

HV9068
.U552

TRAINING

PERSONNEL

OF WORK UNIT

JUVENILE

DELINQUENTS

147056

147056

TRAINING PERSONNEL

for work with

JUVENILE DELINQUENTS

147056

U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the National Institute of Justice.

Permission to reproduce this ~~copyrighted~~ material has been granted by

Public Domain/U.S. Dept. of
Health, Education & Welfare

to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS).

Further reproduction outside of the NCJRS system requires permission of the ~~copyright~~ owner.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

~~Social Security Administration~~

Children's Bureau

contents

	<i>Foreword</i> , by MARTHA M. ELIOT, M. D.	vii
	<i>Introduction</i> , by FRANK T. FLYNN.	x
PART I	<i>The role of the school of social work in educating and training personnel for work with juvenile delinquents</i> , by ELLIOT STUDD and MILTON CHERNIN.	1
	Introduction: Various Aspects of the Problem.	1
	Personnel to be reached.	2
	Major problems affecting educational programs. . .	4
	Overall tasks to be solved jointly by school and field.	7
	Educational Task Primary for Schools.	7
	Groups of personnel with needs of concern to schools.	8
	Responsibility of schools in relation to each of these groups.	10
	Special aspects of a school's program of full professional training for delinquency workers.	13
	Conclusions.	15
	<i>Summary of workshop discussion</i>	15
	On Content.	17
	Information.	17
	Skills.	18
	Philosophy.	19
	On Methods.	22
PART II	<i>Training of juvenile court probation officers and related workers who cannot attend graduate school</i> , by BEN S. MEEKER.	23
	Kind of Training Needed.	23

Recruiting Standards and Proper Use of Probation Officers.....	25
Proposed Ways to Develop Staff by Training.....	26
Continued in-service training.....	27
Institutes, workshops, and training centers.....	31
Seminars, lectures, and conferences.....	32
Collateral training opportunities.....	32
Organization for Training at State Level.....	34
<i>Summary of workshop discussion</i>	35
People to Train and How to Train Them.....	36
Pre-service training.....	36
Orientation training.....	37
Ongoing staff development through in-service training.....	37
Problems in Staff Development, with Proposed Solutions.....	38
Statewide Plan.....	42
Resolutions.....	43
PART III	
<i>Training for houseparents and kindred personnel in institutions for juvenile delinquents</i> , by SUSANNE SCHULZE and MORRIS FRITZ MAYER.....	44
What Does a Houseparent's Job Consist of?.....	46
Protection and control.....	47
Purposeful organization of everyday living.....	48
Creating a "we" feeling in the group.....	49
Development of a relationship to the individual..	50
Integration of the houseparent's position with the function of the total institution.....	51
What Kind of Training Would Be Appropriate for Houseparents?.....	52
In-service training.....	53
Short-term institutes.....	58
Extension courses.....	60
Extended institutes.....	60
Professional training.....	63
<i>Summary of workshop discussion</i>	69
PART IV	
<i>First steps in solving training needs of court and institutional workers who treat juvenile delinquents</i> , by FRANK T. FLYNN.....	72
Adding Trained Social Workers in the Delinquency Field.....	72

Program development in schools of social work . . .	73
Recruitment and employment of candidates	76
Training Personnel on the Job	78
State leadership needed	78
Supervision	80
The institute as a device for training	81
Proposal for a Special Three-Month Course	82
Personnel to be reached	83
Curriculum and faculty	84
Where offered and how financed	85
Pilot operation necessary	85
Summary of "Next Steps"	86
Getting more social work graduates into the field .	86
Improving in-service training	87
Special short course offered on large scale	87
Appendix LIST OF CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS .	89

foreword

FOR TWO YEARS NOW the Children's Bureau, with the help of the Special Juvenile Delinquency Project,¹ has been securing the best professional opinions and knowledge about the needs in the field of delinquency treatment and control so that efforts could be made to focus attention on these needs and arouse citizen support in meeting them.

This report is concerned with one of the most important and difficult-to-solve problems in this field: that of providing education and training for certain key groups of personnel—mainly in courts and institutions—who work directly with delinquents. The report gives the thinking and conclusions about this problem of a group of experts who were called together to comment upon papers prepared beforehand by persons especially experienced in aspects of the subject under review. The conference at which these papers were reviewed was held at Madison, Wis., on May 22-23, 1953.

Although the Children's Bureau does not take responsibility for the specific views and proposals expressed in this document, it heartily concurs in and supports the general conclusions reached. These are that the groups of delinquency workers dealt with here need much more training than they now have and that new ways must be found to offer sound and adequate training both to workers who are presently serving in this field and to those who come to it in the future.

The need to provide better training is apparent from every viewpoint. There are more delinquent children today than ever before. Delinquency has been increasing steadily since 1948. Furthermore, there is a clear indication that this growth in the number of delinquency cases may continue for some time. According to the Bureau of the Census, the number of children in the age bracket from which most juvenile court cases come (ages 10 to 17) is expected to be almost half as large again in 1960 as it was in 1950. Just in terms of population increase alone, then, we have to be prepared for more cases of delinquency. All these children will need skilled and careful attention.

But whether or not there is currently an increase in delinquency, the

¹ Supported by voluntary contributions, the Project supplements the juvenile delinquency program of the Children's Bureau.

necessity for providing training for the people who work with delinquent children is urgent and continuing. To these persons we give the complex and taxing job of bringing about adjustment to the demands of normal social life of all the children and young people who have openly revolted against these demands in one way or another. To these workers also falls the difficult task of making constructive use of authority in this rehabilitative process and of maintaining constant awareness of the interests of both the children and the community. Nearly all the persons in these groups have a direct treatment relationship with the youngsters in their care. In general they deal with the most difficult cases of delinquency. They cannot be expected to do a good job by intuition alone. With intuition and aptitude must go training.

Another point emphasized by people who have long worked in this field is that *all* the personnel who carry responsibility for treatment and control of delinquent children should have training for this work. The problem is not solved by spotting a trained worker here and there throughout the treatment program.

Many factors contribute to making it a difficult problem to provide training for these groups. As is remarked in one of the papers included here, a lot of probation officers are appointed without regard to their previous experience and education. Even if they were offered academic courses they might benefit from, a high proportion of these probation officers would have too many family or financial obligations to be able to take advantage of such courses. Houseparents, too, often come to their jobs without prior preparation. This group deserves particular attention.

Emphasis on the need for trained professional workers does not mean that there is no place for volunteer workers in treatment programs for juvenile delinquents. Adult citizens in a community who sponsor individual delinquent boys or girls have a definite and valuable role to play in helping to treat delinquent children. They are already proving to be of great assistance to undermanned official agencies. It should be understood, however, that these volunteer workers do not have the same legal responsibility for the care of a delinquent as a probation officer or a training school worker does. Participants in these sponsorship programs are generally chosen by a highly selective process and serve under the guidance of a trained worker in the court or other official agency. In other words, even where voluntary workers are used, there will always be the need for well-trained workers in the authoritative agencies to guide their efforts.

A striking feature of this report is that it so well *defines* the many problems involved in preparing more people for work in the delinquency field and in offering training to those persons already at work in the field. The proposed solutions and steps to be taken to meet the training needs defined must be judged on their own merits; as was stated previously, their publication here does not imply official endorsement by the Children's Bureau. The Bureau is, of course, particularly interested in those suggestions that relate to the use of Federal child welfare services funds. In this respect it should

be clearly understood that within the limits of the legal and other provisions under which the Bureau administers those funds, decision as to their particular use is the responsibility of the State agencies that receive and spend them.

Not all groups of front-line delinquency workers are covered in this report. The personnel whose training needs are dealt with here include primarily juvenile probation officers, houseparents, and workers in institutions who hold social work positions. Important groups *not* covered are police officers and juvenile court judges. If resources permit, the Children's Bureau hopes to be able in the future to join with qualified groups of experts in giving substantial attention to the educational and training needs of these latter groups. In the meantime, they have not been completely neglected. The Children's Bureau and the Special Juvenile Delinquency Project have recently done some work with police officers in attempting to define their training needs in relation to delinquency. The results of this mutual effort are reported in the publication *Police Services for Juveniles*. The educational needs of juvenile court judges are primarily a concern of the legal profession, but some material about this group will be found in the new Children's Bureau publication *Standards for Specialized Courts Dealing with Children*, formulated in cooperation with the National Probation and Parole Association and the National Council of Juvenile Court Judges.²

With documents such as these, which define and guide, we should be able to move more surely toward our goals. But unless we do use them for action, the documents serve no purpose. This problem of getting an adequate number of trained workers is a *big* problem, with many ramifications. It requires the kind of cooperative activity among local, State, and national forces that was so often called for at the Madison conference. The Children's Bureau is ready to participate to the full extent of its ability in such cooperative activity.

Martha M. Eliot

MARTHA M. ELIOT, M. D.

Chief, Children's Bureau

² Both the police and the court documents are sold by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

introduction

FRANK T. FLYNN*

THIS REPORT deals with the problem of providing training for certain persons who work with juvenile delinquents. These persons are mainly either court or institutional workers.

The need to provide training for workers with delinquent children has long been serious, and as the extent of delinquency has increased, it has become urgent. To these men and women we entrust the complex job of effecting rehabilitation and personality changes in youngsters with difficult behavior problems. At the same time we hold them responsible for exercising control of these youthful, sometimes dangerous, delinquents so that the community will suffer no further harm. Yet the great majority of court and institutional workers have had no specialized training for this work. They come to it from all walks of life and from a variety of backgrounds.

Though no exact count of these workers is available, a rough estimate shows that their number is sizable. The latest survey of probation officers lists some 1,700 who are concerned exclusively with children and an additional 2,000 who work with both juveniles and adults.¹ A recent survey by the Children's Bureau of public training schools for delinquent children furnishes data from which it can be estimated that the number of institutional workers who occupy either social work or houseparent positions is roughly 5,000.² Many workers in detention facilities should also undoubtedly be included in this count, but their number is unknown. Even so, it can be reasonably estimated that the total number of court and institutional workers involved in direct treatment of delinquent children is at least 9,000. Since most juvenile court probation staffs and institutional staffs are badly undermanned, this number should in reality be considerably larger.

*Frank T. Flynn is Professor at the School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago.

¹ *Probation and Parole Directory* (National Probation and Parole Association, New York, 1952).

² The results of this survey, which was made in 1953-54, are in the process of being published.

Few of these workers have the training called for to do their job properly. A study made by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1950 shows that among persons who occupy social work positions in courts serving children, only 1 out of 10 has had full social work training.³ Among persons occupying social work positions in State and local public institutions (including those for delinquents), about the same small proportion as for the court workers have had full social work training. (The proportion is considerably higher in Federal and private institutions, but these are much fewer in number.) The Children's Bureau survey of public training schools for delinquents indicates that few or no houseparents have had specialized training for their work.

It is clear, then, that not many court or institutional workers now have the training they need. But at least many of them are generally fitted to receive this training. The Bureau of Labor Statistics study reveals that about 3 out of 5 court workers have a college degree, while almost 9 out of 10 have had some college training. Among the State and local public institutional social workers, about 3 out of 5 have completed college and more than 8 out of 10 have had some college training. (Again, the proportion is higher in the Federal and private institutions.) The situation is not so hopeful in respect to houseparents. The Children's Bureau survey mentioned above shows that fewer than 1 out of 10 cottage personnel has a college degree, 4 out of 9 have just reached high school, 2 out of 9 have not gone beyond elementary school. The lack of education here simply underlines the particular importance of finding ways to reach this group.

To give these people the training they need will evidently be a task of considerable proportions—both in terms of the number of people involved and of the educational devices that will have to be used in order to reach them. It was with this understanding that the Children's Bureau and the Special Juvenile Delinquency Project in 1953 called together a group of educators, administrators, and specialists from the delinquency field to discuss the problem of training, in an effort at least to define it and perhaps also to reach agreement as to what the best solution might be. The conference was held on May 22-23 of that year at Madison, Wis., under the auspices of the Bureau and the Project and through the courtesy of the Wisconsin Department of Public Welfare and the Extension Division of the University of Wisconsin.⁴

Before the Madison conference, the Special Juvenile Delinquency Project sponsored preparation of the first three papers included in this volume in order to furnish a basis for discussion in workshops at the conference. Following the conference, the authors of the papers revised them in the light of conference discussion and added to them a summary of the com-

³ For this and other data, see *Social Workers in 1950*, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U. S. Department of Labor (American Association of Social Workers, Inc., New York, 1952).

⁴ Participants at the Madison conference are listed in the appendix.

ments made by workshop participants. All the papers included here thus represent considerable collective thinking and opinion.

In the first paper Elliot Studt and Milton Chernin analyze the role of schools of social work in preparing people for work with delinquents. They point out that at present the schools offer very little special training for personnel who work or who plan to work in agencies officially concerned with the treatment and control of delinquent children, yet the educational needs of this personnel are great. The authors explain how this situation came about and then outline ways in which the schools can take some degree of responsibility for preparing each of the different groups of personnel involved. Considerable readjustment of attitude and practice on the part of both the schools and the agencies and institutions concerned will be necessary, the authors maintain, before much can be accomplished toward getting trained workers. Suggestions are offered for the solution of a number of the serious practical problems that will have to be faced in setting up new programs of education and training, including the problem of financing.

The second paper, by Ben S. Meeker, deals with the need for a staff development program for juvenile probation officers who for one reason or another cannot attend a graduate school of social work and who probably could not do so even if the program outlined in the Studt-Chernin paper were to be realized. After first stressing the desirability of recruiting the best qualified persons possible and of making proper use of personnel, Mr. Meeker describes a number of ways in which in-service training can be offered. These include supervision, staff meetings, use of consultants, institutes and workshops, etc. (Twenty-five methods are suggested in the workshop discussion of the Meeker paper.) An important point made by Mr. Meeker is that although the responsibility for planning and carrying out a staff development program may be that of the local court, most courts are unable to perform this task adequately, because of their small size or other such reason. It becomes incumbent, then, for the State to help in staff development of local courts. Mr. Meeker advocates the employment at the State level of one or more full-time consultants on staff development, who would offer training assistance for the local agency both directly and indirectly.

In the third paper, Susanne Schulze and Morris Fritz Mayer discuss the perplexing problems related to the training of those very important staff members in institutions for delinquents—the houseparents. The authors deplore the conditions under which houseparents presently work and the lack of standardization for their job. They identify the various parts of this job and briefly but penetratingly indicate how each should be carried out. Then they discuss in some detail a number of methods by which training can be offered houseparents. The authors conclude this discussion by stating that the only really satisfactory training for houseparents is professional social work training. Recognizing, however, that few houseparents are academically qualified for such training and that few schools of

social work are currently equipped to offer it to an appreciable number of candidates, the authors propose an interim program of semiprofessional training for houseparents, one in which the training offered them would not only better fit them for their own jobs but would also equip them so that they could go on, after further training, to become probation officers. In other words, it would be part of training for a career. Schulze and Mayer suggest that this semiprofessional training be given over the period of an academic year; an outline of the proposed content of the training is included. The workshop group differed with the authors on this point, questioning the advisability of extending professional training to houseparents at this time.

The last paper included here, my own, was written after the Madison conference on the basis of the other papers and the workshop discussions. It was my responsibility to highlight some of the significant points made in the other papers, to explore their implications, and to focus attention more sharply on possible specific solutions to some of the problems defined.

From these general comments the reader may have noted that a certain basic assumption was made in all these papers. This assumption is that the training of court and institutional workers involved in the direct treatment of adjudicated delinquent children is primarily a concern and responsibility of the social work profession. Some readers may question this assumption.

For example, it may be pointed out that at least 20 universities and colleges in various parts of the country currently offer, under various names, specialized curricula in correctional work. What of these courses? Should they not be considered? The answer to these questions is that from the point of view of the writers of these papers and of the participants at the Madison conference, these programs have the fatal flaw of failing to provide for adequate training in social casework and group work. Such skills are essential for the great majority of functional positions with which these papers are concerned. The defect of the specialized correctional curricula in this respect alone has seemed sufficient reason to rule them out of consideration.

