61.

Abstract: Discusses two model programs aimed at preventing juveniles in early stages of delinquency from progressing to more serious crimes. The Westbank Educational Center in Jefferson County, Louisiana, is a day treatment program for adjudicated juveniles with special needs. It includes vocational counseling and assessment, behavior counseling, and family therapy. Statistics based on 139 students show that 72 percent committed no new offenses. The Juvenile Corrections Interagency Transition Model was developed in Washington State to help local school districts integrate youth back into public schools after their release from correctional facilities. Model consists of more than 40 "cookbook" recipes for dealing with problems related to this transition. Not yet fully evaluated, the program indicates success from a small sample.

287. Rutherford, R.B., et al. 1986. "Special Education Programming in Juvenile Corrections." *Remedial and Special Education.* 7(3): 27–33.

Abstract: Data includes number of handicapped students served, number and types of teachers and psychologists, correctional education programs offered, and special education services available. Although quality and quantity of special education programming for handicapped juvenile offenders have increased in recent years, such education has not been uniformly realized.

288. Rutherford, R.B., C.M. Nelson, and B.I. Wolford. 1985. "Special Education in the Most Restrictive Environment: Correctional/Special Education." *Journal of Special Education.* 19: 59–71.

Abstract: Analysis of results from 1984 survey of State departments of corrections and education and summarizes components of correctional special education. 28 percent of incarcerated juveniles were reported handicapped with 23 percent receiving special education services. 34 percent juvenile corrections systems receive funding under P.L. 94–142. Components essential for effective correctional special education programs include: functional assessments of the skills and learning needs of handicapped offenders, a curriculum that teaches functional academic and living skills, vocational special education, and transitional programs that facilitate moving from correctional programs to community living. Other important components are: a comprehensive system of institutional and community services for handicapped offenders and inservice and preservice training in special education for correctional educators.

289. Rutherford, R.B., C.M. Nelson, and B.I. Wolford, eds. 1983. *Correctional/Special Education Training Project: Teacher Training Modules.* Tempe, AZ: Arizona State University.

Abstract: Developed as part of a national training program for correctional special education teachers, these eight modules were prepared by a number of experts and cover following areas: (1) correctional education/criminal justice system, (2) characteristics of exceptional populations, (3) overview of special education, (4) overview of P.L. 94–142, (5) assessment of exceptional individuals, (6) curriculum for exceptional individuals, (7) instructional methods and strategies, and (8) vocational special education. Modules can be used for self-study as well as for group instruction with trainer. Only fourth module, on P.L. 94–142, is out of date due to changes in Federal legislation in new version known as IDEA (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act).

290. Rutter, M., et al. 1979. *Fifteen Thousand Hours: Secondary Schools and Their Effects on Children.* Cambridge, MA.: Harvard University Press.

Abstract: Based on extensive research in England, study shows how schools as a social institution influence behavior and attainments of children. Research shows how schools can foster good behavior and attainments in the disadvantaged. Common factors in successful schools are: high expectations and standards, teacher role models, positive feedback, consistency of school values and norms, and responsibility expected from kids. Shows that delinquency is less when lower level children stayed in regular classes.

291. Safer, D.J., et al. 1982. *School Programs for Disruptive Adolescents.* Baltimore, MD: University Park Press.

Abstract: Focus on nature of disruptive youth and variety of in-school as well as alternative interventions. Topics include: management strategies and prevention programs. Many techniques and strategies described are relevant to correctional classrooms. Describes a successful dayschool program for delinquent youths in Maryland.

292. Saint Cloud State University. *An Analysis of the Organizational Characteristics of the Minnesota Educational Effectiveness Program. The Minnesota Educational Effectiveness Program Research and Development Project.* 1991. Saint Cloud, MN: Author.

Abstract: In 1984 Minnesota Educational Effectiveness Program (MEEP) operationalized a school improvement model based on 15 research-referenced characteristics (6 instructional and 9 organizational) of effective schools. MEEP now serves more than 50 percent of Minnesota schools. Report contains overview, reviews of three types of organizations, and summary chapter including conclusions and recommendations regarding the organizational characteristics of effective organizations.

293. Sawyer, R. 1989. *Learning Behind Bars: Selected Educational Programs From Juvenile, Jail, and Prison Facilities.* College Park, MD: Correctional Education Association.

Abstract: Describes ten effective juvenile correctional education programs. Programs range in length of stay and size. Average age is 15. Each program profile includes curriculum, type of facility, students served annually, average student age, staff and contact person.

294. Schlossman, S., J. Spillan, and W.N. Grubb. 1992. *Bright Hopes, Dim Realities: Vocational Innovation In American Correctional Education.* Berkeley, CA.: University of California.

Abstract: Provides historical perspective on correctional vocational education in America and its implications for reform in the 1990's. Detailed analyses of work of Brockway, Osborne, McCormick. Study argues that correctional vocational education has suffered from two extremes in recent years: (1) those who look toward using prison labor for its monetary value rather than from its training value; and (2) those who have stressed inmates' pathology, rather than lack of education and training, as prime problem and focused on therapy rather than education. Considers 1930's in New York corrections a high point for correctional vocational education when prison officials were willing to follow leads from the outside in educational reform. Believes that corrections has been severed from broader professional, education community. Argues for small scale, carefully designed and evaluated experimental studies to show "what works" to legislators and policy makers before massive investment in further correctional vocational training.

295. Schorr, L.B. 1988. *Within Our Reach: Breaking the Cycle of Disadvantage.* New York: Doubleday.

Abstract: Argues that the knowledge to reduce damage to children growing up in poverty is available yet seldom utilized. Studies effective programs and policies in areas of health (including teenage

pregnancy, prenatal care), education, and family support. Study shows programs most effective for disadvantaged children and families typically offer broad spectrum of services; cross traditional, professional, and bureaucratic boundaries; are flexible, easy to use, coherent; and offered by people who care for and respect their clients. Chapter on schools summarizes shortcomings of current system and earlier educational reforms. Stresses findings of Effective Schools research as significant guidelines for improving schools for children of poverty.

