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Chapter 1 : "THE EFFECTS OF A JOB INTERVIEWING SKILLS WORKSHOP ON THE VOCATIONAL MA

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Findings clearly demonstrate the acceptability and feasibility of these interventions. There was a significant treatment by depressive symptom interaction found for driving under the influence of alcohol and marijuana DUI-A, DUI-M , and for being a passenger with someone driving under the influence of alcohol PUI-A. No such interaction was found for being a passenger with a driver under the influence of marijuana PUI-Mj , and neither were there main effects for treatment or depressive symptoms on PUI-Mj. RT was associated with reduced risky driving at high depressive symptoms, as compared to low depressive symptoms. No differences were found between the high and low depressive symptom groups for adolescents receiving MI. The clinical significance of these findings is of interest: For adolescents low in depressive symptoms early in incarceration, at 3 months after release the MI group showed an These findings are similar to those of Monti et al. It may be that a more intensive intervention would also significantly reduce risky driving related to marijuana use. Our findings are encouraging for intervening with substance-using incarcerated adolescents, given the prevalence of alcohol use among incarcerated adolescents. These findings are different from those of Monti et al. It appears that adolescents low in depressive symptoms may be responsive to interventions increasing motivation to alter harmful drinking. This suggests that clinicians working in these settings may wish to consider depressive symptoms during treatment planning. For those adolescents high in depressive symptoms, results are not overwhelming; however, they do suggest that RT may be more suitable for high-depressive adolescents as compared to low-depressive adolescents. This study is limited by its reliance on self-report methods; however, self-report is one of the most sensitive indicators of substance use. Evidence generally supports accuracy of self-reports. Future investigations should include longer follow-up periods. In addition, clearly it is necessary to determine far more effective methods of intervening on marijuana-related risky driving in future studies. Consideration may be given to including a skills component to assist in reducing marijuana-related risky driving. This study was also limited in that we did not have a no-treatment control group; however, we reasoned that it was ethical to provide some individualized attention to each adolescent enrolled in the study. In addition, our measure of depressive symptoms only asks about affect during the past week. High scores may reflect current stressors and long-standing dysphoria. Future studies should consider assessing for lifetime and current major depressive disorder and changes in depression over time that may be related to intervention efforts. This is of critical importance. Given that this is one of the first randomized trials conducted in a juvenile correctional facility, it will be important to replicate these findings in other facilities. We selected a broad range of alcohol- and marijuana-involved adolescents, who also had diverse criminal histories. Results may vary depending on type of population encountered in other facilities for example, mostly aggressive offenders with substance dependence. Similarly, replication with larger sample sizes is very important as some sub-group analyses included only about 15 participants. However, users may print, download, or email articles for individual use. Alcohol-related relative risk of driver fatalities and driver involvement in fatal crashes in relation to driver age and gender: Drinking, cannabis use, and driving among Ontario students. Can Med Assoc J. Drinking and driving among US high school seniors, " Am J Public Health. Lamers C, Ramaekers J. Visual search and urban city driving under the influence of marijuana and alcohol. Separate and combined effects of marijuana and alcohol on mood, equilibrium and simulated driving. Accessed March 15, Examining trajectories of adolescent risk factors as predictors of subsequent high-risk driving behavior. Profiles of alcohol- and marijuana-impaired adolescent drivers. Addiction Research and Theory. Drinking and driving among high school students. Drinking behavior, personality factors and high-risk driving: Little R, Clontz K. Young, drunk, dangerous and driving: J Alcohol Drug Ed. Adolescent antecedents of high-risk driving behavior into young adulthood: Psychiatric disorders in youth in juvenile detention. Brief intervention for harm reduction with alcohol-positive older adolescents in a hospital

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Chapter 2 : Full text of "Effects of a Vocational Exploration Group program with incarcerated youths /"