Another argument against them is the fact that many of them are offered at the undergraduate level, a practice running counter to the present trend in American higher education, which emphasizes the importance of a broad educational background rather than undergraduate specialization in a single field. The question here is similar to that faced in overall social work education, that is, whether there should be social work specialization during undergraduate training. This question has been resolved for the most part by putting social work education at the graduate school level. Because the same basic skills are involved, the same answer seems to apply to corrections work.

A final observation that might be made is that although the decision not to consider the various specialized curricula in corrections represents a definite bias on the part of the authors of these reports, it is a bias that has

strong support from many organizations laboring to raise professional standards in this field.⁵

At the same time, this rejection of specialized correctional training programs in favor of social work education should not be interpreted to mean that there is universal or even widespread agreement that the training that graduates of accredited schools of social work receive prepares them completely for work in treatment and control of delinquent juveniles. In fact, the first paper in this volume is concerned primarily with existing deficiencies or what seem to be deficiencies in social work education, as reflected in the performance of graduate social workers in this field. In other words, even as they accepted the idea that education for treatment of juvenile delinquents is a primary concern and responsibility of the social work profession, the authors of these papers and the participants at the Madison conference recommended definite steps that should be taken to provide for a better discharge of that responsibility.

The problems defined in this volume are complex. The solutions are also complex and may be difficult to attain. But there must surely be many persons who share the conviction of the Madison conference group that the quality of services to delinquent children *must* be improved if these services are to be expected to prove effective. With all of today's interest in juvenile delinquency, it seems clear that one reasonable step to take is to apply existing knowledge to the situation. Therefore, as radical as they may seem and as difficult as they may be to put into effect, the remedies to problems suggested in these papers should not be considered impractical. They offer some hope of tangible improvement within a reasonably short time. They deserve to be tried.

⁵ See *Recommended Standards for Services for Delinquent Children* (U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau, Washington 25, D. C., 1953). See also *Standards for the Selection of Probation and Parole Personnel* (National Probation and Parole Association, New York, 1952; mimeo.).

*the role of the school of social work
in educating and training personnel
for work with juvenile delinquents*

ELLIOT STUDT and MILTON CHERNIN*

**INTRODUCTION: VARIOUS ASPECTS OF THE
PROBLEM**

It might help to clarify discussion related to educating and training personnel for work with juvenile delinquents if this work were identified in terms of the social processes of which it is a part.

Juvenile delinquents are children and young people who, for a variety of reasons, have not conformed to the demands of social living as defined by law. Evidently these young people must be controlled; the community must be protected from further risk. At the same time these children must be helped to adjust more favorably to the requirements of community living so that they can take their rightful place again in normal community life.

Society has given the main responsibility for this dual job of control and rehabilitation of delinquent children to certain official agencies, such as the juvenile courts and their probation departments, detention facilities, and training schools. These agencies exercise a semiparental type of supervision over delinquent children and youth. They are functionally a part of society's program of child welfare, along with all the other agencies that provide substitute care for young people who lack adequate parental support and guidance. In some States and communities, these agencies are administratively organized within the child welfare system.

At the same time, these agencies charged with the treatment and control of juvenile delinquents are also related to the agencies responsible for the correction of adult offenders. There are differences as well as similarities between these two groups of agencies. The agencies that deal with children

*Elliot Studt is Assistant Professor of Social Welfare and Milton Chernin is Professor of Social Welfare and Dean of the School of Social Welfare, at the University of California, Berkeley. Mrs. Studt undertook the major responsibility for this paper.

have in general been able to progress further in providing for the welfare of their charges than have the agencies for adult offenders with theirs. Because of society's understanding of the particular status and needs of children and youth, the juvenile system offers many special procedures, safeguards, and services that often are not provided for adult offenders. Also, the juvenile agencies are usually administratively organized apart from the adult correctional agencies. Finally, the laws governing juvenile agencies reflect particularly the belief that "treatment should fit the offender" rather than that "punishment should fit the crime."

But with all these differences, there remain certain essential similarities to be found in work with offenders, whether they are juveniles or adults. Both groups of agencies, for example, exercise a legal responsibility for supervision of the offender and are responsible for the protection of the community while seeking his rehabilitation. Both must seek to solve the riddle of the "acting-out" personality who so often becomes an offender. Because of such similarities in basic concerns, the official agencies for delinquency control and treatment are inevitably a part of the total correctional system of society. Therefore, any development of educational services for one group will have useful implications for the other group. However, the focus of this paper is directed particularly to the educational problems that arise in regard to personnel who work with juvenile delinquents.

Still another group of agencies whose personnel work with juvenile delinquents are the public and private agencies that offer services to delinquents along with other children, providing them, for example, with foster care, psychiatric treatment, leisure time activities, or medical care. Such agencies generally accept delinquents on a selective basis, according to the needs of the children, their "treatability," and other such qualifications. For the purpose of this discussion, these are called "auxiliary service agencies," while the agencies charged by the community with direct responsibility for juvenile delinquents are called "official agencies."

Personnel to be reached

There are, then, two large groups of personnel whose educational needs are of concern in work with delinquents.

Persons in the first group, which is perhaps the larger of the two, are exclusively devoted to the care of delinquents. These are the personnel employed in the official agencies. They affect the lives of all legally determined juvenile delinquents, maintain basic legal responsibility even for those who are referred to other agencies, and provide the majority of juvenile delinquents with whatever rehabilitative services they receive. The second group of personnel consists of workers in those agencies that accept juvenile delinquents as well as other persons for service and treatment.

On the whole the schools of social work have been more successful in

educating workers for the second group of agencies than for the first. After much intensively documented experience, the schools have developed a well-defined program of education for social workers who become child welfare workers, medical workers, psychiatric workers, group workers, and so on. Insofar as workers in official agencies perform regular child welfare functions, the schools of social work offer them an established curriculum. However, in regard to other aspects of work in official agencies—the identification with the authoritative setting and the skills required in work with "acting-out" personalities, for example—the schools have so far had little to offer personnel in these agencies. The key problems in identification of educational needs of delinquency workers therefore seem to center around the first group of workers, as defined above.

The assumptions of the schools of social work up to this time concerning the preparation of workers for official agencies, have been of three kinds. One is that preparation in such a field as child welfare or psychiatric social work is essential for good social work in these agencies. An alternative assumption is that any social work education is sufficient preparation for the worker who takes a job with an official agency. Stemming from this second assumption, the third is that if there are still other skills and knowledges required by the individual who seeks employment in an official agency, they are of such an order that the agency itself should assume responsibility for teaching them.

In spite of these assumptions and of the affirmation by leaders in the field of delinquency treatment and control that social work education is appropriate for many positions in the field, it remains true that few professionally educated social workers seek employment in the official agencies. Also, by and large there is limited understanding between workers in official agencies and other social workers in the community. Finally, many employers report that in their experience professionally educated social workers are poorly prepared for work in agencies officially concerned with juvenile delinquents.

Education for work with delinquents in an authoritative setting has not always been the stepchild of social work. Until about 1920, correctional work of all kinds was considered a major area of social work concern. In the last 30 years, however, a number of developments have contributed to create distance between corrections and professional social work. These developments include the focusing of social work attention on the client who asks for help, and the claim by some social workers that casework, as defined professionally, "cannot be done in an authoritative agency." While social work in many settings was developing highly refined techniques of individualized treatment, the agencies officially concerned with juvenile and adult offenders were having to invest their energies in the long, slow process of legislative and administrative reform. As a result of these differences in focus and pace of development, by 1940 questions were being raised as to whether work with adjudicated offenders should properly be considered a part of social work and whether the schools of social work

could equip personnel for such work. Serious thought was being given to the idea that there should be a separate correctional profession.

Major problems affecting educational programs

Struck by the divergence between accepted standards and the actual relationship between the schools of social work and juvenile treatment and adult correctional agencies, the University of California School of Social Welfare at Berkeley some 4 years ago assigned a member of its staff to examine the needs of such agencies in northern California for educational services from the school. School and field joined in exploring and locating problems and in devising experimental educational projects. Recent interviews with professional social workers and agency executives on the East Coast indicate that the findings of this survey apply generally.

Five major problems were identified. The first two problems involve practice of the schools of social work. The second two refer to aspects of correctional and treatment agency organization that adversely affect the development of professional staff within the agencies. The fifth relates to the orientation of workers in auxiliary service agencies.

The first problem is reflected in the frequent complaint by employers in official agencies and by professional social workers who have taken jobs with such agencies that schools of social work do not properly prepare their graduates to work with delinquents in an authoritative setting. This problem does not arise from unwillingness of the agency to introduce a new employee to specific aspects of the job. Nor does it primarily stem from—although it may be intensified by—the fact that most of the official agencies have not yet been able to employ a sufficient number of professional workers to provide the supporting climate that would enable a new employee to find quick solutions to the problem of job adjustment. The dissatisfactions reported are of a more serious order than even a professional climate or good job orientation can be expected to correct. In fact they seem to relate to basic orientation, philosophy, and skills.

Among the problems that the social worker faces in an authoritative setting are such matters as integrating *helping* with *controlling* functions, learning about a clientele which is different in many ways from that in other social agencies, and developing teamwork with judges and police. For both employee and employer such tasks are made more difficult by the fact that the new employee must accomplish them while adjusting to the pressures of a public job. Professional social work graduates who go into such work find different solutions for the strenuous adjustment required of them. Some withdraw, saying, "Casework cannot be done in correctional agencies." Others, as they report, "throw the book away." Some, of course, are able to sort out the generic core of knowledge and skills that they bring from their professional education and to adapt it for the practice of treatment work in an authoritative setting while learning supplementary skills as they practice. But any of these solutions takes time and causes more disorganization in work than should be necessary. Employers be-

lieve it ought to be possible to obtain graduates from schools of social work who could begin immediately to gear their professional education to the demands of the job.

A second major problem area has arisen from the fact that professional social workers who act as consultants to official agencies and as teachers of their personnel have not always adapted their recommendations and subject matter to the needs of the field. Such mistaken application of professional knowledge has often had unfortunate results. For example, the establishment of a treatment division so that it was attached only peripherally to an official agency provided for a structurally built-in conflict between control and treatment. An in-service training program in which there was a failure of communication between professional teachers and employees succeeded in crystallizing latent rejection of "casework." In some instances unrealistically conceived qualifications have been written into civil service specifications.

Both of these first two problems are caused in part by the lack of development in social work of the specific knowledge that would be most useful to the correctional and authoritative treatment field. The generic body of social work knowledge developed in the last 20 years covers a wide range, and many areas are filled in with rich illustrative material. However, on examining the framework of social work theory, one can see that there are still many gaps that require elaboration. These include: how to meet resistances brought by the individual who does not want help; the therapeutic management of the authority relationship; the nature and needs of the "acting-out" personalities who stay away from most social agencies but who get onto correctional caseloads; and the treatment skills most effective with such personalities. It is obvious that both for the sake of the delinquency treatment and control field and for the enrichment of social work knowledge, it is important to examine official agency practice in order to develop these areas of theory. To this examination persons experienced in authoritative treatment and control, whether professionally educated or not, have much to contribute.

Complicating this particular problem is the fact that much teaching of official agency personnel, now and perhaps for some time in the future, must be focused on helping public workers with heavy caseloads do their daily jobs better. Social work teachers who are skilled in helping students but who lack firsthand information about practice in official agencies often have found it difficult to select and present material that will meet the needs of workers on the job. More analysis of the training needs of different groups of personnel is needed, as well as development of teaching methods appropriate for each group. Careful selection of the circumstances in which professional social work knowledge is appropriate should be made, and a mutual respect between field and school for the skills and knowledge of each should be developed.

A third problem centers on employment conditions that discourage professionally educated social workers from seeking positions with official

agencies. These conditions are as much a headache for the administrators in the field as for the school of social work advisors who seek to encourage new graduates to enter the field. They include the effect of political appointment on continuity of professional programs; the effect of civil service restrictions on mobility of employment; the rigidifying effect of seniority priorities on supervisory positions; the lack of recognition of professional competence in the rewards built into the structure of the agency; low salaries; and the pressure of overlarge caseloads. Although some agencies have nearly overcome these conditions, to a greater or less extent they negatively affect recruitment of professional workers for employment by the official agencies and correspondingly decrease the demand by students for instruction in relevant subject matter.

The fourth problem in this list is not yet well documented. It arises from the fact that many official agencies have established certain kinds of internal administrative arrangements in order to achieve administrative efficiencies or to carry out custody and control regulations. These arrangements at times seriously interfere with truly effective help to clients.

Certain misconceptions seem to be at the root of this problem. Social workers have not truly come to terms with the question of how one helps within an authoritative structure. They often criticize or seek to weaken aspects of organizational structure that are necessary to maintain the basic functions of social control. Administrators, on the other hand, sometimes maintain organizational forms and procedures that are not actually necessary and that hinder service to the client out of all proportion to their value. Administrators and professional workers have not yet jointly engaged in close scrutiny of what structures and procedures can best serve both the needs of the client and the protection of the community.

This problem is often reflected in the ways in which supervisory structure is established in the agency, with its distribution of professional responsibility among professional supervisors, administrative personnel, judge, and consulting psychiatrist. The problem also becomes apparent in discussions about the separation between investigation and probation functions, about procedures for use of detention, and about the way the court hearing is structured in relation to the treatment process. There needs to be much more joint thinking about how the organization of the agency affects the experience of the client and the ability of the worker to give service and how modifications in procedure can integrate helping and control in one fabric.

The fifth and final problem affecting educational programs for workers with delinquents relates primarily to the personnel of the auxiliary agencies mentioned, those that provide services for offenders but do not carry the major supervisory responsibility of the official agencies. Although this group of personnel would also benefit from the knowledge of how to help delinquents, they need most a clearer understanding of the problems and responsibilities of the workers in official agencies, a group with whom they should develop partnership relationships. For the school of social work this problem highlights the importance of formulating information about

the official delinquency treatment and control services and integrating it into educational programs for all social workers.

Overall tasks to be solved jointly by school and field

It is evident that no one of these problems will be solved by itself. The joint efforts of theoreticians, educators, administrators, and practitioners will be needed to make social work education significantly useful to the correctional field. Solving problems for juvenile treatment agencies should be seen as part of the more inclusive effort to develop professional services throughout the whole field of corrections. Such investment and focus of energy will only be achieved if there is common agreement that a significant part of social work practice lies in the correctional field and that social work education has a major contribution to make to the education and training of correctional personnel.

If there is such common agreement, then a genuine commitment to development of professional services to offenders through the official agencies and through auxiliary services will require that several major, interdependent tasks be undertaken.

One task involves sociological analysis and conceptualization to develop the theoretical framework within which the social meaning of delinquency and its causation, the role of law, the processes of justice, and the help that society affords its offenders can be understood as part of one system.

A second task is that of technically examining professional practice in the field of delinquency control and treatment, of formulating theories of practice in this field as a part of the main body of social work theory, and of organizing this material in a fashion suitable for teaching.

The third is an educational task in which the schools of social work analyze the educational needs of personnel who work with delinquents, determine the responsibilities of the schools for these needs, and develop varied programs for these persons.

The fourth task is an administrative one, involving: modification of the employment practices of official agencies so as to attract professionally educated personnel and to reward professional competence as well as experience; organization of supervision within official agencies for the professional development of staff; and modification of the structure of services so that treatment needs as well as control requirements are served.

Although these tasks have been described with the needs of the whole correctional field in mind, they apply in every respect to work with juvenile delinquents. Achievement of the total program will require specific attention to agencies that deal with delinquent children and youth.

EDUCATIONAL TASK PRIMARY FOR SCHOOLS

The long-run responsibilities of school and field require the successful accomplishment of all the tasks discussed above. This paper, however, is mainly concerned with the educational task, the third of the four tasks

mentioned above. The remainder of this paper will therefore be devoted to an analysis of this particular area.

In exploration of the educational needs of personnel working with delinquents, the following questions would seem to be the principal ones to be considered:

Which of the personnel who work with juvenile delinquents have educational and training needs of concern to schools of social work?

What are the responsibilities of schools of social work in relation to those educational and training needs?

What might constitute a reasonable 10-year program for any school of social work that seeks to meet these needs?

What aspects of such a program are most urgent and need immediate attention?