296. Schwartz, G.M., and K.A. Lewis. 1987. "Effective Special Education Information Is Critical." *Corrections Today.* 49(3): 26-30.

Abstract: Based on 1985 study finding poor cooperation between public schools and juvenile corrections, the George Washington University researchers recommend: (1) routine contact with incarcerated juveniles' public schools and timely transmission of public school educational records; (2) recruitment of educators with special education skills for teaching handicapped delinquents; (3) a prerelease planning team of correctional education and public school personnel to exchange information and records and make appropriate placements; and (4) correctional education/public school liaison to coordinate services between the systems.

297. Scott, J. 1980. "A Training Model for Correctional Educators." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 31(2): 4-7.

Abstract: Proposes a two year college training program for correctional educators with the objectives: (1) Develop experience-based program to prepare students for field. (2) Use interdisciplinary and specialized approach. (3) Expose trainees to functioning of the criminal justice system. (4) Create relationships among correctional settings, colleges and universities.

298. Scruggs, T.E., M.A. Mastropieri, and L. Richter. 1985. "Peer Tutoring with Behaviorally Disordered Students: Social and Academic Benefits." *Journal of Behavior Disorders.* 10: 283-294.

Abstract: Reviews available literature of peer tutoring programs involving behaviorally disordered students. Many different methodologies, strategies, and measures to support effectiveness of programs were found. General conclusions of effectiveness are: (1) Students almost always gain knowledge of the content being taught. 2) Peer tutors often gain academically. (3) Both student and tutor benefit socially from their interactions.

299. Seager, A.J., S.J. Roberts, and C.Z. Lincoln. 1987. *Check This Out: Library Program Model.* Hampton, New Hampshire: RMC Research Corporation.

Abstract: Includes section on "Services to Special Populations - Institutionalized." Institutionalized persons defined as those in jails, prisons, mental health facilities, juvenile homes, etc. Eleven areas of criteria are provided, covering audience, needs, goals and objectives, cooperation, staff, advisory group, methodology, collection, access, confidentiality, and evaluation.

300. Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills. 1992. *Learning a Living: A Blueprint for High Performance.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor.

Abstract: Final report of SCANS. Presents five recommendations, including: (1) That all school systems make the SCANS competencies and foundations explicit objectives of instruction at all levels; (2) That all students are assessed and provided with a resume documenting attainment of the SCANS knowhow; and (3) That all employers incorporate the SCANS knowhow in their resource development efforts. Provides examples of how this can be done. Recommends restructuring of schools and shows differences between the "conventional" and "SCANS" classrooms. Provides examples of how the SCANS knowhow can be integrated into core curriculum areas (English, Math, Science, Social Studies, History). Recommends ways that workplaces can be reorganized for high performance.

301. Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills. 1993. *Teaching the SCANS Competencies.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor.

Abstract: Includes six articles with practical suggestions for applying SCANS in classrooms and workplaces. "Implementing SCANS: First Lessons" highlights ten projects to strengthen school work linkages. "Students Use SCANS to Explore Changing Jobs: Lessons of IndiansPLUS" describes project in which students assessed skill requirements in local workplaces and shared their findings with younger students. "Preparing Limited English Proficiency Students for the Workplace" provides practical advice for teachers who assist immigrant children in language and acculturation. "Technology and High-Performance Schools: A SCANS Survey" specifies what schools would buy if they had $1,000 to spend on computers. "Assessment of the SCANS Competencies: Some Examples" reviews approaches to assessing how well the SCANS competencies are taught and learned.

302. Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills. 1991. *What Work Requires of Schools.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor.

Abstract: The first of several SCANS reports defines the "Five Competencies" and "A Three-Part Foundation" the commission believes all students must acquire prior to graduating high school in order to be ready to enter a job on a career ladder and with real possibilities for decent pay and advancement in the workplace. The competencies are summarized under the headings: Resources, Interpersonal, Information, Systems, and Technology. The foundation consists of Basic Skills, Thinking Skills, and Personal Qualities. Report emphasizes the need to incorporate these in all subjects and all levels of school, the need to restructure schools to meet the SCANS goals, national assessments of SCANS knowhow in grades 8 to 12, and teaching strategies emphasizing knowledge application and problem solving.

303. Sedlak, R.A., and D.J. Stephenson. 1987. "Correlates of Excellence in School Leadership: Implications for Correctional Education." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(2): 53–56.

Abstract: Summarizes four elements relating to effective educational leadership: (1) goals (clearly defined mission Statement); (2) staffing (recruiting quality personnel), (3) environment (manage learning time, maintain order, define curriculum, determine proper class size and organization), and (4) motivation and reinforcement. These four areas are a framework within which an effective program can be built. Research literature from effective schools support these elements.

304. Shann, M.H. 1990. ***Making Schools More Effective: Indicators for Improvement.*** **Boston: Boston University.**

Abstract: Study of four urban middle schools in Boston serving 1,600 students, mostly from low-income minority families, to assess urban public school effectiveness. Study resulted in creation and validation of indicators that schools can use to assess their climates, set policies for reform, and choose strategies based on research. Most effective schools combined emphasis on academic learning with an ethic of caring. Clarity of purpose and positive relationships among teachers were mirrored in higher levels of student achievement, higher rates of prosocial behaviors among students, and lower incidences of antisocial behaviors. Teachers who reported more frequent use of direct teaching and student-led small groups with teacher supervision had students with significantly higher levels of achievement in reading, mathematics, and problem solving. Teachers who reported more frequent use of workbooks and other individual assignments had students with significantly lower levels of achievement.

305. Shirley, L., et al. 1992. ***The Sourcebook: A Revised, Refined and Reliable Compilation of Organizations, Corporations, and Foundations Which Fund Programs and Activities for At-Risk Youth.*** **Clemson, SC: National Dropout Prevention Center.**

Abstract: Describes sources of funding for programs for at-risk youth. Includes strategies for obtaining funding.