CONTENTS ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ABSTRACT CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION
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Abstract To examine the long-term consequences of juvenile incarceration on functioning in adulthood ages 27â€” Methods Propensity score analysis was used to compare incarcerated youth with those who were never incarcerated in a subsample of individuals who had experienced at least one police contact in adolescence. Results Youth who were incarcerated in adolescence were more likely to experience incarceration at ages 27, 30, or 33, more likely to meet criteria for alcohol abuse or dependence, and more likely to be receiving public assistance than similar youth who were never incarcerated. Conclusions Results show that juvenile incarceration is not only ineffective at reducing criminal behavior later in life, but that there are also unintended consequences for incarceration beyond the criminal domain. Given these long-term deleterious outcomes, it is recommended that suitable alternatives to juvenile incarceration that do not jeopardize public safety be pursued. **Introduction** The juvenile delinquency court in the United States was originally founded in an attempt to distinguish between adult and youthful offenders, emphasizing that youth were in need of protection, guidance, and rehabilitation, rather than punishment McCord et al. However, since the first juvenile delinquency court was established in Chicago in , the juvenile justice system has grown increasingly punitive and has begun to resemble the adult criminal justice system in many ways, including the increased use of incarceration Myers and Farrell For every , youth in the U. With so many youth experiencing incarceration in the United States, it is important for juvenile justice and social welfare policies and practices to understand how this sanction ultimately affects the life course trajectories of these youth. Is juvenile incarceration truly rehabilitative, as it was originally intended to be? Or, as many have claimed see literature review below , are the effects of incarceration actually iatrogenic, increasing the likelihood of future offending? Finally, are there unintended consequences of incarceration beyond criminal outcomes, e. There are several theoretical explanations for why incarceration might be ineffective or even deleterious with regard to criminal outcomes, and also why it might be related to negative outcomes in other areas of adult functioning. Greve , p. Thus, its impact and consequences have to be evaluated from a developmental point of view. The life course perspective, broadly speaking, addresses within-individual processes over time and across developmental stages. Life course criminologists have often focused on offending across the life span. While offending in adolescence is a very strong predictor of offending in adulthood, the majority of youthful offenders desist. However, one task for life course criminologists has been to discover why some youth persist in offending. It could be that youth who might otherwise desist from criminal behavior as they transition to adulthood face a turning point when they are incarcerated, which may alter their opportunity structures during the critically important transition to adulthood, and produce negative consequences in both criminal and non-criminal domains. In a normative transition from adolescence to adulthood, youth are expected to finish their education, engage in gainful employment, find a romantic partner, and start a family Lanctot et al. Labeling theory scholars have identified three mechanisms through which the criminal label operates to affect future consequences Barrick , all of which help to explain why incarceration during adolescence could severely disruptive the normative path and a successful transition to adulthood. This internalization process might take on the form of shifts in identity and changes in beliefs and attitudes. Second, as a result of the criminal label, individuals may find that their social networks have changed, either by choice or by force, in such a way that they have new or increased associations with antisocial peers e. Finally, some theorists assert that criminal labels are associated with decreased social and structural opportunities e. This reduction in conventional opportunities, such as education and employment, pushes the individual further into the criminal lifestyle. These circumstances can be formal e. **Literature Review** Several studies have examined the