An effort will be made here to suggest answers to the first two of these questions. The last two, it is hoped, will be answered in conference discussion as the material presented here is reviewed.¹

Groups of personnel with needs of concern to schools

Within the agencies that serve juvenile delinquents, there is a broad range of positions. Insofar as the work of employees who hold these positions may affect the delinquent's attitudes and the adjustment of his relationship to society, that work is part of the rehabilitative service. All such employees should have some education and training for the services they offer. Because of the nature of these services, schools of social work have a definite responsibility to contribute to this education and training for all levels of personnel.

Employees of agencies serving delinquent children and youth who might play a significant role in the rehabilitative process can be classified as follows:

1. **Administrative personnel.** This class includes those employees who may not work directly with the clients but who plan the overall program within which services are given and who, through policy determination and supervision of staff, affect the service given to the client.

2. **Personnel in social work positions within official agencies who are responsible for direct work with delinquent youth for the purposes of supervision and attitude change.** As the field is now organized, the great majority of this group consists of probation and parole officers. Also to be included are social group workers and caseworkers operating within institutions. Possibly other personnel in the official agencies may also have a primary responsibility for planning and executing the treatment program with an individual child or with groups of children.

¹ This hope was only partially realized. See "Summary of Workshop Discussion," beginning on p. 15.

It is this group of personnel who by and large will need to have basic professional education in order to discharge their duties properly. The characteristic function of this group of employees which differentiates their educational needs from those of professional workers in auxiliary agencies is that these workers, as employees of public authoritative agencies, must carry out control functions of the official agencies.

So far as educational programs are concerned, two subgroups can be identified in this classification:

- (a) those who will not be able to secure full professional education, even though they may need it; and
- (b) those who will be able to avail themselves of such education.

3. Houseparents and other attendant personnel. Chiefly to be found in detention facilities and training schools and including group supervisors, kitchen personnel, and various work supervisors, these personnel contribute to the treatment process primarily through their impact on the daily living experience of persons held in institutions.

4. Various other specialists exercising their occupational skills. This class includes psychiatrists, doctors, nurses, teachers, various therapists, occupational specialists, librarians, chaplains, and other professional individuals.

5. Personnel in auxiliary service agencies who work in partnership with the official agencies. These workers come from all areas of social work practice, because the official agencies call on all community agencies in building rehabilitative programs for the young people they serve.

These employees together create the experiences that help the delinquent find an acceptable adjustment for himself within the realities of his situation.

The difficulty experienced in efforts to raise standards of service to delinquents has often resulted from a failure to recognize that all of these employees are important in the treatment process. Too often there has been an uncritical assumption that the addition of specialized personnel of one sort or another will strategically affect the delinquent's response to treatment. It must be kept in mind that delinquency is a social as well as a psychological disturbance. Essential to any treatment program, therefore, is the provision of an overall social structure within which the delinquent can begin to have successful and positive experiences in relationship to society. The homogeneity of the agency which represents society to the delinquent is of primary importance in giving him that new educational experience.

The first principle of a plan for educational help to the field of delinquency treatment and control is that educational needs of *all* personnel who contribute to the rehabilitative experience of the individual delinquent must be considered and met if effective impact is to be made on his life. Recogn-

nition of the contribution of all personnel to the rehabilitative effort and of the need of all groups for educational services does not imply that the same education is required by all employees. Rather, the job skills of each group of personnel should be defined and, then, specifically oriented educational programs should be devised.

Responsibility of schools in relation to each of these groups

At this particular stage in the development of educational and training programs for workers with delinquent children and youth, perhaps no task is more urgent than that professional educators and personnel on the job collaborate in undertaking a close examination of practice. One way in which such an examination can take place is in the development of in-service training programs and extension courses, wherein there is joint exploration of training needs and organization of resources for training. Participation in such programs offers the social work teacher an opportunity to learn at first hand the problems of workers at all levels of employment, to discover how each job dovetails with the others in the rehabilitative design, and to secure fresh case material. Cooperation in these programs also provides an important instrument for agency administrators to create a work climate that will encourage the exercise of more advanced professional skills.

At any period in the relationship between schools of social work and the field, the schools may well accept some responsibilities for the education and training of all five groups of personnel mentioned above. The faculty of a school can benefit from the contribution to social work knowledge and skill from practice in all of these areas and therefore should keep continuously aware of the interrelationships among personnel in the various phases of work with delinquents. Also, social work has formulations and skills that are useful to some extent to all classes of personnel who contribute to the rehabilitative process.

However, the responsibility to be borne by the schools of social work will be greater or less from one period of time to another and from one group, institution, or agency to another. The schools would evidently need to assume more responsibility for help when the agencies lack professional personnel and less responsibility when the agencies have within their structures persons who are able to plan and maintain in-service training programs.

With this understanding, then, that the schools will always have to bear some responsibility for all groups but that the full extent of responsibility will vary according to the needs of each group at a particular time, a tentative analysis of the schools' responsibility for each of the groups listed above can be suggested. The groups are ranked here according to the degree of the responsibility of the schools believed appropriate for them rather than by their order in the previous discussion.

1. Personnel in auxiliary service agencies. It would seem that schools of social work should carry primary responsibility for insuring that those of

their graduates who are employed by auxiliary agencies providing services to juvenile delinquents will understand the nature of the problems to be found in the agencies' caseloads and also the functions of workers in the official agencies. Proper discharge of such responsibility requires that the schools offer more than just elective courses on an informational level. Rather, case material drawn from work in the authoritative setting should be incorporated into the generic courses concerned with personality, methods, and settings. All social workers can benefit from understanding the ways in which the helping process operates in the official agency. Recognition by professional social workers of the problems found in this area and of the skills required of workers in official agencies would go far toward increasing the effectiveness of case conferences and referrals and toward developing a more flexible partnership between official agencies and other agencies in the community.

2. Administrative and various specialist personnel. The schools of social work should accept some responsibility for the training needs of administrative and specialist personnel, although as yet there is little experience in this area. The University of California School of Social Welfare at Berkeley has found that individuals from both these groups attend the regular annual institute offered by the school to personnel in the correctional field, and there has been an increasing number of requests for workshops addressed to their needs. Administrators have asked particularly for help with problems relating to in-service training, supervision of staff, and research. Other professional specialists have been interested in programs that would focus on the team approach to helping delinquents. So far, work in meeting these requests has been experimental and variously successful. With each year's experimentation, however, school and field move forward in defining those areas in which the school can be of help to specialists whose education is primarily in another discipline.

3. Houseparents and other attendant personnel. The participation of the schools of social work in training houseparents and other such institutional staff is limited at this point by the fact that social work formulations in the institutional field as a whole are to a large extent underdeveloped. Both child welfare casework and group work specialists have contributions to make in the selection and orientation of materials that relate to problems of group living.

The chief hazard in offering courses to houseparents and similar personnel seems to lie in the dependence of such workers on the total institutional design for the success or failure of their efforts. All programs from the outside which seek to reach personnel in the lower echelons should be organized in the light of administrative problems and goals; otherwise the results may prove of little value for either staff or children being treated.

4. Personnel in social work positions who offer direct rehabilitative service but who will not be able to secure full professional education. The schools of social work have important responsibilities for the training

of this group of personnel. At the present time the group includes a large proportion of probation and parole officers and their supervisors. It is not yet clear whether their positions can be broken down into subgroups, whereby some employees will require full professional education and others can satisfactorily discharge their responsibilities with less than full professional education. After careful analysis it may become evident that either the nonprofessional employees in this group will continue to have a significant role in the official agencies, thereby necessitating provision of a technical curriculum for their training, or they will gradually become fewer in number as fully qualified professional personnel become available.

The present employment practices of the official agencies make this group extremely heterogeneous so far as educational background is concerned. The group includes many individuals with valuable skills derived from experience, as well as personnel who are antagonistic to social work principles and newcomers to the field who can rapidly make use of professional orientations. On the whole it is a group that can express most clearly to the social work teacher the problems and burdens of the man on the job. Because it is a large group that will for some time to come carry an important share of delinquency treatment and control work, social work schools should seriously consider what they can contribute to plans of administrators for training this group of personnel.

There are various methods that the schools can use to help agencies raise the level of performance of this group of personnel. Contributions to in-service training programs and institutes are useful to some extent. At the University of California School of Social Welfare at Berkeley there has been an increasing number of requests for a subprofessional curriculum to be offered through extension courses and to be credited by agency administrators to the personnel records of those who successfully complete such courses. Among the specific courses that have been requested are law for workers with adjudicated delinquents, casework in an authoritative setting, supervision of staff, and skills in group living programs. Such courses need to be focused on helping workers improve their daily practice on the job and so should draw illustrative material from agency settings familiar to the students. The selection of teachers for such courses is particularly important, since they will be asked for practical help and must be willing to focus on development on the job rather than on overall professional development.

5. Workers in official agencies who need and can arrange for full professional training. Preparation of social workers to serve in official agencies is a primary responsibility of the schools of social work. This group of personnel would include both students who intend to enter this field but who have not yet had formal work experience and personnel already in the field who desire and can arrange to secure full professional training.

Before a program of educational experiences can be devised by the schools

of social work for this group, the schools will need to be informed by the agencies how they expect to use professionally equipped personnel. Such questions as the following should be answered: Which positions require that the incumbents have graduate social work education? Does the agency anticipate that ultimately the large majority of its jobs will be filled by social work graduates, or is the agency planning to designate key positions, such as intake worker, supervisor, and workers on caseloads of special difficulty, to be filled by professionally qualified persons? Does the agency plan to give educational leave to experienced workers now incumbent in the positions? Is the plan of the agency to employ professional workers at the lowest grade and wait for the effect of seniority to accomplish professionalization of services?

These questions all affect the extent of student demand for subject matter oriented to employment in an official agency, the selection of curriculum experiences, and the success of recruitment of new graduates for such work.

Two further considerations will also affect the program that schools of social work offer students who express interest in work with an official agency. First, since for some time to come graduate social workers who go into such work will be employed by agencies in which only a small percentage of staff have professional education, such students may need special preparation over and above their generic education. Secondly, development of teaching content in connection with work with juvenile offenders in an authoritative setting will require three kinds of activity: (1) the assembling of knowledge already developed in other settings which is appropriate to work in the authoritative setting; (2) close examination of practice in official agencies; and (3) integration of specially developed knowledge from the entire correctional field into the whole body of social work theory.

Special aspects of a school's program of full professional training for delinquency workers

Some attention might be given to several other respects in which the schools of social work will need to examine their programs to prepare professional social workers for service in official agencies.

Selection of applicants to the schools, and advice to students concerning employment plans. There is some evidence that certain personality traits are more useful in an authoritative setting than in other settings. In general, work in such a setting requires quick decision making, the ability to take responsibility, and the ability to exercise social controls. Both the schools of social work in their admission practices and the official agencies in their choice of workers to be released for professional education, should evidently give careful consideration to candidates' possession of these strengths or of their ability to develop them.

Provision of special subject matter. Different schools will undoubtedly use different methods for introducing material especially needed by the

student who plans to work in an official agency. By whatever means it is offered, however, the student will need instruction in the following conceptual subject matter:

1. The functions of the official agencies; their social responsibilities; historical background of the problems of such agencies; their interrelationships with law enforcement and the courts; the various institutional and extramural programs and the treatment possibilities of each; the place of these agencies in community services.
2. The nature of the delinquency caseload, with particular attention to the selective factors that bring individuals into difficulty with the law, including social class membership, types of personality difficulty, and particular deprivations. There should also be consideration of the psychological effect on an offender of the experience with law enforcement and judicial agencies and of the way a minority culture tends to develop among delinquents who share such common experiences as apprehension, police interrogation, detention, court proceedings, and so on.
3. The role of the worker in the official agency, with special attention to the supervisory, or controlling, function as it affects the helping function and to the adaptations required in professional practice by the nature of the caseload and the worker's function.

Development of field placements in official agencies. The field placement is the most important method by which a school can introduce a student to the actual work of official agencies. However, many agencies presently lack a fully developed system of professional supervision. Ways must be found to overcome this serious handicap. Funds to support beginning efforts are needed. Assignment of school-paid supervisors to agencies should be tried on a demonstration basis. Inventive school and agency personnel who agree that the only restriction on an educational program is that its elements be demonstrably necessary to produce a good educational experience will be able to devise projects that will be valuable, if at times unorthodox. Agency administrators can hasten development of a good field training program by employing graduate social workers and placing them strategically. The school can assist by offering seminars on supervision to those who might qualify as field instructors.

In all such efforts it is important that student work be integrated into the regular agency services, and not tacked on as a protected, specialized service. Students in such placements should be encouraged to think of themselves as playing a part in a pioneer development, with an opportunity to learn from agency deficiencies as well as from agency achievements. School consultants to agencies accepting placements should be persons who have a sympathetic understanding of work in official agencies and who are willing to learn how professional social work can best be adapted to the authoritative setting. It should not be assumed that work with juvenile delinquents in a nonauthoritative agency will provide the same preparation

for work with delinquents in an authoritative setting as does a placement in an official agency.

CONCLUSIONS

If this broad range of possible contributions of schools of social work to the education and training needed for work with juvenile delinquents is accepted as constituting the framework within which a particular educational program can be defined, then each school of social work, in cooperation with the agencies most concerned, should determine what assistance it can give to the development of the field and what portions of the total plan will be most useful in a particular locality.

A worthwhile task that might be undertaken in conference discussion would be to outline a series of goals for social work education in relation to work with juvenile delinquents for the next 10 years, and to indicate what steps should have priority in the light of the needs of the field. Certain considerations need to be kept in mind in the development of such a statement of goals:

The problem is not one of development of social work education alone, but implies joint effort by field and school to improve professional services to delinquent children and youth.

Rapid development of this area of practice and of theory will require assignment of specially prepared personnel to perform this educational task. It cannot be assumed that the job of formulation and instruction can be done by social workers who have had no experience with the official services for delinquents. The recruitment and development of new educational personnel may be necessary.

Money as well as time will have to be invested for progress on all the essential fronts. Money is needed both for scholarships and for field instruction units.

All the educational personnel in social work should be involved in the task of integrating material about work with juvenile delinquents into the total social work curriculum.

*summary of workshop discussion**

The conference section on "The Role of the School of Social Work in Educating and Training Personnel for Work with Juvenile Delinquents" used the working paper primarily to determine an outline for its own discussion of the subject matter. However, in the course of formulating an agenda, conference participants introduced a number of basic issues that first required discussion.

Many of the criticisms made of social work education for work with

*This summary was also prepared by Mrs. Studt and Mr. Chernin.

juvenile delinquents are believed to be valid for all social work education. The discussants saw themselves faced with educational and professional issues that challenge all social work schools and for which, at this time, there are no uniformly accepted solutions. The section agreed that it would focus on the task of determining what education is needed by those who work with juvenile delinquents, and that it would avoid trying to resolve broader social work controversies. It was assumed that different schools of social work would experiment with different educational provisions and that enrichment of curriculum for educating persons to work with juvenile delinquents would be attempted in many different ways, depending on the interest and structure of each school.

Having decided to focus on content rather than on the organization of educational programs, the section had to determine the relationship of this to-be-identified content to the whole body of recognized social work theory. Common questions about this content expressed by those in the social work profession are: "Does such content belong in social work at all?" and, "Is not the education presently offered by schools of social work sufficient as a generic base for work with juvenile delinquents as well as with other clients?"

The conference group therefore discussed the whole question of whether or not, in focusing on educational needs for work with delinquent clients, we are ignoring or denying the progress made in identifying what is useful for work with all clients.

The answer to this question generally agreed upon by the section may be stated as follows: Whatever education is determined to be necessary for helping juvenile delinquents is a proper part of social work knowledge and educational responsibility. Social work theory as a whole provides a framework within which knowledge needed for treating juvenile delinquents can properly be organized. However, because of the sporadic development of treatment techniques and procedures for juvenile delinquents, organized knowledge about such work is less well developed and illustrated than in many other fields. Much must still be done, therefore, to fill out those sections within the framework of social work theory that apply to the needs of delinquents. In the process of elaborating knowledge about the work with these clients, a valuable contribution will be made to all areas of social work practice. Some of the knowledge and skills to be identified as necessary for work with juvenile delinquents will be found essential for all social workers, some important for all workers with delinquents, and some pertinent only for those who work in the official agencies.