306. Simon, D.J., A. Vetter-Zemitzsch, and J.C. Johnston. 1985. "On Campus: Systematic/Behavioral Interventions for Behaviorally Disordered Adolescents." ***Behavioral Disorders.*** **10(3): 183-190.**

Abstract: Describes systematic/behavioral intervention strategies employed in a behavior program called "On Campus" program. Program evaluation data reviewed for attendance, academic credits, and success in mainstreaming. Statistically significant gains were shown. Initial post-high school followup data showed more continued education, higher employment, and less legal problems for graduates.

307. Skonovd, N. 1986. ***Regional Youth Educational Facility: An Evaluation of a Short-Term Intensive Program for Juvenile Court Wards Piloted by the San Bernadino County Probation Department.*** **Sacramento, CA: California Department of the Youth Authority.**

Abstract: Results of evaluation indicate the program was implemented as mandated by legislation. Provides sentencing alternative for juvenile courts of the region. Provides intensive, short-term educational experience that includes competency based education services, assessment for learning disabilities, treatment, remedial individual educational plans for those with diagnosed learning disability, electronic and computer education, physical education, vocational and industrial arts and training, job training and experience, character education, and victim awareness.

308. Slavin, R.E., N.L. Karweit, and N.A. Madden, eds. 1989. *Effective Programs for Students At Risk.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Abstract: Study of effective programs and practices for at-risk students (defined as those unlikely to complete high school). Covers effective Chapter I and Special Education programs. Reviews recent research. Although correctional education is not included, many of the findings are relevant to correctional environments, e.g., discussions on instructional setting, activities, and teaching strategies.

309. Smith, B.J., B.A. Ramirez, and R.B. Rutherford. 1983. "Special Education in Youth Correctional Facilities." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 34(4): 108-112.

Abstract: Special and correctional educators are aware of the special education needs of children, youth, and adults in correctional settings. In addition, State compulsory school attendance laws are generally binding on correctional facilities. Yet, few handicapped offenders receive special education services. Outlines difficulties in correctional service delivery, e.g., short stays, lack of staff, difficulty in involving parents, insufficient budgets. Recommends that efforts to improve special education opportunities for incarcerated youths focus on three areas: courts and the probation process, correctional institutions, and the development of appropriate State and Federal policies. Other needed actions are dissemination of information, curriculum development, development of training materials, and formation of coalitions to influence funding.

310. Smith, D. 1983. "Certification vs. Education in Correctional Schools: A Major Problem and It's Solution." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 34(3): 99-100.

Abstract: Discusses decline in GED test standards and thus ease of certification. GED measures basic survival skills and is no indication of an individuals preparation for society. Argues for core curriculum which would provide foundation from which inmates could successfully pursue value-oriented education prior to taking the GED.

311. Smith, G.A. 1988. *Adjustment Before Learning: The Curricular Dilemma in Programs for At-Risk Youth.* Madison, WI: National Center on Effective Secondary Schools.

Abstract: Argues that programs for at-risk youth tend to overemphasize student adjustment and mastery of institutional customs at expense of instilling learning dispositions that might lead to postsecondary educational training leading to employment. Aim of many dropout prevention programs tends to be limited to high school graduation and inculcation of behaviors valued in nonmanagerial employees. This orientation to education is unpractical in an economy where jobs that pay a livable wage require some advanced training. Programs for at-risk youth must prepare students for necessity of that training and help them acquire skills, dispositions, and independence.

312. Smykla, J.O., and T.W. Willis. 1981. "The Incidence of Learning Disabilities and Mental Retardation in Youth Under the Jurisdiction of the Juvenile Court." *Journal of Criminal Justice.* 9: 219-225.

Abstract: Examines incidence rates of learning disabled and mentally retarded youth among three groups of youth under jurisdiction of juvenile court: institutionalized delinquents, nonconfined

delinquents, and status offenders. Chi-square statistic indicated no significant differences with respect to presence of either learning disabilities or mental retardation among the three groups.

313. Snedeker, B., et al. 1985. *The PIC Youth Primer: Improving JTPA Programs for Youth.* Washington, D.C.: National Alliance of Business, Inc.

Abstract: This guide for Private Industry Council (PIC) officers, members, and staff is written to assist in planning and overseeing effective programs for youth at risk in the local labor market using resources allocated under the JTPA. Focuses on what the PIC can do to upgrade quality of JTPA youth programming. Describes key functions of the PIC and incorporates suggestions for improvement in the following areas: building a knowledge base, defining goals and strategic priorities, coordinating resources, setting target group enrollment objectives, setting cost-outcome objectives, establishing competency standards, selecting service deliverers, contracting for results, and overseeing and evaluating youth programs.

314. Spaniol, P., and K. Cleberg. 1990. "Winners Circle: A Career Approach to Reaching Troubled Youth." In *Transition Services for Troubled Youth,* edited by B.I. Wolford, et al., p. 51-53. Richmond, KY: Eastern Kentucky University.

Abstract: Describes a court oriented diversion program to assist troubled school dropouts by enhancing academic and employment skills. Consists of four components: Assessment, basic education, employability skills, and motivation and counseling. Success was defined as becoming employed, entering vocational school or college, and completing 20 JTPA employability competencies with at least 80 percent. Education and employability competencies were met by 81 percent. Computer-assisted instruction found to be an effective component as was shadowing work experience.

315. Spence, S.H., and J.S. Marziller. 1981. "Social Skills Training with Adolescent Male Offenders II: Short Term, Long Term and Generalized Effects." *Behavioral Research and Therapy.* 19: 349-368.

Abstract: Seventy-six male offenders attending a Community Home School were randomly assigned to social skills training (SST) incorporating training in basic and more complex interpersonal skills, attention placebo (APC), and no treatment control (NTC) groups. Changes in specific social skills were monitored in SST group using multiple baseline design. Results showed SST led to definite improvements in some, but not all, basic skills, and that improvements were maintained at 3-month followup. In a between groups design, SST was significantly superior to APC and NTC groups on performance of basic skills at posttest. Although SST group reported significantly less social problems on social problems questionnaire after training, there was no evidence that SST was differentially more effective than comparison groups based on staff questionnaire of social problems, and independent ratings of social skills, friendliness, anxiety and employability, social workers' ratings of work, school and family relationships, self-reported offending, and police convictions. Implications of findings discussed both in terms of current research into SST and treatment of delinquency.