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consequences of juvenile justice system involvement more broadly, finding that involvement is positively associated with later offending Bernburg and Krohn ; Gold and Williams ; Petittlerc et al. However, in this paper, we focused on studies that examined the effects of incarceration explicitly. Similarly, given our interest in understanding how incarceration in adolescence affects functioning in a later developmental period, we reviewed studies that examined the effects of incarceration when that incarceration occurred before or during the transition to adulthood. Thus, studies summarized here included a mixed sample of juveniles and young adults or explicitly studied incarceration that occurred before the age of Using a lifetime measurement of incarceration including both adolescence and early adulthood , researchers have found that incarceration is related to fewer job opportunities Apel and Sweeten ; Freeman ; Huebner ; Laub and Sampson ; Tanner et al. While informative and valuable, these studies do not distinguish between juvenile and adult incarceration. For example, many of the studies cited above used the National Longitudinal Study of Youth NLSY79 , which follows a cohort through adolescence and early adulthood participants were between the ages of 14 and 22 at the beginning of the study , to examine the consequences of incarceration e. Thus, some participants had likely already transitioned into adult roles prior to incarceration, which would have different consequences for adult functioning than incarceration during adolescence. In the current study we were particularly interested in understanding the unique effects of juvenile incarceration on adult functioning, as adolescence is a critical time of preparation for the transition to adulthood Collins and Steinberg Those studies that have limited their sample to juveniles to examine the consequences of incarceration show mixed results on several outcomes of interest, and encourage more research, especially with regard to long-term outcomes. First, we discuss studies that examine proximal consequence of incarceration. In a descriptive study, Abram et al. In separate studies, both Hjalmarsson and Aizer and Doyle found that juvenile incarceration was related to a lower likelihood of high school graduation. On the other hand, Hjalmarsson found that incarceration was actually related to lower recidivism when incarcerated youth were compared to youth who had been adjudicated but received a disposition other than incarceration. While the results of studies examining the short-term consequences of juvenile incarceration are mixed, there is somewhat clearer evidence supporting the negative long-term consequences of juvenile incarceration, though more research is needed. Using a sample of institutionalized youth, as well as a comparison community sample of youth residing in a private residence, Lanctot et al. Studying a sample of over 35, juvenile offenders, Aizer and Doyle utilized an instrumental variable technique using the inclination for randomly-assigned juvenile judges to incarcerate or not , to study the relationship between juvenile incarceration and adult incarceration. They found that there was a strong positive relationship between incarceration in adolescence and in adulthood. Thus, there is some evidence that juvenile incarceration is related to negative outcomes in adulthood. The current study This study fills gaps in the literature in several ways. First, we focused specifically on the effects of juvenile incarceration. For youth who are incarcerated, developmental and social transitions and milestones can be disrupted in a time of preparation for the important transition to adulthood. Barrick concluded from her review that juveniles were more susceptible than adults to the negative effects of labeling after involvement in the criminal justice system, as evidenced by increased recidivism. Second, we examined the long-term consequences of juvenile incarceration, focusing on seven outcomes at ages 27â€” Third, we used a sophisticated and rigorous analytic strategy, propensity score weighting, to adjust for confounding variables that might actually be driving incarceration and the observed outcomes. The present study uses a propensity weighting approach that renders the incarcerated and non-incarcerated comparison juveniles equivalent on a broad range of potential confounding background characteristics both demographics as well as risk and protective factors , thus increasing confidence that the observed differences between these groups are due to juvenile incarceration specifically. SSDP consists of a multiethnic community sample of males and females followed prospectively from , when participants were in the fifth grade, into adulthood. A total of fifth-grade students attending 18 elementary schools serving high-crime neighborhoods of Seattle in the fall of constitute the longitudinal sample. Schools were selected based on neighborhood crime statistics. Feeder elementary schools for those