Another basic consideration requiring discussion was identification of the personnel in the wide range of services for juvenile delinquents on whose educational needs the workshop would focus. The discussants accepted in essence the analysis of groups of personnel as given in the working paper. They suggested, however, that in the future some groups of personnel not at present thought to need graduate education in schools of social work may be found to require graduate education of a kind not now

available in such schools. The possibility of technical programs for certain groups of institutional houseparents, referees, and other such personnel was suggested.

With these clarifications, the group accepted as its agenda:

1. The identification of areas of content that should be included in the education of professional social work personnel for work with juvenile delinquents.
2. The designation of methods that might be used by schools of social work in various ways to provide such content.

ON CONTENT

The need for special skills and knowledge in treatment of juvenile delinquents was seen to arise from the nature and needs of delinquent children and the nature of work in an authoritative setting. Such skills and knowledge, it was thought, would be useful to all social workers, but are especially needed for those who work with delinquents. Conference participants emphasized particularly the importance of professional examination of practice in order to define and document this content and to contribute it to the whole body of social work knowledge.

The group then went on to consider content under three headings: (1) information, (2) skill, and (3) philosophy.

Information

A number of conclusions were reached in this part of the discussion:

There is need for more specific knowledge of *behavior* than the average social worker seems to have. Especially important is more precise knowledge about the normal development of children and the ability to differentiate between behavior problems appropriate to different developmental stages and behavior problems that are pathological. Professional workers need to know more about the behavior of children in their normal living and social situations, supplementing knowledge of their behavior in office and therapeutic situations. Further documentation is needed of the differences in behavior between the "tough," "acting-out" delinquent and the aggressive neurotic with a lower potential for acting out.

There is need for more knowledge about the impact of group and environmental pressures on the individual, with particular attention to different subcultures as found in different neighborhoods, and to the influence of peer cultures on children of different ages.

Because of the extent of institutional care in this field, workers with juvenile delinquents need to be competent in total child care. The worker in an institution should understand the meaning and problems of bedtime and mealtime procedures, and the worker who prepares a child for an institutional or camp experience needs to be especially sensitive and equipped in these areas. Many families of delinquent children require specific help

and guidance in these everyday details of living in order to provide a more satisfactory socialization experience for their children.

Knowledge of many aspects of law, over and above that provided in the usual social work course on law, is needed for work with juvenile delinquents. The section did not analyze these aspects in detail. However, attention was given to the laws defining delinquent behavior and providing for treatment and control of adjudicated delinquents; to the trends in law, with particular attention to areas where further change is needed; to the rights of delinquents and their families in the legal process; and to the kind of orientation to the legal profession that would make contacts and relationship with judges and lawyers less difficult for social workers.

Better understanding of the growth of the correctional field and its present stage of development, with particular reference to the historical problems it has faced, was also thought to be important for social workers.

Skills

The conclusions reached by the group on this topic were as follows:

It is necessary that the worker with a delinquent child be skilled in helping him control his behavior so that he can be tolerated within a given setting while treatment is proceeding. Redl has given the term "manipulation of surface behavior" to this set of skills. This practice is needed both for the protection of the community within which the delinquent lives and for the social reeducation of the delinquent. The worker needs also to be able to help parents, teachers, and others who must live with a delinquent learn the techniques of keeping the delinquent's behavior within desirable limits.

Skills are needed in dealing with the very resistant individual. Social work has proportionately given too much emphasis to the development of skill for treating the articulate client who is able to ask for help because of awareness of inner suffering. Also, there has been a tendency to limit too strictly the definition of "readiness for help." There is real need for development and dissemination of skills for dealing with inner resistance to help and for helping clients *become* "ready for help."

The worker with a delinquent must involve the total community in the treatment process more than is usual in many casework agencies. The worker should interpret the delinquent's problem to all those who come in contact with him, help all authority figures to reformulate their relationship with him, and in general try to rebuild the social relationships that support the rehabilitative process.

The fact that the treatment process must be carried on by teamwork and within a setting that includes judges and police officers as well as psychiatrists and psychologists, means that special skills and understanding are required of the social worker who is a part of this team. Social workers have a tendency to feel that other members of a team must approach problems from the same point of view as themselves. At this time few social workers have learned to recognize and respect the particular roles and dis-

ciplines of legal and law enforcement personnel.

Because of the complex administrative aspects of work with delinquents and because many professional workers in the field move rapidly into administrative positions, it was agreed that workers with juvenile delinquents need knowledge and skill in the administration of services.

Philosophy

Particularly important in all work with juvenile delinquents are the relationship of the social worker to the authority that he represents and his use of authority in work with client and with community. The problem of authority cuts across areas of knowledge, skill, and philosophy. All social workers need comprehensive understanding of authority and the helping process. Some of the particular aspects of this problem that may affect education and training of social workers are as follows:

1. Authority is inherent in practically all social work practice. Workers in public assistance, child guidance, and medical social work, for example, all have different types of authority, varying from that of the "expert" to actual power to make vital decisions affecting the lives of others. For the sake of gaining better understanding of how authority in various settings can be used as part of the helping practice, jobs in such settings should be examined and the sources and extent of the authority in each case made explicit.

2. The social worker needs to understand the limitations of any setting in which he works and should be able to operate within the framework of the agency while seeking necessary improvements. Historical perspective concerning the agency's work and operations is important to this adjustment. The differences between the problems and development of the correctional field and those of other social welfare fields need to be documented and explained to social workers as part of their instruction in social process.

3. The problem a social worker may have in adjusting his work to the authority represented within an agency is usually related to the individual's own self-adjustment to authority.

4. The problem of authority in the official agency has appeared to be more acute than in other agencies because of a constellation of conditions and circumstances that cause authority to affect every aspect of service, thus creating intensity of feelings about the problem. The section discussed whether there was an essential difference between the authority problem in the field of delinquency treatment and control and that found in other fields of social work activity. Some believed the number and intensity of unique requirements in the official program for treating juvenile offenders created a real difference; others believed it was a matter of emphasis. Still others thought that within the broad problem area of authority, there is a variety of subareas, depending on the social function for which an agency or group

of agencies uses authority. All agreed, however, that the problem of authority in work with alleged or adjudicated delinquents is most important and that it manifests itself in the following ways:

- (a) The worker is at times dealing with an explicit drive from the community to punish the delinquent. At the same time, he must often deal with the attempts by some delinquents to provoke a punitive reaction from the worker. The worker is, therefore, often pressured from one or both sides to use his authority in a hostile manner.
- (b) A worker may find himself employed in an agency in which procedures and the conduct of personnel are unnecessarily punishing toward the delinquent client. As a professional social worker, he needs maturity and perspective to be able to identify with his agency while perceiving these aspects of the agency which conflict with his philosophy of helping.
- (c) Authority problems always exist for the social worker when he is practicing within a setting other than one directly under social work control and auspices. These problems are particularly aggravated in the official agency dealing with juvenile delinquents, for here the ultimate authority, regardless of the professional background of the administrator, must inevitably be closely directed by specific requirements of law.
- (d) The worker in our present-day official agencies frequently has to make decisions that seem punitive to the delinquent, whether they are meant to be or not. Many of such decisions, which may be clearly contrary to the delinquent's immediate good, have to be made because society has not provided the proper and necessary facilities for help to the delinquent.
- (e) The worker with juvenile delinquents is often in the position of having to make decisions on the basis of a calculated risk, since he wants to help the young delinquent but he must also consider his responsibilities to the community. The strain of such decision making may push the worker toward overcautiousness or toward resentment against the community, which frequently does not support him in his judgments and becomes vengeful when he proves mistaken.
- (f) The worker with juvenile delinquents must often think beyond the welfare of an individual and make decisions on the basis of the impact of that individual on a whole group, whose social adjustment can be improved or endangered depending on the addition or removal of a given individual.

Because of the complexity and intensity of the many problems involving use of authority in the field of work with juvenile delinquents, it is essential that a sober analysis of the relation of authority to helping be undertaken as a part of preparing workers in this field.

In all this discussion there were many implications affecting basic social work philosophy. The conference group thought that the following ideas needed emphasis or exploration:

1. Social work agencies and institutions are supported in order to aid persons to adjust to the norms of society, to develop their maximum potential, and thereby to insure a well-ordered social system. Social work is therefore an instrument of social control and, as such, is not wholly separate and apart from the more obvious means of social control exercised by authoritative agencies. Recognition of the resemblance and points of similarity will contribute to understanding of how the social work process can share in the work of authoritative agencies.

2. The worker's "acceptance" of his client is a basic concept of casework treatment, with the implication that the worker will show a nonjudgmental attitude toward the particular acts of the client. This is sometimes misinterpreted to mean that the social worker recognized no standards of behavior. If such were the case, the worker would be failing to appreciate that social norms are vital to the functioning of society. There is therefore needed a reinterpretation of the concept "acceptance of behavior" in the light of the degrees of conformity necessary to enable an individual to live in a community.

3. The problems inherent in dual responsibility—to client and community—are accentuated for the social worker by an authoritative setting. Clients in such a setting may be suffering penalties that the worker feels are the unfortunate result of a lag between social thinking and change in the law. This type of thinking may impede the worker's efforts to be of service. The worker who sees his client as a "victim of society" may also fail to perceive his responsibility to the agency he is serving. A detailed statement of ethical practices is therefore needed to cover these points, with particular reference to work in an authoritative setting. Special attention should be given the need for the worker to function within the current system of social values even while working toward social and legal change.

The section ended its discussion of content needed in the education of workers with juvenile delinquents by considering the following questions: Do we have all the knowledge we need for this educational content? If such knowledge is not available in social work, is it available in other disciplines? Or do we have to organize research for obtaining the necessary knowledge?

The section immediately agreed that social work has not collected all the knowledge that is needed. Many sources not yet fully tapped are rich deposits of knowledge for use. The child development field was mentioned as one offering much material on "what is normal." Social anthropology, social psychology, and sociology all offer much knowledge on effects of social class and ethnic group membership on behavior. It was further

agreed that some areas have never been properly studied. An example was "the child from 8 to 12." Analysis of areas about which more research is necessary interested the conference group; it was agreed that social work schools should pursue this type of inquiry further as a part of research programs.

ON METHODS

In the discussion of methods that could be used by schools of social work in developing a program for educating personnel for work with juvenile delinquents, a number of conclusions were reached.

It was agreed that any school that wishes to develop this educational area should assign a particular faculty member with experience in the field to the task, not to build a special educational structure but to coordinate field and school efforts in the educational process.

At this stage in development of an educational program, in-service training in many forms is probably equally important with graduate professional education.

Work with agencies should be at all levels and should be particularly focused on helping agencies create a total service design, so that both professional social workers going into the agencies and workers in in-service training programs may have a benign atmosphere within which to practice their developing skills.

Recruitment programs addressed both to undergraduates and to persons presently employed in the field are important. Advisory and selection programs of the schools of social work must be examined in the light of new areas of employment that will be opened. Thought should be given to the qualities needed by the person who will become employed in work with juvenile delinquents.

Case records need to be developed for use in all casework and group work methods courses to demonstrate work with delinquents in a variety of settings. It was recommended that the Council on Social Work Education and the Special Juvenile Delinquency Project (sponsored by the United States Children's Bureau) look into the possibility of developing a national committee to select appropriate case material.

The Council on Social Work Education should consult with individuals in the field of law in regard to strengthening the curriculum of the school of social work in this area.

Concepts as outlined in the section on content need to be identified and worked into the total social work curriculum.

In the development of field placements, a primary criterion for the selection of agencies should be the agency's willingness to enter into a creative partnership with the school in the preparation of professional personnel for work with juvenile delinquents.

Funds are needed to support projects in this educational program. Specifically, money is needed for teaching personnel, for field work placements, and for scholarships.

*training of juvenile court probation
officers and related workers who cannot
attend graduate school*

BEN S. MEEKER*

Many persons engaged in probation work do a commendable job by intuition. They are dedicated to their work and have, by conscientious service, interest, and persistence, achieved success. Historically, the same could be shown in teaching, medicine, or nursing. But no one suggests that persons in these professions should practice solely on an intuitive basis. It is well recognized, in both business and professional life that aptitude is not enough. With aptitude must go training.

To be of maximum assistance, a probation officer must be skilled in the techniques of social treatment. He should be trained to interpret symptoms of maladjustment, and be able to work with a child and his family so as to get at the cause of the child's delinquent behavior and suggest treatment that may bring about a change in his behavior. He should also be familiar with the resources of the community and be able to make use of them effectively. Knowledge, skill, and imagination are demanded if one is to help youngsters, their families, and the community solve the problem of juvenile delinquency.

KIND OF TRAINING NEEDED

There is fairly general agreement among groups of probation officers themselves as to the need for these skills and abilities and as to the training most appropriate to develop them. In the National Probation and Parole Association publication *The Juvenile Court Steps In*, it is pointed out that a probation staff "should be composed of social workers selected because of their native ability in working with people, but with the added advantage of professional training. Someone has said, 'interfering with other people's lives is no job for an amateur.' This is particularly true in handling a way-

*Ben S. Meeker is the chief United States probation officer for the Northern District of Illinois.

ward boy or girl."¹

In another place in the same publication it is said:

Probation does not mean just releasing a child with a reprimand or suspended sentence. Nor does it mean merely requiring him to report at stated intervals. It means untangling and straightening out the elements in his experience which got him into trouble, and aiding him in returning to a normal child's life. This is the method of social casework, identical with that of family welfare or other caseworking agencies, except that the juvenile court has legal responsibility for its young wards.

In a similar vein the New York State Probation Commission has held:

The probation officer is an officer of the law and of the court. It is not enough, however, for probation officers to understand and obey the letter of the law. The successful probation officer is more than an officer of the law; he is a social worker and establishes a relationship through the mind, the will, and the heart of his charge, which may be more binding than the law. Probation is fast [be]coming a profession with a growing fund of technical knowledge, which must be drawn upon by probation workers, if they expect to succeed.²

It seems apparent, then, that a basic knowledge of social casework would be of utmost value to a juvenile court probation officer. Therefore it appears safe to say that formal study in a graduate school of social work is the best basic professional training for general work in this field.

However, as one surveys the problems faced by the schools of social work and the current state of juvenile court administration, there is every reason to conclude that for some time to come the majority of juvenile court probation officers will not have an opportunity to obtain a professional degree in social work prior to entering this field.

According to a study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor, there are now some 75,000 positions in the United States classified as social work positions.³ Of this total some 45,000 positions are currently filled by workers who have had no formal graduate training for social work.

Just how many juvenile court probation officers fall within the group of workers in social work positions who have had no professional training, is not known. Studies show generally that except for some of the larger urban courts, professionally trained juvenile court workers are the exception. According to the National Probation and Parole Association directory for 1952, there are approximately 1,700 individuals in the United States who give local probation service exclusively to juveniles and an additional 2,000 who serve courts involving both juveniles and adults.⁴ The Bureau of Labor Statistics study referred to puts the number of persons

¹ Marjorie Bell, *The Juvenile Court Steps In* (National Probation and Parole Association, New York, undated), p. 13.

² A statement by the New York State Probation Commission entitled, "Probation Officer a Social Worker," *Federal Probation*, Vol. III, No. 2 (May 1939), p. 31.

³ *Social Workers in 1950* (American Association of Social Workers, New York, 1952), p. 3.

⁴ *Probation and Parole Directory—United States and Canada* (National Probation and Parole Association, New York, 1952), table entitled "No. of Probation and Parole Officers in U. S.," p. xii.

servicing juvenile courts at a little less than 2,000 and reveals that in 1950 only 1 out of 10 of them had completed graduate social work study. More than 4 out of 10 lacked a college degree.

The reason why many juvenile probation officers have no social work training is that recruiting standards for these positions are generally low. Even if standards were higher, it would still be impossible to obtain fully trained social workers for all these positions. The recent Hollis-Taylor report on professional social work education describes the dilemma of the professional schools of social work in the face of tremendous demands for social workers.⁵ The schools are barely able to supply new graduates to replace trained workers who leave the profession. The report holds out little hope for major expansion of professional training resources in the foreseeable future and suggests that further research, study, and exploration into supplemental educational techniques must be made.