316. Spill, R. 1986. *A Systems Approach to Youth Employment Competencies.* Washington, D.C.: National Alliance of Business, Inc.

Abstract: Intended to assist local providers of the JTPA youth employment training in responding to new Department of Labor reporting definitions calling for a "sufficiently developed youth employment competency system." Provides detailed discussions of the following items encompassed by that concept: youth employment competencies; assessment and evaluation; employability development plans; curricula, training modules, and behavior modification approaches; certification; and documentation. Appendix materials include youth employment competencies that have been delineated by various States, sample forms, lists of objectives, program descriptions, competency Statements, learning activities, and lesson plans from various JTPA programs.

317. Steiger, J.C., and D.R. Guthmann, eds. 1985. *Education as Rehabilitation for Juvenile Offenders - A Review of the Literature.* Olympia, WA.: Washington State Department of Social and Health Services Division of Juvenile Rehabilitation.

Abstract: Notes that juveniles who achieve academic success are less likely to be delinquent, and poor school performance leads to dropping out of school and subsequent increase in delinquency. Reviews of school-based prevention and treatment programs reveal absence of controlled research studies. Promising approaches are group therapy in combination with remedial reading, short-term remedial reading programs based on behavioral modification principles, and individualized instruction in conjunction with a reinforcement schedule. Recommended alternative education approaches use individualized instruction, clear rewards contingent on effort and proficiency, goal-oriented work, small school size, caring and competent teachers, and low student-teacher ratio.

318. Strumpf, L., et al. 1989. "Improving Workplace Skills: Lessons from JTPA." Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Partnership for Training and Employment Careers, Phoenix, AZ.

Abstract: Focus on job training programs funded by the JTPA including youth remediation programs. Describes criterion-referenced tests used to determine who is at risk because of work-related skill deficiencies. Uses three levels of employability: preemployability, nearly employable, or employable. JTPA clients are placed into one of these levels based on assessment results and are provided with the specific services designed to meet the needs of that level. Recommendations made to determine eligibility levels and functional skills based on the local job market. Appendix provides information on the Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment System, on which the assessment tools are based.

319. Stumphauzer, J.S. 1985. "Institution Programs: Social Learning in Juvenile Corrections." *Child and Youth Services.* 8(1): 81–90.

Abstract: From social learning perspective, there are two major problems with use of institutionalization for changing delinquent behavior: (1) youths are removed from natural environment to which they must learn to adapt, and (2) youth are exposed to delinquent peers who will further shape and encourage their antisocial behavior through modeling, initiation, and reinforcement. Some social learning approaches to juvenile corrections use *token* reinforcement in which youths are given tokens for good behavior; Some use a phase level system in which youths earned their way through

levels by meeting specified criteria. Social learning also stresses youth involvement in their own learning process. Teenagers are more likely to change and be less resistent if they have some say in their program.

320. Stumphauzer, J.S. 1985. "Occupational Skills Training: Finding a Job and Learning to Work." *Child and Youth Services.* 8(1): 161-170.

Abstract: Discusses social learning approach to employment skills training for delinquents. One vocationally oriented psychotherapeutic program for delinquents reported long-term success in decreasing delinquency. It not only taught delinquent youth "how to work", but shaped their employers' behavior as well. Employment skills can be taught to delinquent youth, and a social learning approach remains promising approach to delinquency treatment and prevention.

321. Suerken, R.P., T. Gehring, and J.C. Stewart. 1987. "Special Bulletin: How to Establish a Correctional School District." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 38(2): 84-90.

Abstract: After delineating some advantages of correctional school districts (better funding, staff, standards), describes strategies to establish a correctional school district. These include: (1) Establishment of sound relationship with State Education Agency; (2) Review of State constitution; (3) Review of enabling legislation from other States; (4) Determination of location in government; (5) Determination of type of school board; (6) Determination of type of superintendency; (7) Review of funding procedures; and (8) Determination of special school district's rights, responsibilities, and authority. Authors recommend the following as fundamental components of the correctional school district legislation: undisputed jurisdiction over students residing in correctional facilities; full authority over curriculum, budget, and personnel; access to State and Federal sources on a par with LEAs; and adherence to all mandated standards, subject only to legal exemptions in cases where there is no applicability in the correctional environment.

322. Sutherland, D. and G. Schwartz-DuPree. 1986. "Federally Supported Correctional Special Education Personnel Training Programs. *Journal of Correctional Education.* 37(4): 162-164.

Abstract: Purpose of article is to disseminate information about a Federal grant program which provides support for training of correctional/special educators. Survey of 85 State Departments of Corrections and 50 State Departments of Education conducted in 1984 indicated an estimated 28 percent of juveniles incarcerated in State correctional facilities were handicapped, but only 23 percent were reported receiving special education services. An example of training programs with Federal support is the "Adjudicated Youth Special Education Program: An MA Level Training Program" at George Washington University, Washington, D.C. Program designed to prepare highly trained and qualified personnel to meet needs of handicapped adjudicated youth through course work and field experiences which enhance and expand special education skills.

323. Sutton, J.P., and K.S. Whittier. 1989. "Transition Programs in Juvenile Corrections." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 40(4): 162-165.

Abstract: Discussion of findings from nationwide survey of transition programs for juveniles conducted in 1987. Four areas were probed: goals, key components, information on persons who operated

programs, and students served. Three major types of goals reported: educational, social, and vocational. Survey indicated that both handicapped and nonhandicapped offenders of all ages were served. 82 percent of States having programs indicated that no data were available on number of students who were transitioned, and 89 percent failed to maintain students' post-placement status over time.