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high-crime neighborhoods were selected and approached for participation. Due to mandated bussing at the time, these schools and this sample also included students from other parts of the city. Thus, the study oversamples children from high-risk neighborhoods, but is not limited to these children. The 18 elementary schools represented approximately one quarter of the total number of elementary schools in Seattle at that time. A considerable portion of participants came from low-income households. In adulthood participants have been interviewed approximately every three years. In Grades 5 and 6, surveys were group-administered questionnaires completed in the classroom. Youth who left the schools in the study were individually interviewed. Starting in Grade 7, all students were individually interviewed, predominantly in person. The interviews lasted about one hour. Early in the study, youth received a small incentive. Juvenile court records were obtained from through adulthood. All data collection procedures have been approved by the University of Washington Institutional Review Board. The purpose of this strategy, as explained below, was to create a comparison group that was as similar as possible to the incarcerated group with regard to background risk characteristics, behavior, and risk of incarceration. It should be noted that by comparing youth who were incarcerated with youth who had a police contact but possibly received some other sanction, we are examining the relative effect of labeling, rather than the absolute effect. Police contact was measured using both self-reported and official court data. An official referral to the juvenile court would result in a record. However, any contact with the police due to delinquent or illegal behavior that did not result in a court referral would not be recorded in the official data. Although differences in prevalences and means have been observed between intervention and control groups, prior analyses have shown few differences in the covariance structures of the groups Catalano et al. To test possible differences in etiology between the groups, we examined a multiple-group covariance structure model constraining the covariance parameter estimates between predictors and outcomes in the study to be equal across intervention groups. This constrained model fit the data well. All arrests and subsequent incarcerations resulting from adjudication throughout adolescence were reported. Official data on incarceration were only available for those youth who were adjudicated by the court and received a disposition that included serving time in a juvenile detention center or a state juvenile corrections institution in Washington State. Crime was a measure of whether the respondent reported committing at least one violent or property offense in the past year at age 27, 30, or 33. Incarceration was a self-reported measure of having spent time in jail or prison in the past year. Respondents were asked a series of questions about their drug and alcohol use. Individuals were coded with a 1 for drug abuse or dependence if they met DSM-IV criteria American Psychiatric Association for either dependence or abuse during the past year at ages 27, 30, or 33, and 0 if they never met criteria for either during this time frame. The same coding scheme was used for alcohol abuse or dependence. Similarly, mental health was measured with variables indicating whether respondents met diagnostic criteria, based on the DSM-IV American Psychiatric Association for major depression or generalized anxiety disorder at age 27, 30, or 33. Finally, welfare receipt was a self-reported measure of receipt of public assistance in the past year at age 27, 30, or 33. For the present study we selected a broad range of factors shown to be associated with juvenile incarceration. These measures were then used to estimate the propensity score, as described in the following section 4. Thus, to assess prior delinquency in this study we used a count of the past-year frequency of self-reported delinquent acts, and then weighted each act by severity one for minor, two for moderate, and three for serious delinquency. A value was calculated for each youth for each survey year from 5th through 10th grade and again in 12th grade. For those youth who were never incarcerated, these scores were averaged across adolescence through 12th grade. For those youth who were incarcerated, delinquency was calculated to establish temporal ordering with incarceration. That is, prior delinquency was calculated by averaging delinquency across years through the year in which the first incarceration occurred. For those who experienced their first incarceration in 11th grade, when survey data were not collected, delinquency was averaged across years through 10th grade. This temporal ordering was necessary so as not to conflate the precursors and consequences of justice system involvement, as research has shown delinquent behavior to be a consequence of justice system involvement

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Bernburg and Krohn Past month drug use, including marijuana, powder or crack cocaine, amphetamines, tranquilizers, sedatives, psychedelics, and narcotics, was measured in the SSDP sample every year from 6th through 10th grades. A frequency value was calculated for each youth for each survey year through 10th grade. Prior drug use frequency was also measured so as to establish temporal ordering with incarceration, in the same manner as described above for delinquency. Prior drug use was only available through 10th grade, so average prior delinquency for those youth who had their first incarceration in grade 11 or 12 was calculated through 10th grade.

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Chapter 3 : Services for Youth

*Effects of a Vocational Exploration Group program with incarcerated youths / [Corey Stephen Bercun] on calendrierdelascience.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers. This is a reproduction of a book published before*