This suggestion has particular relevance for the field of probation since the current situation here is further complicated by the fact that many of the present nonprofessionally trained probation officers would probably not be able to take advantage of necessary academic training even if it were available to them, at least not without financial aid from an outside source. These men and women have too many family responsibilities and live on budgets too limited to enable them to enroll full-time in a university.

For this very large group of juvenile probation officers who must learn on the job—most of whom have no social work training, many of whom have not completed undergraduate college work—the development of supplementary educational opportunities is essential. It is the purpose of this paper to suggest and discuss some of the ways in which these opportunities can be offered.

RECRUITING STANDARDS AND PROPER USE OF PROBATION OFFICERS

Before a discussion of specific methods of training is begun, however, it is necessary to consider briefly two matters that will directly affect any kind of training program that may be established. These matters are: (1) the minimum qualifications required of a juvenile probation officer and (2) the way in which his services are used by the court or other agency once he is employed.

The difficulty of planning and conducting a training program for a small group composed of individuals with widely varying educational backgrounds is generally understood. Insofar as present personnel are concerned, this problem must be dealt with as best it can be. But the problem can be gradually minimized by setting recruiting standards for the position of juvenile probation officer as high as realistically possible.

⁵ Ernest V. Hollis and Alice L. Taylor, *Social Work Education in the United States* (Columbia Univ. Press, New York, 1951).

As has been stated, it is currently impossible to secure professionally trained workers to fill most probation officer positions. It should be possible, however, to have as a minimum requirement *graduation from an accredited college or university* and to find persons who meet this standard.⁶

Such a requirement raises the question of what special content undergraduate, or preprofessional, training should include if it is to be pertinent to probation and related social work. A definite answer to this question must await further study, but experience does offer a guide to the major areas of content which should be covered. For example, it seems evident that a prospective probation officer would benefit greatly from a liberal arts college program in which students are exposed to currently accepted concepts in the social sciences, and particularly where there may be some pre-professional social welfare courses which afford some opportunity for observation of the social functioning of the court, correctional institutions, and other welfare agencies in the community. Persons entering probation work should at least be familiar with the fundamentals of psychology and the basic principles of social organization, and should have some comprehension of the cultural patterns and economic aspects of our current life.

A recruiting measure proposed by the National Probation and Parole Association and widely advocated is that the juvenile court probation staff "should be selected solely on the basis of merit and should be protected by security of tenure."⁷

In regard to the use made of probation officers once they are employed, it would seem clear that they should properly be engaged in establishing and maintaining a treatment program for individual clients. Skills in treatment that may be developed by a training program are wasted if an officer's time is given over to procedural duties and he must be occupied with running errands for the court, doing clerical work, or waiting around hour after hour for court hearings. Furthermore, no staff training program can challenge workers who are harassed by excessive caseloads, makeshift quarters, poor pay, and uncertain tenure. It is well known that such frustrations in any job situation can stifle the finest of skills, depress morale, and dull incentive for growth through training.

PROPOSED WAYS TO DEVELOP STAFF BY TRAINING

The most effective way to strengthen existing probation staffs is through a comprehensive staff development program.

Primary responsibility for staff training rests with the court, although a single juvenile court can rarely succeed alone in offering a sound training

⁶ In some countries, such as the Netherlands, prospective probation officers undergo psychiatric and psychological evaluation to determine their aptitude as well as their professional competence to be probation officers.

⁷ *The Juvenile Court Steps In*, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

program. The help of other agencies and institutions will usually be necessary to accomplish this goal. Every resource should be used for both orientation and refresher training, whether within the court or elsewhere.

Continued in-service training

One objective of an in-service training program is to introduce a new worker to his job in the court setting, and to help him develop a sense of competence and professional worth. An effort should be made to develop good attitudes toward the job and to impart some of the basic skills required.

A further objective is to continue to improve the skills of all staff members. Through refresher training it is possible to advance professional competence and maintain the highest level of skills the workers have attained. All staff members, regardless of length of experience, need the challenge of continued training.

Practically every agency can carry on some kind of in-service training program, although its nature will vary with the size of the agency and the availability of persons on the staff and in the community to conduct such a program. Greater imagination is usually needed to develop in-service training programs in a court than in some other areas of public welfare. Frequently a probation department is small, having no more than one or two juvenile probation officers. For such a department in-service training may have to be related to other in-service training programs being provided in the same community for public agency workers in related fields. Many urban juvenile courts have substantial numbers of personnel and have themselves developed in-service training programs. These programs need to be examined and their various techniques related and systematized to see what has proven valuable and what might be generally used in all court settings.

Orientation. The first in-service training opportunity for the newly appointed juvenile court probation officer is a comprehensive orientation program. Such a program is strongly recommended. To thrust a person with or without professional social work training into a court setting and expect him to function with efficiency at once is to be unreasonable. Anyone entering a new service needs assistance in the interpretation of practical aspects of the setting. Therefore, the orientation program should be designed in part to acquaint the newly appointed probation officer with the specific duties he is expected to carry on, in relation to individuals and families known to the court and to the community at large.

Such an orientation program ought to be formalized and should be organized on the basis of experience related directly to the job at hand. An agency manual can be a valuable tool in this program. The period of orientation training should provide the newly appointed officer with opportunities to observe all departments of the court, to review the various dispositions possible to the judge, to know the basic laws by which adjustment of children's problems is made, to visit the detention facilities, and

in general to see in wide perspective the total function of the court.

In addition to practical information about the court setting, there are a number of concepts and techniques that ought to be communicated to probation officers, particularly those without professional training, during the orientation period. In the first place, an effort should be made to assist them to develop a positive philosophy toward the adaptability of personality and to learn to appreciate the unique nature and value of each person. To develop such a philosophy of course requires that a person have considerable objectivity toward his own imperfections, biases, and idiosyncrasies. Personal needs and attitudes can have a decisive influence in work with other people. It is often possible even in a short orientation program to grapple with some of the common prejudices, foibles, and preconceptions which all individuals possess. Experience has shown that through group sharing of attitudes and experiences in this realm, trainees can make some progress toward better understanding of themselves and of how their own personality affects work with other individuals.

Along with such early exploration of attitudes, orientation training should also attempt to define and clarify for the new probation officer the unique role he must play. His primary role is that of a helping person, but his position—as his title reflects—also entails the carrying out of aspects of legal authority. How he performs this dual role is the measure of his competence.

Perhaps little can be done during a brief orientation period to develop technical skills. However, some content on the principles and methods of interviewing can be introduced and certainly something about the function and use of community resources can be outlined. An effort should be made to communicate knowledge of the basic laws affecting the rights of children and their parents, the origins of the juvenile courts, and the doctrine of *parens patriae*, with its deep philosophy of child protection. Hopefully, too, there can be development of an understanding of the philosophy underlying public and private welfare generally and of a sense of the need for furthering the community's understanding of children.

This is a large order for an orientation period and only a small beginning can be made toward the goals. It should be possible, however, to show during this period how vital the function of the probation officer is and how important his judgment and skill are in the total program of the court.

Supervision The value of supervision as a training technique is widely recognized.⁸ Where specialized personnel for in-service training is not available, a court administrator can carry on a constructive training pro-

⁸ See *Supervision as an Administrative Process Contributing to Staff Development* (Federal Security Agency [now U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare], Bureau of Public Assistance, Technical Training Service, Washington, D. C., November 1940); and "Individual and Group Conferences as Methods of Supervision: New York City Department of Public Welfare," No. IV of series entitled *Current Practices in Staff Training* (Federal Security Agency [now U. S. Department of Health Education, and Welfare], Bureau of Public Assistance, Technical Training Service, Washington, D. C., October 1946).

gram through use of his supervisors. The seasoned person with supervisory responsibilities explores with a worker or trainee questions relating to case problems, treatment techniques, personal attitudes, administrative policy, and agency function. At its best, the supervisory process also aims at precise training goals.

Unfortunately, supervision is generally not available for the probation officer. Perhaps nowhere in social work has there been less supervision. Many county probation departments have only one or two probation officers. Budgets frequently do not authorize the employment of supervisory personnel other than a chief probation officer, who is so encumbered with administrative responsibilities and court liaison activities that he can give supervision only in emergency situations. Nor has there always been a recognition by juvenile courts with large staffs of the value of supervision for contributing to the growth of workers rather than solely as a method of policy control. In the selection of supervisors, careful consideration should be given to the use of probation officers who have professional training, provided they also have had sufficient experience to command the respect of those they will supervise.

Staff meetings. In juvenile courts where a sufficient number of officers are employed, meetings of the staff for the purpose of exchanging ideas and information can be a valuable method of in-service training. All too often staff meetings are convened merely because they furnish a convenient method of interpreting a new policy, for announcing important changes in agency regulations, or for other administrative detail. Much too frequently the value of staff meetings for actual training opportunities goes unexploited.

Any training worthy of the name requires planning and careful preparation. Thought and care should therefore be given to choice of the topics or areas to be covered in a staff meeting. The content of training may range all the way from analysis and evaluation of a particular procedure or policy of an agency to discussion of casework techniques. The success of a staff meeting often depends directly on the care with which the discussion leader has been selected.

Meetings that focus on casework are generally most stimulating when they are based on cases currently being handled by staff members. The discussion leader and the staff member involved should prepare for discussion of a case in advance, determining the teaching points and outlining the major areas of discussion.

Talks or discussions by representatives of community health and welfare agencies may also be appropriately featured at staff meetings. Such meetings can be of great informational value to workers. Often the pressure of duty prevents probation officers as well as other practitioners from visiting other agencies and collecting detailed information on their policies, functions, and limitations.

Use of consultants. Another device for in-service training is the use of special consultants from various fields related to social work.

Consultants from the disciplines of psychiatry, medicine, psychology,

and community organization can make real contributions to training. The problem of financing such services is of course a chronic one. Occasionally consultants will give their time voluntarily. In one community, experts from the municipal psychiatric institute and the Veterans' Administration mental hygiene clinic have contributed valuable time to an in-service training program for probation personnel.

Some of the larger juvenile courts and family courts have staff psychiatrists, psychologists, and psychiatric social workers who can serve not only as consultants in the handling of individual children but also as instructors in training programs operated by such courts. For rural communities remote from urban centers, efforts should be made to secure employment of consultants at the State level. The State of Illinois' Institute for Juvenile Research, for example, provides a team comprised of a psychiatrist, a psychologist, and a professionally trained social worker to visit various down-State communities on a routine schedule. This clinical team affords not only a diagnostic resource but also a training resource.

No possibility should be overlooked in the search for consultation services. In some communities there may be a good school guidance program employing a clinical psychologist or a professionally trained social worker who may be available periodically for assistance in a training program. The staff resources of a child guidance center or a children's institution having professional specialists might also be explored.

One aspect of the need for psychiatric consultation should perhaps be particularly emphasized. The probation officer without professional training generally needs assistance in learning to set realistic treatment goals. It is commonly observed that many children referred to the juvenile court have previously been exposed to treatment in other community agencies, institutions, or clinics, with little success. Yet, despite the failure of highly competent staff in nonauthoritative agencies, court workers are often expected to perform miracles with these disturbed, often exceedingly limited, individuals. Unless the nonprofessional court worker is helped to recognize the limitations of our skill and knowledge in aiding certain groups of people, he may develop a sense of personal inadequacy because of his failures. From this feeling may arise inconsistency in treatment and experimentation with the use of force, surveillance, threat, and cajolement.

Courts dealing with children should have available adequate psychiatric and psychological facilities at least for diagnostic and prognostic help. The use of psychiatric consultants to participate in staff discussion of a case, to discuss certain elementary principles governing normal and abnormal behavior, and to delineate the more typical characteristics of some of the seriously maladjusted and deviate groups encountered in social work and psychiatry can be of real help. Training juvenile court probation officers to recognize some of the limiting factors in personality will help them accept the limitations of children and their own limitations and will make it possible for them to gauge their expectations in terms of the best possible adjustment rather than of an ideal adjustment.

Institutes, workshops, and training centers

In addition to such within-the-agency training devices as orientation programs, staff meetings, supervision and so on, there are many other training opportunities that can profitably be provided probation officers. The three to be discussed here—institutes, workshops, and training centers—can be of particular value for the experienced but nonprofessionally trained officer who finds it impossible to pursue regular academic courses. These three devices for training usually take the practitioner away from the job for a short period. Though they cannot be said to equal graduate professional training, they are appropriate for both refresher and advanced training.

The training institute may bring together practitioners in a certain State, region, or even city. It generally extends for 1 or 2 weeks. It may be conducted under the auspices of a university, a State agency, or a similar body.

One of the great values of an institute conducted outside the court setting is the opportunity it affords for informal contacts among practitioners, all of whom have at least the common desire to succeed at their work. Free from agency demands, they can focus on the learning process. For the time being they all have common objectives. An atmosphere of freedom and relaxation usually prevails. Trainees feel equal to each other. Many have observed that one of the most valuable aspects of such institutes are the free social sessions, in which experiences and ideas can be exchanged.

The schools of social work at both main branches of the University of California (Berkeley and Los Angeles) have for a number of years offered 2- or 3-day institutes for court workers and others in the field. Schools of social work in other parts of the country have also been known to offer special institutes for workers in the delinquency field. Court workers should encourage schools to provide more of these brief-term training opportunities.

In addition to these rather generalized institutes, recent years have also seen the growth of specialized workshops, made up of relatively small groups of individuals who pool their information under the guidance of a good leader and by joint participation and group evaluation arrive at conclusions and recommendations. Groups of juvenile or family court probation officers may meet together under the leadership of one of their supervisors, the chief officer, or perhaps a person with recognized leadership ability from a related agency. The workshop program should be carefully designed and aimed at specific goals. Here, again, good judgment must be used in the selection of a leader.

A small number of cities and States maintain special training centers. There should be more of these.⁹ The problem of financing can sometimes be overcome by pooling the resources of several public social services. The

⁹ *The Training Center, A Method of Staff Development* (Federal Security Agency [now U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare], Bureau of Public Assistance, Division of Technical Training, March 1950).

sound results can the training centers developed by several States for public assistance workers should be profited from. Since a core knowledge of human development is required of all people who work in treatment of individuals, perhaps it would be possible to bring workers in allied fields together for general courses, with special sessions fitted for the needs of particular groups.

The Federal Probation Service is presently operating an experimental in-service training center as an integral part of the Federal Probation Office in Chicago.¹⁰ The center maintains a close relationship with the School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago. Newly appointed probation officers are sent to the center by Federal courts in various States for a 2-week period of intensive training. At the present time this training is mainly devoted to orientation. However, it has also been used for refresher training and so far as its practicability for State systems is concerned, is probably better fitted for such use.

Seminars, lectures, and conferences

Diligent efforts should be made to discover seminars or lectures, scheduled from time to time in a community, that might be appropriate for probation officers. Court administrators should allow workers time off when necessary to attend such meetings.

Local, regional, and national conferences devoted to professional advancement of social work also have definite training values. Personnel can usually take advantage without difficulty of local and regional conferences of State social work groups and correctional departments. Some courts provide funds to send personnel to national conferences, such as the National Conference of Social Work, National Probation and Parole Association conferences, and the Congress of Corrections. This practice should, of course, be encouraged. Until recently, the National Probation and Parole Association held meetings in conjunction with the National Conference of Social Work and urged participation by probation personnel in the conference generally.

Collateral training opportunities

There are many opportunities for improving one's knowledge and ability that come about through collateral activities not necessarily designated as training opportunities. There is a considerable body of professional literature on the subject of juvenile delinquency and related matters. The National Probation and Parole Association provides an excellent bibliography of materials with which probation personnel should familiarize themselves. Publications of the Child Welfare League of America and of the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and other basic social work materials can be utilized with great profit. Certainly juvenile court probation officers and other social workers

¹⁰ Ben S. Meeker, "The Federal Probation Training Center," *Federal Probation*, Vol. XV, No. 4 (Dec. 1951), pp. 31-36.

attached to courts ought to develop habits of reading technical journals and books dealing with treatment of offenders and with social work in general. As a practical aid, some one person in the court—the chief probation officer if it is a large court or the training officer if there is one—should circulate recent articles or announcements of special interest to staff from time to time. Funds to provide a library and to subscribe to various journals should also be made available. It might be helpful if a national agency would suggest material appropriate for court libraries of various sizes and evaluate new publications as they appear.¹¹

Another collateral activity that can be of real training value is participation on community welfare councils and community-wide committees concerned with social problems. Too often such groups are comprised only of agency executives or supervisors. Much greater participation should be urged on the part of field practitioners.¹² One of the most rapid methods for broadening a new worker's comprehension of the total community-wide social services is to give him an opportunity for joint committee participation early in his career.