324. Swanstrom, W.J., et al. 1981. "The Frequency of Learning Disability: A Comparison Between Juvenile Delinquent and Seventh Grade Populations." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 32(3): 29–33.

Abstract: In 1977 Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) funded three-year project in southern Minnesota to study relationship between learning disability and juvenile delinquency. Purpose of study was to determine frequency of learning disability among juvenile delinquent populations. Study was expanded to determine prevalence of learning disability among a general school population for comparison. Results show prevalence of learning disability among sample of seventh grade students was 15.8 percent. Percentage of learning disability among juvenile delinquents was 55.5 percent. In both groups, learning disability was significantly higher in boys than girls.

325. Taggart, R. 1983. *Youth Jobs Programs: The Critical Need for a Comprehensive Strategy.* Testimony Before the House Education and Labor Committee. Alexandria, VA: Remediation and Training Institute.

Abstract: Position paper on strategy for assisting chronically unemployed, including less educated and minority youth. Recommends that youth programs should come first, with emphasis on those combining work, education, and training for the most disadvantaged. A youth job strategy should include: (1) the use of Job Corps programs, which have been proven successful, in high technology training for youth; (2) a public service career intern program; (3) community improvement ventures; (4) entitlement projects similar to the successful Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects models; (5) the development of youth community service projects; (6) expanded summer programs; and (7) the expansion of the Conservation Corps.

326. Tashjian, M.D., L.A. LeBlanc, and J.C. Pfannenstiel. 1991. *Unlocking Learning: Chapter 1 In Correctional Facilities: Descriptive Study Findings: National Study of the Chapter I Neglected or Delinquent Program.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.

Abstract: Part of a national, Federal Chapter I study, this volume provides extensive descriptive information in five areas: (1) characteristics of youth in corrections, (2) correctional education in general, (3) Chapter I program operations, (4) characteristics of teachers and instruction, and (5) administration of Chapter I programs. Provides a lot of data not found in one place before.

327. Thornberry, T.P., Tolnay, S.E., Flanagan, T.J., and Glynn, P. 1991. *Children in Custody 1987: A Comparison of Public and Private Juvenile Custody Facilities.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice.

Abstract: Detailed analysis of the 1987 Children in Custody (CIC) census. Includes characteristics of resident population, regional distributions, characteristics of facilities, reasons for custody, staff and

operating costs. Includes section on educational and counseling programs. 97 percent of all facilities offered education programs. 91 percent offered basic academic education, 64 percent offered special education, 36 percent offered vocational training, and almost half GED or tutoring programs. 95 percent of all residents participated in education programs. There was little regional variation.

328. Tierney, R.J., J.E. Dishner, and E. Readance. 1980. *Reading Strategies and Practices: A Guide for Improving Instruction.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Abstract: Comprehensive compendium of strategies for teaching reading aimed at teachers of reading. Includes discussion of strategies for Directed Reading, Comprehension and Context Area Reading, Meaning Vocabulary, Study Skills, Word Identification, Language Experience. Lists of references guide reader to additional resources for each strategy.

329. Tindall, L.W., et al. 1984. *JTPA Youth Competencies and Handicapped Youth.* Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin.

Abstract: Booklet designed to provide ideas on how youth competencies in areas of basic education, pre-employment and work maturity, and job-specific skills can be utilized to help disabled youth meet performance standards in programs funded under the JTPA. Discussed are the following topics: basic provisions of the JTPA and their implications for disabled youth, adoption of a competency-based student evaluation system, advantages and disadvantages of a competency-based system for student assessment, and strategies for helping a private industry council (PIC) develop a competency-based system. Describes three models of the competency development process. Contains numerous forms, questionnaires, and checklists that are currently being used by PIC's and other JTPA-related agencies across the country to assess competency levels of disabled clients.

330. Tindall, L.W., et al. 1983. *Utilizing the Job Training Partnership Act Funds for the Vocational Education, Training and Employment of Special Needs Students.* Paper presented at the American Vocational Association Convention, Anaheim, CA.

Abstract: Presentation designed to assist vocational educators and others involved in development and implementation of an advisory role to ensure that handicapped individuals have an opportunity to participate in the JTPA programs. Includes procedures for becoming a member of a PIC, guidelines for evaluating a PIC, and types of JTPA services and activities that can benefit handicapped youth. Provides timelines for developing a PIC job training plan and procedures for enrolling handicapped students in JTPA programs. Explains steps for obtaining and guidelines for using JTPA 8 percent monies to State educational agencies, 6 percent monies for incentive grants, and Title IIB summer youth employment and training funds.

331. Tobolowsky, P.M., J.F. Quinn, and J.E. Holman. 1991. "Participation of Incarcerated High School Drop-Outs in County Jail Programs." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 42(3): 142–145.

Abstract: Survey administered in September, 1990 to 277 inmates to examine participation of incarcerated high school dropouts in counseling, stress management, and educational programs offered at the Denton County, Texas detention facility. Findings suggest that school dropouts, as a group, are more interested and/or motivated to participate in rehabilitation programs. Among nonparticipating inmates, high school dropouts under 21 and Hispanics were less likely to participate in programs than

were members of other age groupings and white and black inmates. Youthful offenders and Hispanics may require different services or specialized promotion efforts to be incorporated into clinical and educational services.

332. Townley, M.L., and V.G. Grier. 1991. "A Best Practices Approach to Correctional Special Education: The Habilitation Unit for Developmentally Disabled Offenders." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 42(1): 26-30.

Abstract: A "Best Practices" approach for provision of correctional education programs has been established by Rutherford, Nelson, and Wolford (1985) as having six essential components: functional assessments, functional curriculum, vocational special education, transitional programs, comprehensive system, and correctional special education training. The Habilitation Unit for Developmentally Disabled Offenders utilizes such an approach in operation of its functional program areas of special education, work activity, and social work. Units' two primary objectives are assessment and treatment. The Habilitation Unit is both a centralized departmental program of South Carolina Department of Correction and functional unit of Stevenson Correctional Institution.