Educators within corrections facilities operate on the principle that attitudes, ideas and behavior can be corrected -- that humans are capable of progressing to higher thresholds of awareness Gehring, <http://> Correctional education programs help inmates to break the cycle of poor literacy skills and criminal activity by providing them with the knowledge and skills necessary to succeed both in the workplace and in society. Effective correctional education programs help inmates develop problem-solving and decision-making skills they can use within the prison industry and in employment after their release Steurer, Measuring the Effectiveness of Correctional Education The ultimate goal of correctional education is to reduce recidivism -- to help inmates become self-sufficient so that they can be re-integrated into society and become productive and successful workers, citizens, and family members Cortley, Recidivism is defined as the rate at which released prisoners return to jail or prison without considering the reason for incarceration. While few deny the value of education or the significance of other outcomes, the ability to keep individuals from re-entering the criminal justice system is the ultimate test of correctional education program effectiveness Using Correctional Education Data: Issues and Strategies, In , the California Department of the Youth Authority conducted an investigation to determine if gains in reading skill or participation in remedial education programs would lower recidivism for the nearly 1, participants who were determined to be academically deficient. Recidivism status was determined after three and fifteen months of parole. Neither reading skill gain nor participation in a remedial education program was found to be related to recidivism at either of these intervals. However, reading ability was found to be related to recidivism time. Those with low reading ability were more likely to recidivate within three months, while those with higher reading ability were more likely to recidivate during the fourth through fifteenth months. Mace examined parole and intake records to follow adult male inmates discharged in from West Virginia correctional institutions. At the end of 4 years, there were 76 recidivists; 55 were from the group that did not participate in educational programs. Only 7 of those completing the GED and only 4 of the college-level participants were re-incarcerated. Holloway and Moke investigated 95 graduates of AA degree programs who were paroled during The graduates were compared to a randomly selected group of high school graduates including GED who had received their degree inside or outside of prison and a third group of randomly selected inmates who had no GED or high school education and were released during the same time period. The findings indicated that recidivism was lower as educational level increased college graduates recidivated lower than high school graduates and both recidivated lower than non high school graduates. Anderson , Anderson and Schumacker investigated how many of the detainees who received vocational training while incarcerated obtained employment, especially in areas in which they received vocational training, upon their release. The detainees were divided into four research groups: Vocational and vocational and academic groups had higher employment rates and fewer re-arrests than the other groups. Those who received no education had the highest recidivism rate. Ramsey reviewed the relationship between receiving a GED and recidivism. Five groups were used: More than 16, prisoners from 11 states participated in an investigation conducted by Beck and Shipley Offenders with an 8th grade education or less were rearrested at a rate of Individuals with some college had an even lower re-arrest rate of Dugas evaluated the effects of basic literacy tutoring programs using inmate tutors on recidivism. A study conducted by Porporino and Robinson involved 1, federal offenders who were released in and monitored for an average of 1. The effectiveness of an Adult Basic Education program was evaluated through examining recidivism rates. Three groups were studied program completers, released before completion, and program dropouts. Results indicated that Gainous examined graduates of seven Alabama colleges providing correctional education to prisoners. While incarcerated, received their GED. The youths were tracked for one year after release. The authors

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concluded that the recidivism rates of youth attaining a GED were significantly lower than those who did not. The treatment group had a An month study by Jenkins, Pendry, and Steurer utilized 4 subgroups Adult Basic Education, GED, vocational education and post secondary students to investigate recidivism. The study concluded that there was a positive and significant benefit of education for students at all levels when compared to similar inmates who did not receive any educational program while incarcerated. The post secondary group contained no recidivists. Other groups also experienced reduced recidivism, increased employability and higher wages. This study found that the more education the releasee had upon entering the system, the less likely the inmate was to recidivate. The highest recidivism rate was Recidivism rates also decreased according to how much education a student received during incarceration. Inmates who did not take education classes recidivated at

Chapter 4 : Vocational Exploration Group program with incarcerated youths - CORE

Effects of a Vocational Exploration Group program with incarcerated youths / Item Preview.

Chapter 5 : An Exploration of the Relationship Between Recidivism and Education

The effects of vocational exploration group (VEG) on an attitude toward the efficacy of vocational counseling /.

Chapter 6 : Teaching Juveniles How to Plan for The Future

Vocational Exploration Group program with incarcerated youths. By Corey Stephen Bercun. Abstract (Thesis) Thesis--University of Florida.(Bibliography.