The interagency case conference is another fine method for broadening knowledge of this field. Professionally trained social workers are well aware of the value of case conferences between agencies on cases that present problems needing joint agency service. Not only do such interagency case conferences assure better quality of service but they can also be of real training value. Officers should be encouraged to make appropriate use of case conferences with other agencies.

Visits to related agencies in the community are also of considerable value. No one engaged in social work, whether in a juvenile court or a family agency, works in a vacuum. Planned visits to other agencies to discuss their policies, limitations, and resources should be part and parcel of every agency's training program.

The suggestions herein presented in no wise comprise the total coverage of training opportunities. Doubtless there are many other collateral op-

¹¹ In this regard, the exhaustive and excellently annotated bibliographies of current publications and periodical articles related to the whole subject of juvenile delinquency and maladjustment that are being included in the *International Review of Criminal Policy*, published by the Department of Social Affairs of the United Nations, promise to fill the need for a continually up-to-date listing of new writings. Issue No. 1 (dated January 1952) featured a bibliography of periodical literature for the period January 1950 to June 1951. Issue No. 2 (July 1952) listed recent publications, mainly those appearing since 1950.

¹² The author has been told of a very live and active committee comprised of juvenile court and adult probation officers, police personnel, and social workers from a number of agencies, all of whose work impinges on the handling of socially or emotionally maladjusted people. Some of the probation officers have commented on the amazing amount they have learned through the years about the problems of the police department and of the opportunities and resources available in the community for referral that have come to their attention through participation on this committee. The group has found that a monthly luncheon is the best method to keep the committee alive and assure good attendance.

portunities of great training value that can be uncovered. For instance, a series of films and visual aids are now being developed, some of which are concerned with problems of juvenile delinquency or childhood distress. Many universities, the Encyclopaedia Britannica Visual Aids Division, large city libraries, and specialized organizations such as the National Probation and Parole Association can furnish lists of available training films. Some recordings are also available. Certainly every possible opportunity to utilize such material should be taken.

ORGANIZATION FOR TRAINING AT STATE LEVEL

In most States the maintenance of the juvenile court is a local responsibility. Many such courts simply do not have the resources to plan, organize, or conduct the kind of staff development program needed. In such instances stimulation and aid from an agency at the State level is required to develop the training program needed.

Despite certain unique characteristics in the administrative organization of juvenile court probation services, it might be profitable to organize a training program for probation officers similar to that conducted for public assistance workers, in which full-time training personnel in State departments carry out staff development programs and consultation on in-service training.¹³

An even closer parallel, so far as the content of training is concerned, is to be found in State programs for staff development in child welfare.¹⁴ Many States employ consultants to give exclusive attention to the in-service training of child welfare personnel. In some of these States these consultants are available to courts and training schools for assistance in developing training programs. In fact, in a few States possessing such consultants, the county child welfare workers actually serve in some instances as probation and aftercare workers. Also, the workshops and institutes held in behalf of child welfare workers often include probation officers.

Despite the few gains made, there remains great need to develop training aids at the State level for probation departments administered at the local level. In those States that have special training consultants in child welfare, their services might be made available for probation departments. Further use of Federal child welfare services funds specifically for the purpose of development of probation staff is also a real possibility. If it so wishes,

¹³ *The Work of the Full-time Training Supervisor in State Public Assistance Agencies* (Federal Security Agency [now U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare], Bureau of Public Assistance, Division of Technical Training, January 1951).

¹⁴ See *A State Program for Staff Development in Child Welfare* (Federal Security Agency [now U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare], Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C., January 1949).

the administering State agency may use these funds for child welfare services in courts and training schools for such purposes as to support training institutes, workshops, and conferences, or to pay for educational leave, or to furnish consultants.¹⁵

Of the various uses of funds, the employment at the State level of one or more full-time consultants on staff development to serve probation officers should receive priority. Such consultants can make suggestions to court administrators about ways and means of organizing staff development programs. They can give concrete help in the organizational process as well as supply teaching materials. They can conduct institutes or develop a teaching center on a statewide basis or for districts within a State. A consultant assures continuity to an in-service training program and provides for a breadth of coverage that can probably be gained in no other way. Just the exchange of ideas and methods area by area through the services of a training consultant might prove stimulating and helpful to many isolated probation officers.

summary of workshop discussion

The workshop group used the paper presented for its consideration as a frame of reference for discussion rather than making a line-by-line evaluation of its contents.

First, however, in order to think clearly about the subject of training, the group focused its attention upon the task of a probation officer. The following three aspects of a probation officer's job were identified: (1) a tentative diagnosis of the nature of the offense or symptom which has brought the child into court and of the immediate handling of this situation; (2) protection of the community; and (3) treatment of the individual child as an emotional and social being, utilizing counseling skills and community resources available.

In discussing how the probation officer should approach this threefold task, the group arrived at the following conclusions:

The child must be treated in his total situation, including family, school, and community.

Cooperation rather than authority should be the keynote in working with a child or parent. The court frequently has definite authority over

¹⁵ *Policy Manual for the Use of Federal Child Welfare Services Funds.* (Federal Security Agency [now U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare], Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C., April 9, 1951), pp. I-9 and I-10.

*Prepared by Ben S. Meeker and approved by Russell G. Oswald, Director of the Division of Corrections of the Wisconsin Department of Public Welfare, who acted as cochairman of the workshop.

parents as well as over a child; even when the authority over parents is not explicit, the parents may regard it as a reality.

Casework can be done in an authoritative setting; the constructive use of authority can be a treatment asset.

All probation officers should have a basic knowledge of the social forces which mold personality and of the development of human nature in relation to the principles of mental hygiene.

PEOPLE TO TRAIN AND HOW TO TRAIN THEM

The group concluded that there were two basic problems that had to be solved: (1) that of recruiting personnel with the attitudes and aptitudes desired, and (2) that of improving the skills through training on the job of persons employed as probation officers or kindred staff members. The focus was mainly upon the second of these two problems. Throughout the workshop the objective of strengthening our services to children through improved skills was constantly in mind. Thus it was evident that to improve such services, the focus must be kept upon ways and means of helping non-professionally trained personnel improve themselves.¹⁶

The type of person whom it would be desirable to train, the group agreed, is the average probation officer, parole officer, or institutional social worker who is expected to function under average court or agency conditions. He needs to have at least these skills: a positive philosophy of individualized treatment; some skill in understanding behavior; and the ability to formulate treatment plans.

A number of methods of staff development by which personnel could acquire these attributes were suggested.¹⁷

Pre-service training

If agency policies are sufficiently flexible to permit the development of a

¹⁶ The workshop group early stressed the point that on-the-job staff development and in-service training programs are not to be regarded as substitutes for professional training. At the same time professional training does not preclude the need for in-service training. All staff members need continuing training, but in-service training for a professionally trained worker and that for one who comes to the court without professional training must vary. The focus of in-service training for the professionally trained person coming to the court must be upon how to apply the principle of social casework to cases in the authoritative court setting. The focus in the training of persons coming to the court without training in casework will need to be directed toward developing understanding of casework concepts and at the same time toward teaching such personnel how to apply what skills they possess to the problems confronted in the cases assigned. Following a period of successful work in the court, it should be possible for in-service training to be geared to advancing the professional competence of all personnel.

¹⁷ The group emphasized that court workers are faced with a tremendous variety of situations and that the training recommended does not qualify untrained personnel to treat disturbed children, but could perhaps enhance aptitudes and ability to recognize certain kinds of problems. It was also recognized that in-service training should be aimed at the various levels of professional competence.

pre-service training program, some valid orientation may take place before the person is actually placed on the job. This type of program has the added advantage of assisting to screen applicants for aptitudes prior to employment even for a probationary period.

Orientation training

This of course may commence prior to appointment if a pre-service training program is conducted. The group had a number of remarks to make about orientation training:

An orientation group must be small to be effective.

Orientation leadership must be permissive.

Analysis of case material brought to the group by a person already on the job is one of the most effective approaches to such training. An array of such case material presenting a variety of problems has been found valuable.

There is an indication that prior nonprofessional training is less significant than personality as a basis for predicting performance.¹⁸

The assignment of a limited caseload during a predetermined period of orientation has been found effective.¹⁹

Well-planned visits to other social agencies and subsequent discussion of such visits has been found effective in developing a greater awareness of community resources and their value to court workers.²⁰

Printed or mimeographed material is of great value for orientation training. It provides a trainee with something to refer to and helps strengthen a new worker's feeling of security.²¹

Ongoing staff development through in-service training

Without attempting to fill in the content of such training, the group listed the following methods of in-service ongoing staff training:

- | | |
|---|--|
| (1) staff meetings | (6) conferences (local, State, and national) |
| (2) supervision | (7) consultants |
| (3) training centers and refresher training | (8) reading material and visual aids |
| (4) institutes and workshops | (9) interagency committees |
| (5) seminars and special lectures | (10) statewide joint staff meetings with allied agencies |

¹⁸ This statement is based upon an objective study completed by the Mental Health Clinic of the Domestic Relations Court of New York City and upon impressions of other members of the workshop group. It has long been recognized that basic aptitude and personality make-up should be important considerations in the recruitment screening process.

¹⁹ The Lucas County Juvenile Court, Toledo, Ohio, has found 8 weeks an effective period for orientation training.

²⁰ The Milwaukee Community Council has conducted such orientation programs for various agency personnel along these lines for many years.

²¹ The statewide Juvenile Court of Connecticut has developed some excellent materials. See: *The Connecticut Juvenile Court, Its Structure, Philosophy and Procedure* (Juvenile Court for the State of Connecticut, Hartford, 1951). Likewise, the State agency providing probation and parole service in Wisconsin has developed excellent material, including a package library service for its field personnel.

- | | |
|---|--|
| (11) exchange of personnel between agencies | including compensation or increased responsibility |
| (12) performance ratings and evaluation conferences | (19) assignments of personnel to good training areas in the organization |
| (13) staff committees | (20) community committees |
| (14) manuals (loose-leaf recommended) | (21) educational leave |
| (15) case record exhibits | (22) use of field work students |
| (16) packaged reading material | (23) exchange of supervisors |
| (17) house organs and journals | (24) participation in professional organizations |
| (18) incentives for in-service training, | (25) staff participation in community research |

PROBLEMS IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT, WITH PROPOSED SOLUTIONS

Following this discussion of staff development methods, the workshop group identified the problems most commonly confronted by agency personnel responsible for developing training programs. Final answers are, of course, not available for all these questions. The answers suggested are tentative and, as is evident, were not always unanimously agreed upon.

1. Should training goals and methods be considered in terms of an ideal situation or of the situation as we find it?

Keeping in mind the need for ideals and the importance of long-range planning, the workshop agreed that the immediate task of the group was to accept the situation as we find it and attempt to relate training to current needs.

2. What training goals are we trying to attain and during what period of time?

There was strong feeling on the part of some members of the group, including a juvenile court judge, that no amount of in-service training could develop a professionally competent staff unless the staff was recruited at the outset from applicants who had prior professional social work training. Others suggested that nonprofessional personnel can be given specific basic training in the principles of mental hygiene, some interviewing and counseling techniques, an understanding of the functions of the court, a basic knowledge of community resources, and some ability at discovering and identifying the social and emotional problems of children.

There was rather general agreement that in-service training cannot be expected to develop within the nonprofessionally trained officer a comprehensive grasp either of the dynamics of behavior from the standpoint of the psychologist or of the social forces modifying behavior as described by the sociologist. The length of training programs will vary with the facilities of the agency and whether or not the training is a full-time program or is synchronized with part-time agency service. Ongoing staff development

should be a continuous process, though progress through time stages should be measured.

3. Should the orientation period be centralized and given before case-work duties are assigned the new worker, or should it be given on the job? What is the purpose of orientation?

It was evident from the discussion that further study is needed before the answers to these questions can be obtained. Both methods of orientation are now being used and apparently both are getting results. Training facilities, court demand, personnel turnover, and available staff for training purposes are among the practical factors that determine the method of orientation training. As to the purpose of orientation training, it was suggested that it is to acquaint a new worker with the setting in which he is to work, and with the policies, procedures, functions, and limitations of the service, and as elsewhere indicated, to further the development of attitudes and of understanding of delinquent children.

4. How can the desire for training be created among judges, public officials, and probation staffs?

Leadership, the group decided, must come from the profession of social work, from the bar, and from progressive statesmen at all levels of government. A juvenile court judge strongly asserted that the bar has been remiss in not setting standards for the selection of juvenile court judges and in neglecting to provide training courses for such judges. It was his conviction that until juvenile court judges themselves understand the profound complexities of juvenile delinquency and demand skilled and qualified personnel, training efforts cannot flower. He observed that unless a juvenile court judge is enthusiastically behind a training program, it cannot be a complete success. It was acknowledged, however, that one of the best methods for stimulating judges to sponsor training was to demonstrate the value of training through improved probation results. It was also suggested that there must be more concerted efforts at creating better public relations and more persistent interpretation of the work of probation personnel and the skills needed.

There was also strong agreement that competent supervisory and administrative personnel can give leadership in motivating probation personnel to obtain additional training. At the moment it is in that area that perhaps the greatest immediate hope resides. Chief probation officers and case-work supervisors are in a position to sponsor training programs and must utilize creative imagination in so doing. Giving recognition for completing training is certainly an incentive. Likewise, freeing the staff of certain clerical duties and of the harassment of routine drudgery to participate in training may provide incentive.

5. How can the resistance shown by some personnel who have had no social work training to in-service training in casework and to the terminology of casework be handled?

It was pointed out that court personnel frequently see less need for

casework training than for training in procedures. Some jurisdictions have found that if case material is introduced to illustrate procedural problems, discussions generally become involved in casework problems. In an area where large numbers of workers are not oriented in casework, it is evident that any nomenclature that arouses anxiety or resistance must be avoided. In-service training must be geared to the immediate problems at hand and to how much those faced with problems can understand. Medical, psychiatric, or casework jargon is out of place in such circumstances.

6. Is the professionally trained graduate of a school of social work really prepared for work in an authoritative setting?

While several members of the group expressed some doubt as to the usefulness of social work training, it was generally concluded that social work training is desirable but that it needs to be supplemented by a period of orientation in-service training to acquaint the new worker with the special problems of the authoritative setting.²² The desirability of a field work placement in a court or training school setting was emphasized. Some felt that the current fad for self-determination and permissiveness in certain casework approaches had so conditioned some graduate students that they found it difficult and painful to grapple with the realities of probation conditions and court authority. There appeared to be a rather strong feeling that the schools of social work need to reevaluate concepts concerning the use of authority and perhaps utilize more case material from the correctional field.

7. How can the wide range in educational background among probation officers and kindred personnel best be coped with in in-service training?

Complete individualization of training is, of course, not feasible. However, special assignments and special conferences can be provided to bridge some of the gaps in background. Many jurisdictions have found that individual trainees will seek special help. To be valid, such training must be geared to the average trainee. There is abundant evidence of the need for additional study to find the best approach to this basic problem.

8. How can in-service training be started where there is none now?

First must come, of course, a recognition of the need for staff training. This recognition and initiative can be taken by the judge or by the chief probation officer or by both. Since courts are independent local units of government, the training program can be established within the court itself or some form of training center or general training service can be established that makes training opportunities available to court personnel.

²² There were no illusions among workshop members that social work training *per se* automatically guarantees successful field performance. As in any professional endeavor, personality, character, aptitude, and intelligence will determine how professional training is utilized.

9. Where does the responsibility for in-service training lie?

The responsibility for in-service training in any setting resides with the agency. However, it was also recognized that in-service training must be a joint responsibility of the profession of social work at large, the probation field in particular, and of the court, the community, and the State and its educational facilities.