333. Tracy, M., et al. 1986. *Strategies for Success: Recruiting and Motivating JTPA Participants.* Washington, D.C.: National Alliance of Business, Inc.

Abstract: Describes four strategies used in successful recruitment and motivational programs for JTPA participants: (1) Locate potential participants whose degree of disenfranchisement may be so great that they have given up and dropped out. (2) Raise participants' expectations so that they can exercise more control over their lives. (3) Build trust among participants so that "the system" can provide a better alternative than their current situation can. (4) Provide support necessary to maintain participants' motivation. Includes National Alliance of Business Bulletins that describe model JTPA recruitment and motivational programs in detail. Each bulletin provides: a narrative description, program results in terms of applicants recruited, name and phone number of a contact person, "hints for success", products and/or publications related to the program, and names of companies involved in the project.

334. Traynelis-Yurek, E. 1984. "The Feasibility of Upgrading Reading Skills Through an Oral Reading Program." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 35(1): 31-33.

Abstract: Program outlined uses unison reading approach with volunteer paraprofessional tutors to raise literacy level of population. Consists of twenty minute sessions of unison reading pattered after Neurological Impress Approach. Student who is a candidate for this approach should have an I.Q. of at least 80 and be below sixth grade level in word recognition.

335. Traynelis-Yurek, E., and Yurek, F.G. 1988. "Increased Literacy Through Unison Reading." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 41(3): 110-114.

Abstract: Project in Virginia's Department of Corrections used Heckelman's Neurological Impress as its design to promote fluency. Involves repeated practice in oral reading through a perceptual conditioning approach. Student reads in unison with teacher several times over to establish a fluent,

normal reading pattern. Data from pre- and post-testing indicate average gain per pupil of one month in sight word vocabulary per hour of instruction.

336. U.S. Congress. Senate. Committee on Labor and Human Resources. 1987. *Disadvantaged Youth Employment: Hearing Before the Subcommittee on Labor of the Committee on Human Resources on Reviewing Disadvantaged Youth Unemployment. U.S. Senate, One Hundredth Congress, First Session.* Washington, D.C.: GPO.

Abstract: Report of a testimony presented on the severe unemployment crisis among disadvantaged youth. Testimony included the following points: (1) Programs must help these youth in ways which are dignified and respectful. (2) Education and training needed but government also must develop new jobs. (3) Successful programs such as the Job Corps must be replicated. (4) Reductions in Federal job funding must end. (5) Government must work along with private sector on this problem. (6) Encouraging youth to stay in school may be best way to prevent increases in the youth unemployment rate.

337. U.S. Department of Education. 1991. *America 2000: An Education Strategy.* Washington, D.C.: GPO.

Abstract: Presents highlights of President Bush's education goals and strategy. Includes widely publicized "America's Education Goals" to be met by the year 2000: (1) readiness of all children for school; (2) high school graduation rate at 90 percent; (3) demonstrated competencies in basic subjects through testing in 4th, 8th, and 12th grades; (4) American students to be first in world in science and mathematics; (5) all American adults to be literate and employment ready; (6) all schools drug and violence free. Also provides four-part strategy to achieve these goals, which are more of a Republican political agenda than the basic goals which have received widespread, nonpartisan support.

338. U.S. Department of Education. 1991. *America 2000: An Education Strategy. Sourcebook.* Washington, D.C.: GPO.

Abstract: Collection of documents that offer a comprehensive description of President Bush's America 2000 strategy. Includes national education goals and joint Statement from the Charlottesville education summit.

339. Vacca, R.T., and N.D. Padak. 1990. "Who's At-Risk in Reading?" *Journal of Reading.* 33(7): 486-488.

Abstract: The term "at-risk" is a very imprecise term, however it usually refers to students who are more likely to fail or have problems academically. At-risk students are extremely vulnerable when faced with reading. They often fear failure in reading and develop a "learned helplessness" - a perceived inability to overcome failure. At-risk readers tend not to know what their roles as readers are and how to go about reading. They tend to have low self-images and do not see themselves as competent readers. This creates a lack of interest. Unless their feelings of learned helplessness are reversed, at-risk readers are likely to remain at-risk.

340. Vandergrift, J.A., et al. 1991. *Powerful Stories, Positive Results: Arizona At-Risk Policy Report, FY 1990-91.* Tempe, AZ: Arizona State University.

Abstract: Outcomes of educational programs for at-risk youth in Arizona described for fiscal year 1990-91. Based on three years of experience and data from 55 districts and schools with at-risk programs. Describes impact of various strategies, presents holistic and discrete intervention models, and discusses policy issues and options. Described are program characteristics, at-risk variables, and effective strategies for K-3 and 7-12 students. Presents outcomes in student achievement, parental involvement, and staff training.

341. Walker, E.N. 1989. "The Community Intensive Treatment for Youth Program: A Specialized Community-Based Program for High-Risk Youth in Alabama." *Law and Psychology Review.* 13: 175-199.

Abstract: After a brief general history of juvenile justice law, article focuses on an Alabama law which gave juvenile court judges almost "unlimited discretion in deciding an adjudicated child's future disposition." Article then deals with several different types of programs used in a child's probationary plan, including restitution, wilderness experience, electronic devices, and community-based programs. Describes in detail successful CITY (Community Intensive Treatment for Youth program) in Alabama, which operates six "local comprehensive youth centers" for juveniles who have problems too severe for straight probation. CITY serves students age 12-18 in groups of 30 served by a team of three teachers, three counselors, a secretary and program director. Students live at home and family is involved in program. Each student has individual "success plan", which includes educational goals. CITY provides academic training, intensive reading, and other subjects designated by local public school. It also provides employment skills training, social skills, and consumer education. Youth can work with and serve community agencies. Internal evaluations show substantial decrease in new commitments and convictions and reduction of costs (as compared to institutionalization) of 55 percent.

342. Warboys, L.M., and C.B. Shauffer. 1986. "Legal Issues in Providing Special Education Services to Handicapped Inmates." *RASE.* 7(3): 34-40.

Abstract: Discusses those legal problems that may arise in relation to identification, evaluation, IEP's, related services, and due process protection for inmates eligible for special education.

343. Warboys, L.M., and C.B. Shauffer. 1990. "Protecting the Rights of Troubled and Troubling Youth: Understanding Attorney's Perspectives." In *Understanding Troubled And Troubling Youth,* edited by P.E. Leone. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Abstract: Discusses areas of conflicts between lawyers and treatment providers. Looks at four basic issues: (1) how the law draws the line between childhood and adulthood and the significance of that distinction; (2) the problems encountered when others assert a right to act for a child; (3) the types of and reasons for legal limitations on the discretion of treatment providers to make decisions affecting the child; and (4) the impact of the adversarial nature of the legal system on treatment efforts. Article discusses the Parham and Gault cases and their implications. Stresses that lawyers are ethically obligated to try to obtain the results the client wants, regardless of the effects of those results. Treatment staff stress what they feel is the best for the client, whether or not the client agrees.

Emphasizes that procedural safeguards can be adversarial but also therapeutic and cooperative. Uses the mandated IEP process in Special Education as an example of a cooperative process.

344. Watanabe, A.K., and C. Forgnone. 1990. "The Mentally Handicapped Juvenile Offender: A Call for Transition." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 41(1): 20–24.

Abstract: Although prevalence of mental handicaps is high among juvenile offenders, it is evident that most programs do not specifically address transition for mentally handicapped juvenile offenders. Review of existing training programs presented. Case made for implementation of transitional programming for mentally handicapped juvenile offenders based upon functional curriculum. Programs should provide skills necessary for handicapped offenders to make transition from restrictive setting to less restrictive environment.

345. Watson, B., and N. Jaffe. 1990. *The Practitioner's View: New Challenges in Serving High-Risk Youth.* Philadelphia, PA: Public/Private Ventures.

Abstract: Providing disadvantaged youth with the training to continue their education or to obtain meaningful, long-term employment has been hampered by lack of funding, inability to meet the multiple needs of at-risk youth, and the difficulty of recruiting at-risk youth to participate in programs. Describes and recommends nine employment training programs that deal effectively with key problems confronting youth eligible under the JTPA. The following pre-employment programs provide basic skills, youth development activities, work experience, and work competencies: (1) Program Transformation (Manhattan Valley Youth Program, New York, New York); (2) Youth Division of the Metrocenter YMCA (Seattle, Washington); (3) San Francisco Conservation Corps; (4) East Bay Conservation Corps (Oakland, California); and (5) Impact Services Job Preparation Project (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania). Occupational skills programs that meet needs of both youth and adults are described.

346. Webb, S. and M.E. Maddox. 1986. "The Juvenile Corrections Interagency Transition Model: Moving Students from Institutions into Community Schools." *Remedial and Special Education.* 7(3): 56–61.

Abstract: Project developed, field-tested, and evaluated thirty-six strategies to help local schools and Division of Juvenile Rehabilitation in Washington State coordinate planning as juveniles move from one school program to another. Model contains step-by-step procedures to address problems in four areas: interagency awareness, transfer of school records, preplacement planning before juvenile leaves an institution, and placement maintenance and communication when juvenile is released from an institution.

347. Weber, M.R. 1985. *Emotional Disturbance and Juvenile Delinquency: Everyone's Problem Which Must Be Addressed Through Interagency Cooperation.* Paper presented at the National Conference on Secondary, Transitional, and Postsecondary Education for Exceptional Youth.

Abstract: Describes Wisconsin's project STRIVE (Sheboygan Area Treatment for Reintegration Through Involvement in Vocation and Education) designed to serve emotionally disturbed juvenile

delinquents, in highly controlled setting that emphasizes caring, compassion, control, confrontation, and community. Students receive instruction in academics, career development, appropriate behavior, and peer interaction. Outdoor challenge component stresses self-reliance in difficult situations and awareness of need for group cooperation. Ongoing counseling and evaluation are central features of program which has resulted in decreased numbers of students in correctional institutions, decreases in school dropouts, reduced expenditures on institutionalization, and more positive community attitude toward delinquents.

348. Werner, C. 1984. *Pre-Employment and Work Maturity Competencies for JTPA Youth.* Los Angeles, CA: Los Angeles Unified School District.

Abstract: Collection of competency Statements dealing with pre-employment and work maturity skills that JTPA youth should have before seeking employment. Addressed in individual sections are following skill areas: pre-employment employer expectations; application writing skills; interview skills; procedures for conducting job search; ways of accepting, declining, and leaving employment; development of work maturity skills; awareness of financial management services; and identification of attributes that enhance an employee's ability to retain employment.

349. Western Regional Resource Center. 1993. *The Corrections Connection: Special Education in the Criminal Justice System.* Eugene, OR: University of Oregon.

Abstract: Up-to-date resource manual. Includes chapters on laws and regulations, selected current practices, sample interagency agreements, funding and personnel issues. Contains up-date on IDEA as compared to P.L. 94–142 which it succeeded. Includes practical materials, e.g., sample forms, agreements, plans, policies, etc. Resource section includes an annotated bibliography; lists of experts, resources, and information centers; and selected topical articles.

350. Whittier, K.S., and J.P. Sutton. 1990. "Results of a Nationwide Survey on the Characteristics of Transition Programs for Incarcerated Handicapped Youth." In *Transitional Services for Troubled Youth,* edited by B.I. Wolford, et al., p.54–59. Richmond, KY: Eastern Kentucky University.

Abstract: Accounts for results from a national survey to determine (1) the goals of State juvenile correctional transition programs, (2) key components of such programs, (3) staffing of such programs, and (4) students served. Responses from 37 States (74 percent). Twenty-eight States had transitional programs, most with a combination of educational, social, and vocational goals. Most employed a full time director. Most served both handicapped and nonhandicapped students.

351. Wiatrowski, Hansell, Massey, and Wilson. 1982. "Curriculum Tracking and Delinquency: Toward an Integration of Education and Delinquency Research." *American Sociological Review.* 47(1): 151–160.