10. What content in terms of knowledge and skills can be taught best by the agency? By the university?

It was indicated that the agency might concentrate on interpreting its particular function in terms of legal responsibilities, community services, and, by use of case materials, the application of casework methods within an authoritative setting. The university can perhaps best provide background material on the origin of modern correctional and social services, the broad relationships of all social services, and in the area of actual treatment the principles of interviewing, casework counseling, and modern theories of personality development and social organization. Overlapping will, of course, be inevitable, but there appears to be considerable agreement that the principles of treatment, whatever the setting, can be taught in the university, while the application to a particular setting may be the special function of the agency.

11. How can we best train our training personnel?

It was generally agreed that the best trained personnel should be utilized for training, but that a solid period of experience would greatly enhance the ability of the professionally trained person to act as an instructor. It was also pointed out that teaching is an art and that personnel engaged in training should have knowledge of teaching methods.

12. What is the role of the supervisor in the in-service training program?

Good supervision is an inherent aspect of in-service training. To be fully effective, the supervisor's work must be integrated in the overall program of staff development. As a practical necessity in the comparatively few courts that have supervisors, the supervisor may have to assume the role of in-service training director.

13. What priorities can be set up for the use of various methods in the in-service training program?

In approaching this question, the group agreed that a high priority must be given to any method of in-service training that will reach the largest number of court personnel. Aside from such methods as staff meetings, institutes, part-time classes, etc., it is apparent that a general, statewide in-service training plan is needed.

14. With what group should in-service training be started: administrators? supervisors? new probation personnel?

Theoretically, all personnel—whether administrative or supervisory—

should participate in in-service training for their own professional advancement. However, the primary task of this workshop group was to focus upon the needs of rank-and-file probation officers. Although in-service training should be available for all administrative levels, the great need in probation is for added training of probation officers. Therefore, concerted efforts to develop in-service training for field probation and parole personnel should be awarded top priority.

15. How can an in-service training program be evaluated?

Various conventional methods were suggested, such as formal examinations; by the trainees' responses to difficult case problems presented before and after training; by the trainees' own appraisal of the training content, etc. However, it was agreed that over the long run, evidence of improved performance is the final test of the adequacy of in-service training.

STATEWIDE PLAN

Essential characteristics of any sound staff development program are continuity and comprehensive coverage. Such programs should also be marked by integration, coordination, and provision for evaluation. It was the consensus of opinion that to achieve such standards, *the responsibility for carrying forward such programs must be placed above the local level.*

The many practical difficulties to be overcome before this goal can be achieved were well recognized. The group recommended that efforts be made to work toward an integrated training program involving statewide child welfare agencies, commissions, committees comprised of judges and other representatives of the legal profession, schools of social work, public officials, and leading lay persons. However achieved, it was the group's basic conclusion that adequate training programs could be organized only on a statewide basis.

The workshop group did not attempt to specify the State agency which should bear responsibility for developing the training program involving the groups enumerated, but did recommend that resources be surveyed and that in each State a program of staff development and in-service training designed to give broad coverage and continuing service be instituted.

An integrated program conducted under widely representative auspices might encourage adequate staff development programs by:

1. Serving as a clearinghouse to screen and evaluate information about training possibilities and resources.
2. Facilitating research and study into the nature of the training job needed.
3. Improving and strengthening supervisory services by focusing upon the needs for supervision and the value of supervision as a training device.

4. Sponsoring the development of training centers for orientation and refresher training, and of consultation.

An integrated training center program conducted by representatives of key agencies and universities, but focusing attention upon immediate needs in staff development, was suggested as a practical beginning that would be feasible in many States. A number of observations were made in this connection:

In such training programs the guidance of persons or consultants who know something about teaching techniques could profitably be sought.

Training should be carried on in a planned and orderly fashion. Spasmodic or opportunistic training projects are of dubious value.

Constant research is a function of sound training.

The program should be of experimental design.

Evaluation of long-range progress should be conducted.

RESOLUTIONS

At the end of the session three resolutions were proposed:

1. That thorough consideration be given the problems of recruitment and selection, including an evaluation of the aptitudes, integrity, and attitudes thought to be desirable in applicants.
2. That a study be made of the classification of duties in the court setting, particularly since there are indications that the most skillful workers should be assigned to intake.
3. That in-service training not be regarded as a substitute for professional graduate training in social work but rather as supplemental and ongoing training in the specific services of the court, geared to all levels of prior academic professional training.

Although time did not permit comprehensive blueprinting of the exact content or method for carrying on a widespread training and staff development program, it is hoped that the conclusions reached and suggestions made will prove of value in stimulating additional research and experimentation in this area of training.

*training for houseparents and kindred
personnel in institutions for juvenile
delinquents*

SUSANNE SCHULZE and MORRIS FRITZ MAYER*

In order to set our remarks regarding training for houseparents and kindred personnel in the proper frame of reference, it would almost be necessary to consider first what kind of children are now committed to training schools, what the needs of these children are in relation to the causes of their delinquent behavior, and what the individual training schools have to offer at present in the way of rehabilitation. But as this task is quite extensive reliance will have to be placed on the reader's familiarity with the background of the problem. Only brief references to a few essential matters will be made here.

Among these is the fact that even as the number of children under care in most training schools is constantly on the increase so also these children on the whole tend to present much more serious problems than previously. This latter phenomenon can perhaps be explained by the likelihood that, as the constantly expanding child welfare and probation services are able to make provision within the home community for more of the less serious cases of delinquency, the more serious cases make up a higher proportion in the total caseload of the institution.

Unfortunately, the development of additional child care resources throughout the country has been spotty. Thus, many training schools still find themselves saddled with numerous feeble-minded children and with other children who, because of the extremity of their problems, cannot profit from a program set up to meet the needs of children with comparatively milder forms of maladjustment. A selective intake by the training schools based on the varying needs of delinquent children remains the most crucial need in relation to efficient care for these children. This need has hardly begun to be tackled as yet.

*Susanne Schulze is Associate Professor at the School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago. Morris Fritz Mayer is Resident Director of Bellefaire, a private residential treatment center at Cleveland, Ohio.

Indeed, if the aim of the training school is to correct that form of symptomatic behavior which makes a child run afoul of the law and to do so by helping him to develop his capacity for self-direction along socially approved lines, this will be accomplished only if and when the matter of a truly selective intake has been adequately taken care of, as only then will a therapeutically oriented approach to the problems of these children be possible. Or, stating it a little differently, to expect group living in an institution to contribute to the total treatment of a child will be wishful thinking until we admit only those children who can really profit from living together in groups.

A difficulty more immediately related to the subject of this paper is the role houseparents are forced to play in training schools. There is still much confused thinking regarding institutional living as family living and houseparents as real substitute parents. The fact is that many of these people are simply employees who work on an 8-hour shift. Use of the misnomer "houseparents" for those in charge of the institutional living groups unfortunately seems to tend to prolong the misconception regarding their actual role.

This role presents a very specific challenge, for children are committed by juvenile courts because of their "wrongdoings" and enter the institution usually with marked resistance and frequently also with the intent to run away as soon as they can find an opportunity to do so. The houseparents are thus expected by court and community to care for these children within a framework that involves certain security measures and controls. The houseparents must not only wholeheartedly accept and firmly support these measures but must also handle them with understanding and skill in everyday living so that they will have a positive effect on the children.

It is no wonder then that job descriptions for these positions have only slowly been formulated. The widely diversified and overwhelming duties included in these descriptions have made the job an unattractive one. Also, salaries are frequently low, and working conditions substandard. Moreover, the job usually lacks the important incentive of promotion. Which adequate person, one might ask, desires a dead-end job?

The answer to this question is too obvious to be dwelt on for any length of time. But review of at least some of the factors that have brought about this situation does seem necessary. Neither has the job of houseparent been standardized nor has any particular training yet been made available for it. Administrators have had to rely on a catch-as-catch-can method in the selection of houseparents and have had to cope with the dire results as best they could. In this process they have certainly become aware of many of the underlying personal motives that houseparents have in coming to and leaving an institution under present conditions. Also, they have learned how these motives affect the quality of work to be expected of the houseparents.

The motives differ somewhat for married couples and single persons. It may suffice to point out just a few of the more common ones here, such as

the advantage of housing for young couples and the possibility of getting on their feet, so to speak; the desire for a transitional experience of 1 or 2 years for somebody who wants to attend graduate school concurrently; the dependency needs of older and of disturbed persons for a protected environment; and the "haven" for divorcees and widows in their life crises. While it must be recognized that any person entering a profession usually has some selfish motives, which have to be evaluated in the light of his total personality, these motives are usually counterbalanced by satisfactions gained from the work that lead the individual to make positive contributions. In the case of houseparents though, the selfish motive somehow looms larger simply because of the lack of standardization and the impossibility of advancement. As matters stand now, the question *Where do I go from here?* has really only one rather unsatisfactory answer for houseparents, namely, to go from one institution to another or to leave such work altogether for something else.

Of course, few superintendents accept this situation as the inevitable. Those who are aware of the inherent danger of frustration to themselves, houseparents, and the children and who deplore the high cost of turnover have tried innumerable methods to unearth successful workers. But frequently a superintendent will find that he has to employ a houseparent on the basis of an unreliable reference and a brief interview; he may even be in a state of panic when a vacancy and the availability of a desirable applicant to cover the cottage *tomorrow* do not jibe.

Practically every superintendent has also tried various ways and means to help improve the services of those once hired, by providing supervision, for example, or by in-service training. Frequently, too, superintendents have convinced themselves that "cellophane-wrapped" experts (caseworkers and psychiatrists), gotten at great expense and effort, might make up for inadequate houseparent personnel, only to discover that in total treatment of delinquent children there can be no weak link in the chain, particularly when this weak link is the person who lives with the children and is expected by the kind of living he or she provides for the children to help them put to use whatever they may have gained from contacts with the other staff.

WHAT DOES A HOUSEPARENT'S JOB CONSIST OF?

With this brief statement of background conditions in mind, we can now turn our attention directly to the problem of training houseparents for work with delinquent children.

The first requirement would seem to be to identify the various facets of a houseparent's job.

It is essential that an administration present, as clearly as possible, a written definition of every staff position. Each job definition should preferably be outlined in a manual, describing in as much detail as possible the different facets of the job.

In respect to the position of houseparent, it is important to understand the complexity of the job, entailing as it does a long list of responsibilities many of which are still undefinable. Inasmuch as the secret of successful performance lies in the worker's understanding of all aspects of the problem, whatever is explainable, describable and teachable, should be clearly established. Many institutions have issued houseparent's manuals. Some years ago Edith Stern wrote a houseparent's guide for the Child Welfare League of America.¹ The Welfare Department of Minnesota has recently published a very practical cottage parent manual,² and many other State departments and institutions have made available similar guides. One must be aware that these can only be guides; they cannot define what the job actually entails. Each institution will have to define the position according to its own needs, and even then a part of the job will always remain unpredictable and dependent on the imagination of the individual houseparent.

As we see it, the houseparent's job in an institution for delinquents is composed of five major parts, all of which are equally important. The order in which they are listed is not meant to reflect on their relative importance. These parts are:

1. Consistent provision of protection and control.
2. Purposeful organization of everyday living.
3. Creating a "we" feeling in the group.
4. Development of a relationship to the individual.
5. Integration of the houseparent's job with the various other services of the institution.

Protection and control

The assignment to protect a delinquent from society and society from him for a period of time, and also to control his antisocial activities, is of course an assignment to the total institution. Within the institution, however, it is probably the houseparent who most directly exerts control and protection. Not only must he be aware of the legal responsibilities, but also he must have the strength to carry out the necessary controls to protect and maintain custody of the child. Some of these controls are exercised by the use of physical devices established in the institution. Other types of control are the scheduling of activities and having the child abide by a schedule. The houseparent must know where the children are at all times. If a child is missing, the houseparent must set the machinery in motion to learn his whereabouts and return him to the group. Immediate notification to the responsible administrative authority is necessary. A houseparent

¹ Edith M. Stern, with the cooperation of Howard W. Hopkirk, *Housemother's Guide* (Child Welfare League of America, New York, 1946).

² *A Manual For Houseparents* (Minnesota State Department of Social Service, Division of Child Welfare, St. Paul, 1952).

should let the youngsters know that he is carrying out an assignment and that he is responsible to the administration, and via the administration to the courts, for their protection. Houseparents must learn to establish controls without making them compulsive patterns or punitive devices, for rigidity would handicap the establishment of meaningful relationships and spontaneous dealing with the children.

Purposeful organization of everyday living

One of the major causes of disturbance and delinquency in children is disorganization of their everyday life. Children need to know to whom they are responsible and who is who in their lives. They have to learn their rights and their duties and live in a secure world providing protection and relaxation, work and play, shelter and food. For most of the children who come to our institutions such a pattern of life has not been sufficiently established in their previous experience.

A primary task, therefore, is to build up for these children a new order, which they can accept and which does not seem to them a confused network of senseless rules. This order should be a framework within which they can establish the security they never had or which they lost on account of traumatic experience in their lives. It is the function of the total institution to establish such a framework; but as far as the everyday lives of the children are concerned, this is the function of the houseparents.

The successful beginning of the day is an art. The waking of children in the morning reflects the total attitude of the houseparents to the children. It is an art which must be carried out within an organizational structure. How long do the children need after they are awakened before getting out of bed? How long do they need until they come to the breakfast table? How much time must be given until they go to school? Organization is of course necessary in the upkeep of the cottage itself. The children are supposed to live in a home. A home must have a certain order, by which we do not mean a compulsive, methodical regime or an anxiously rigid cleanliness. The home must simply be so organized that the children can always rely on finding its basic structure unchanged. The same type of structure should apply to almost every aspect of the child's life, such as his allowance, mealtime, etc. Organization is necessary, in other words, but there should be flexibility within this organization. Orderliness should be understood by the houseparents as a right of the children. Ultimately the children also will understand it as a right, rather than as another unpleasant imposition placed upon them by adults.

To achieve this effect and result, the organization must have purpose. The duties, regulations, and rules of the cottage must be clearly defined and must be explained to the children over and over again. Quite frequently institutions are overburdened by tradition. Procedures that were sensible 10 years ago may have no meaning today. The order of living in the cottage must, therefore, be based on a sincere desire to serve the needs of children today. If it does not serve these needs, steps should be taken

to reorganize and reestablish certain rules or to eliminate obsolete ones.

Purposeful organization of everyday life is an intricate part of the retraining, treatment, and education of delinquent and disturbed children. The houseparent's role in this development is, of course, very important. While children in the beginning usually cannot be expected to recognize the justification of sensible regulations, they will eventually be able to do so if the organization has a purpose and if it serves their needs.

Creating a "we" feeling in the group

Houseparents should not be expected to form a pseudo-family. Rather they work with a group. Events in the everyday life of an institutional group may resemble very closely experiences in family life, but there are certain inherent differences between the family group and the institutional group.

A group in an institution is made up of a number of individuals thrown together against their own will, individuals with different backgrounds, personalities, interests, mannerisms, and outlook in life. Most of them have not known each other before coming to the institution, and many of them will drift apart as soon as they leave the institution. One thing they usually have in common when they enter the institution is that they come against their own will and want to get out as quickly as possible. During their stay in the institution they have in common the order of the day, routine, programs, and so on. These common elements, however, in and of themselves, do not create the feeling of belonging.

The feeling of belonging is probably the single most important feeling that children should experience during their stay in an institution—the feeling of belonging in the group, of being accepted within the group, the feeling of togetherness, the "we" feeling. To create this feeling, the houseparent has to be aware of a number of factors. He must know what is unique in regard to each child and what he has in common with the other children. How many things would the members of the group enjoy together? He must be able to stimulate their desire to be together and to share certain experiences. He must be able to create experiences that are fun to the children. He must know that meaningful group experiences cannot occur all day long and that the "we" feeling will emerge only for a few minutes every now and then. Suddenly around a fireplace a group becomes a unit, a "one," and starts singing songs, forgetting their differences and their hostilities against the world. The houseparent must possess the skill to use every opportunity to create such moments of "we" feeling.