Abstract: Study was done to see if curriculum placement correlated to rates of delinquency. Results raise serious doubts about this correlation, and suggest school socialization experiences occurring earlier than high school be searched for causes of delinquency among boys.

352. Williams, J., et al. 1984. "3 M's = G.E.D...Motivation...Management...Momentum." *Journal of Correctional Education.* 35(3): 97–103.

Abstract: Discusses a GED preparation program developed by Louisiana Department of Corrections for juvenile offenders. Motivational and management strategies are discussed.

353. William T. Grant Foundation Commission on Work, Family and Citizenship. 1988. *The Forgotten Half: Pathways to Success for America's Youth and Young Families: Final Report. Young America's Future.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Abstract: Report from a two-year study of 16 to 24 year olds in America. Documents high unemployment, shrinking job opportunities, decline in real income, decrease in marrying, and increase in single-parent households. Also studies successful program models. Provides recommendations, chief among them for new, Federal legislation, "Fair Chance: Youth Opportunities Demonstration Act," with a Federal annual investment of $5 billion "to stimulate the development of an integrated approach to the education, training, and service needs of all youth." Also, includes resource directory, series of statistical tables, and program descriptions.

354. Wilson, J.Q., and R.J. Herrnstein. 1985. *Crime and Human Nature.* New York: Simon and Schuster.

Abstract: Contains two chapters of importance to correctional educators summarizing what research tells about relationship between intelligence and criminal behavior and link between schooling and delinquency. Shows that average offender has deficit in verbal IQ and gap of 8 points between general IQ and verbal IQ. This is associated with low level of moral development, interpersonal maturity, and tendency to break the law. Finds research inconclusive on causal link between schooling and crime. After exploring several theories and research studies, concludes that individual differences affect crime rates, but that good and bad schools will reduce or contribute toward probability of a youth committing crime. Finds that schools may contribute most to crime through peer groups formed there.

355. Wircenski, J.L., and M.D. Sarkees. 1990. *Alternatives to Social Promotion Program at Grades 7 & 8: Final Report.*

Abstract: This final report and curriculum guide are products of a project conducted to improve existing at-risk programs through cooperation between vocational and academic personnel. Following project activities described: (1) literature review on diverse needs of at-risk students enrolled in an alternative to social promotion program containing vocational component; (2) development of model program implementation design that addressed course requirement, counseling and guidance strategies, career awareness/investigation leading to vocational assessment, and generalizable skills; (3) development of curriculum that coordinated essential elements of academic courses with vocational education; (4) description of effective teaching strategies; and (5) piloting in five school districts. Model lesson plans included for four interdisciplinary subjects: computer technology/mathematics, English/small engine repair; U.S. history/business office services, life management skills/reading, and earth science/home economics.

356. Wolford, B.I., K. Janssen, and C.J. Miller. 1990. "Youth in Transition - Two Perspectives." In *Transitional Services for Troubled Youth,* edited by Wolford, B.I., et al., p. 27–33. Richmond, KY: Eastern Kentucky University.

Abstract: Summarizes results of a national survey of State juvenile correctional transition services. Authors discuss findings of a demonstration transition project in Kentucky. Identifies 8 components of effective transitional programs: pre-release assessment and planning, continuum of care, family services, frequent contact/supervision, motivated staff, leisure activities, drug/alcohol prevention, and development of community resources.

357. Wolford, B.I., C.J. Miller, and P. Lawrenz, eds. 1990. *Transitional Services for Troubled Youth.* Richmond, KY: Eastern Kentucky University.

Abstract: Contains 11 articles by various authors on a range of aspects of transition programming for delinquent youths. Includes results from two national surveys. Describes behavior management techniques, community-based programs, assessment and classroom management techniques, and policy and interagency issues. (See abstracts of individual articles under the following entries: Bowling, Campbell, Cook, Herr, Leone, Lerman, Spaniol, Whittier, and Wolford.)

358. Wood, F.H. 1987. "Special Education Law and Correctional Education." In *Special Education in the Criminal Justice System,* edited by C.M. Nelson, R.B. Rutherford, and B.I. Wolford. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company.

Abstract: Reviews the legal mandate that directs efforts to reach the goal of providing a free and appropriate education for all handicapped juvenile offenders. Discusses all the acts which have affected handicapped juvenile offenders and procedures to help insure compliance.

359. Zimmerman, J., et al. 1981. "Some Observations on the Link Between Learning Disabilities and Juvenile Delinquency." *Journal of Criminal Justice.* 9: 1–17.

Abstract: Sample of 1,005 public school youth and 687 adjudicated juvenile delinquent youth (age 12–17) reported delinquent behaviors in which they had engaged. Youths' educational records screened, and, children given series of tests. Every child classified either LD or not. Results indicated that proportionately more adjudicated delinquent children than public school children were LD. Self-reported data showed no differences in delinquent behaviors engaged in by LD and non-LD children, within adjudicated or public school samples. Public school LD children reported that they were picked up by police at about same rate as non-LD children and engaged in about same delinquent behaviors. In light of findings, proposed that greater proportion of LD youth among adjudicated juvenile delinquents may be accounted for by differences in way such children are treated within juvenile justice system rather than by differences in their delinquent behavior.

360. Zucker, A.A. 1990, "Review of Research on Effective Curriculum and Instruction in Mathematics." In *Better Schooling for the Children of Poverty: Alternatives to Conventional Wisdom, Vol II: Commissioned Papers and Literature Review,* edited by M.S. Knapp, and P.M. Shields. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Washington, D.C.: Policy Studies Associates.

Abstract: Summary of the Effective Schools Research in mathematics. Stresses need for curricula that emphasize conceptual understanding and the application of mathematics skills. Stresses need for

expanding teachers' pedagogical skills to include more discourse about mathematical ideas, multiple representations of mathematical ideas, project-centered teaching, and use of educational technologies.

Subject Index

Note: The numbers in the index refer to the numbers of the items in the bibliography.