Institutional groups are nonvoluntary groups, yet every now and then they can achieve some of the qualities of voluntary groups. The institutional groups are static in the sense that they are in forced existence 24 hours a day and by the fact that children are required to live together, have routines together, and so on. Yet they are dynamic at the same time. They cannot be dynamic at all times. However, a houseparent must know how to make a dynamic group out of a static one as often as possible. This

is especially important with regard to group program and discipline. Houseparents must learn how to recognize the moment when the group is creative and when group disintegration is about to occur. They must know when to stop impending disintegration by energetic, firm control or by redirecting the group into a different form of program.

Thus a houseparent needs some of the knowledge and understanding of a group worker. He must be able to develop a sensitivity to group dynamics, to help an aggregate of individuals become a group, and to utilize constructively all the potentials of group living in the institution.

Development of a relationship to the individual

While institutional group living is not the same as family living, psychology has taught us that the relationship of the individual child to any adult is patterned to a considerable degree by his relationship with his own parents. Thus, for example, a child who has had traumatic experiences of deprivation with his own parents is constantly on the lookout for parental images. Although frequently he does not permit himself to enter into close relationships with adults, he is searching—quite often by inappropriate means—for a father or mother substitute. In the storehouse of adults that an institution represents, it is possible that such a child may find a person in whom he can invest parental qualities. A houseparent may not inherently possess the qualities attributed to him, but because of his function, his closeness to the child, and his very presence in crucial moments, he has an excellent opportunity to become a parental figure in the mind of such a child.

In this connection it is important to note that while we can assign individual children to individual houseparents, we cannot in a psychological sense assign one to the other. Therefore, the houseparent has to stand in readiness, to be available when a child may invest him with these parental qualities, may want him to function as a father or as a mother person. In other words, the houseparent has to be ready to accept each child as an individual. He must understand the individual in the light of his background. He must understand and accept the individual as he is. The child whose previous experiences have led him to expect brutality and rejection on the part of a father person will try to maneuver the houseparent into the position of rejecting him or even of having to use force in order to control him. On the other hand the child who experienced love only in the form of material gifts, will challenge the houseparent's interest and try to maneuver him into imitating his mother, who bribed him but never really loved him. A great amount of patience and understanding is necessary to meet the individual needs of these children adequately and to convince them of one's own interest in them and affection for them. The houseparent has to be aware of his own reactions to the children and of his responses to their provocations, whether it be positive or negative. He must be very careful not to counter hostility with hostility or bribe with bribe.

While the houseparent has to be many things to many different children,

he needs at the same time to be one steady, consistent, real person to the total group. He must learn to handle the individual according to his own needs, and still handle him within the group. He must be able to make exceptions that are acceptable to the rest of the children. He must be able to help the children understand that each of them is different and that everyone is treated according to his own needs, but that each also has to be considered part of a whole group. One encounters quite frequently among houseparents a mistaken concept of justice and fairness, one that actually stems from a need for uniformity and an inability to differentiate. Houseparents have to learn to "treat" children. This means that they must recognize that children have to be brought up according to their individual needs, that individual needs and group needs do not necessarily contradict each other, and that differential treatment of individuals does not necessarily lead to rivalries, jealousies, and friction in the group. The houseparent is able to do his job properly only if the relationship he has with the individual children is good and sound. This relationship may not be there from the beginning, but it must be achieved in the long run and can be achieved only by an understanding of each child in the group.

Integration of the houseparent's position with the function of the total institution

Houseparents have rightfully been called the "hub of the wheel" of the institutional operations. They are the people with whom the child spends most of his time, and they are constantly exposed to the ups and downs of the child's behavior, to his joys and his woes. They have an opportunity to observe more closely than anyone else his progress or his regression in the institution. Yet they are only a part of the total institutional staff. Neither their past training and experience nor their present function permits them to meet all the needs of a child. They cannot, for instance, provide a child with all the individual therapy, medical care, or education he may need. It is necessary, therefore, for houseparents to work together with the rest of the institutional staff: the cooks, maintenance people, superintendent, psychiatrist, caseworkers, teachers, work supervisors, psychologist, and vocational guidance people. They must be able to share the child with these people. They must be able to plan together with them.

Very often in this process of staff integration one overlooks the fact that the people who come to an institution have different value systems. Respect for people's values is an important element in gaining real integration of the staff. At the same time staff members have to be made aware that they should not let their own values become rigid barriers to a therapeutic approach. A houseparent coming to an institution may find not only his concept of education but his whole ethical value system shaken by concepts thrown at him indiscriminately by other staff members. In his value system, for instance, stealing may be regarded as a "sin," something very

"bad," something calling for punishment, whereas tattling may be thought of as not only acceptable but even desirable. This houseparent may have difficulty understanding caseworkers or psychiatrists who do not punish for stealing; he may even misunderstand them to the point that he thinks these people really believe that stealing is a socially acceptable thing. The readiness to learn from each other must be established and reinforced all the time among people who are working together to help a child.

WHAT KIND OF TRAINING WOULD BE APPROPRIATE FOR HOUSEPARENTS?

In response to the question of what kind of training can help houseparents do the job expected of them, five methods of training are suggested here. None of them is seen as being exclusive of the other. The first two are to a certain degree already in operation in many places, the latter three are still largely in the blueprint stage.

1. **In-service training.** This is the training offered by the institution by which a person is employed, for the purpose of making him more useful to the institution.
2. **Short-term institutes.** These are meetings of personnel from various institutions. Usually of 1, 2, or 3 days duration, they are sponsored by State welfare conferences, associations of institutional workers, councils of social agencies, the Child Welfare League of America, or similar groups. They customarily focus on one or more facets of the job, with the aim of improving practice in at least some important areas.
3. **Extension courses.** These are courses in education, psychology, and social work offered by extension divisions of State universities and taught by faculty members of the universities, either at the educational institution itself to groups of workers from several agencies in the community or at a particular agency with a sizable staff of its own. The courses are usually scheduled for a semester or a quarter, with classes meeting once or twice a week and with a nominal tuition fee charged.
4. **Extended institutes.** These usually consist of one or more academic courses covering several areas of work and given over a period of 1 to 3 months on a full-time basis. Usually a leave of absence has to be arranged by the participants. The goal of such training is to impart some of the core knowledge for houseparent work.
5. **Professional training.** This implies an integrated curriculum, consisting of both supervised field work and a number of academic courses covering all important areas of a houseparent's job. Such training should be given under the auspices of a recognized educational institution for a period of not less than one year; possibly it should lead to granting of a certificate. The purpose of this kind of training would be to equip the houseparent soundly for work with difficult children and

to raise the job to a professional level in order to make the houseparent a full-fledged member of the institutional team.

In-service training

Any institution that wants to uphold and improve its standards should establish an in-service training program. Such a program, necessary for every agency and for all types and categories of staff, should be continuous and regular. Work with human beings can be done efficiently only if the worker is engaged in a continuous learning process. Only as people continually scrutinize their own work and are able to sit back and look at it with the humility, alertness, and curiosity of learners, can they carry out this work successfully. This is as true for trained as for untrained staff. It is, of course, especially true for such a group as houseparents, who stand so much in the foreground in the work with children but who as yet bring so little formal training to it.

Working with disturbed children generates anxiety and conflict. In the long run if there is not a constant effort to increase the knowledge necessary for the work, it may create a feeling of insecurity or a cynical attitude. In-service training can help to check this insecurity and avoid cynicism. The houseparent's discovery through such a program that other houseparents are faced with the same problems as he is helps him to overcome these feelings of insecurity and aloneness that are so prevalent among houseparents in institutions. He finds that it is perfectly all right at times to have feelings of hostility towards children or other staff members, so long as these feelings can be kept under control.

How can this in-service training be carried out? A well-rounded in-service training program in an institution entails supervision, staff meetings, conferences about the individual child, and special courses.

Supervision. The most important part of in-service training is supervision. No training program devised can ever be helpful if regular supervision is not an integral part of it.

What is supervision? Supervision is a one-to-one teaching and helping relationship between a worker and a supervisor who are both employed in the same agency and who meet in regularly scheduled conferences. In practice this means that a houseparent is assigned to one person—with whom he has a regular weekly contact, with whom he discusses administrative problems, problems of grouping and of management, individual relationships, his own reactions to the children, and the children's reaction to him, and from whom he gets support throughout his work. It also means that every so often the supervisor evaluates the houseparent's work with him, discussing with him his strengths and weaknesses, the areas in which he has achieved success, and the areas in which he needs further help.

There are many advantages to this supervision. One is the reduction of emergencies and of the anxieties connected with emergencies. By the regularity and security of supervision, the houseparent learns to assume

responsibilities in so-called emergencies. Also, he can better discuss his problems in retrospect. Supervision is usually a joint evaluation of what people have done on their own rather than the issuing of orders as to what they should do in the future. From this evaluation of his activities, the houseparent learns more about what he can do in the future than he would learn from any administrative order, which would only create insecurity.

Another advantage of planned supervision is that it reduces the number of "bosses." An institution is full of people with administrative functions, such as the superintendent, the assistant superintendent, casework supervisors, caseworkers, and so on. Quite often the houseparent gets the impression that because there are so many bosses in the institution, he himself must be somewhere near the bottom of the ladder of the hierarchy. With one definite person to relate to and rely upon, he can face all the other "bosses" with a certain amount of equality and equanimity. This is especially true if any jealousy exists between houseparents and caseworkers.

Thus supervision has an integrating influence. In an instance when one caseworker suggests special attention for one child, another caseworker calls for special attention for another, and at the same time the teacher sends a note saying special help should be given to a third child, the supervisor must help the houseparent to learn how to evaluate all these suggestions in the light of his own functions. The supervisor may have to interpret to the houseparent some of the recommendations of caseworkers, probation officers, psychiatrists, and others. He may also have to interpret to the caseworker and other staff members some of the strengths and limitations of the houseparent.

The most important value of supervision, however, seems to be the cathartic role that it plays in the learning process itself. Houseparents are human beings; above all they *should be* human beings. Therefore they react to children not only according to a professional blueprint but also according to their own background and experience. A houseparent may easily become angry with one child and be indulgent with another. He may "hate" one caseworker and be enthusiastic about another. These reactions are all valid as long as they can be controlled professionally. In supervisory conferences the houseparent learns not only to look at his job, but also to look at his reactions to the children and to his coworkers and to find out to what degree these reactions help or hinder him in his work with the children. He may find, for instance, that he reacts to the hostility of a child with counter hostility. He might want to be especially careful with such a child. He might learn that under certain circumstances, when the work is very taxing or when he has to prepare a report that he dislikes, that he shows an attitude that is not very helpful to the child. In other words, he develops a self-awareness in these conferences that is important for anyone who works with people.

Houseparents thus learn in supervisory conferences to evaluate themselves and recognize the areas in which they have weaknesses and strengths. Thus, when the time for periodic evaluation arrives, the evaluation by the

supervisor is no surprise to them, but is actually a summation of the regular conferences.

In order to achieve these results, the supervisor must be a well-trained professional worker who is able to develop the kind of relationship with houseparents that will make it possible for them to share freely with him all their thoughts and feelings pertinent to caring for children in a group setting.³ It means the supervisor must be a person of understanding, depth, and warmth, with sound knowledge in many areas of the institution's work. The supervisor should understand both children and houseparents.

Staff meetings. Regular staff meetings are essential in in-service training. These are gatherings of the staff under the leadership of an administrator, supervisor, or other staff member to discuss problems common to all staff members and to learn together as a group. Many institutions use mimeographed material and the typewriter too much in their relationship with staff. Every so often an administrative edict is sent to the staff, informing them about a new method of handling clothing purchases, of preventing waste, of preserving light bulbs, and so on. Aside from the fact that these mimeographed notices are often ineffective, they are apt to create a certain resentment if the staff had no share in establishing policies regarding these matters. One of the major purposes of staff meetings is the opportunity they provide for joint planning in regard to administrative problems, a planning through which many of the edicts become unnecessary and are replaced by decisions brought about in joint thinking of the staff.

Another value of the staff meetings is that they furnish a chance for discussion of some common treatment problems. Thus, handling of an enuretic child might well be made the subject of one of the gatherings. This topic, of course, may be discussed by the houseparent and his supervisor

³ A few concepts regarding the training of houseparent supervisors might well be summarized and included here.

Since supervision is regarded as the most important single facet of staff training, the availability of qualified supervisory personnel is a requisite for the establishment of any training program. Unfortunately, in the fields of correctional training, residential treatment, and other institutional care there is a great shortage of qualified supervisors. The supervisor must have knowledge and skills in many areas. He must be a person who understands the techniques of working both with an individual and a group and who has an identification with the administration as well as with the staff. He must be a member of the administrative setup, so that he can speak with authority, as well as with understanding. He must be able to talk the language of the houseparents, but at the same time be able to speak the language of the clinical staff, so as to form a bridge between the clinical staff and the child care staff. Above all he must be sensitive to the houseparent's role and special situation, as well as to those of other staff members, so that he can serve as an integrator, as well as an educator.

It would seem, then, that the houseparent supervisor should be a trained social worker, interested and skilled in both casework and group work. He should have had experience in institutional living, so that he can evaluate the totality of the houseparent's function and identify with the group living situation. Courses in institutional care, with special emphasis on supervision of lay staff, should be included in the 2-year graduate training of social workers or made available as extension or staff workers' courses by schools of social work.

in regard to a specific child with this trouble, but through the staff meeting, it can be more objectively explored by the entire group.

Staff meetings also give opportunity for socializing among the staff. In spite of and perhaps because of the fact that institutional people live in such close contact with one another, there is relatively little getting together in groups in most institutions. Mrs. Jones will visit Mrs. Brown in the evening, but Mrs. Miller and Mrs. Smith won't get together. Quite often then, staff meetings, especially if they are preceded or followed by an informal gathering, have an important social value for the staff. In general it is preferable that the different departments of the staff in a larger institution meet separately not only because of the similarity of their problems but also because too great a number of trained people may have a negative effect on the level of discussion for the less well-trained people, and vice versa. Meetings of the total staff at certain regular intervals cannot be dispensed with though, nor can they be too infrequent if the staff is to be kept actively participating in the dynamic life of the institution.

Conferences about the individual child. One other means of training for houseparents is participation in the evaluation and planning conferences that are held about each child. Many institutions now schedule meetings on each child at regular intervals, meetings in which the caseworker, psychiatrist, administrator, teachers, probation officer, and whoever else has anything to do with the child participate. It is very important that houseparents, too, be invited to engage in these conferences. True, their presence may slow up the pace of the discussion a bit. However, not only do they have a real contribution to make to the understanding of the child in terms of what is happening to him in everyday life situations, but also these conferences will help them to see their own work as part of the total effort and to see themselves as part of a team. Nothing is more frustrating to a housemother than to learn on Friday that starting with the following Monday the child is going to another school or another grade, with a change in the daily schedule required. If, however, this same housemother is in on the planning for the child's schooling and has been enabled to recognize that his present school is no longer meeting his needs, she may more readily agree to get up a half hour earlier if necessary in order to get him off to the new school in time.

Houseparents find that not only do they learn from the caseworkers, psychiatrist, group workers, teachers, and administrators, but also that all these people learn from them and from each other. Omitting houseparents from these conferences is detrimental to the child and also to the houseparents' development.

Special courses for staff. Sometimes the institution may want to invite an "expert" from its own staff or from the outside to lead one or more sessions for the staff on some special topics. For instance, the psychiatrist might lead discussions on the dynamics of human behavior, on masturbation, or some such subject; or the dietitian might conduct sessions on the relative nutritional value of different foods. Or the staff might decide to

invite someone to give them a lecture on dietetics, or they might discuss school failures and ask a principal to talk about homework and "special help" classes, and so on. In order to be of value, such courses have to grow out of the staff's own needs, out of the supervisory conferences and staff meetings. If the courses do not grow out of actual need and are not planned with the participation of the staff, they can easily become just another resented item in an overcrowded schedule.

Their success depends, too, on careful selection of the teacher, the method he uses with the group, and how he is able to fit his contribution into the particular setting. The personality of the expert is important in terms of his ability to relate to the houseparents and their job. He must be able to engage people actively in learning and to identify with their difficulties and sympathize with them. Otherwise such a course may even be damaging. For instance, if an expert on discipline emphasizes only the ways in which houseparents should *not* discipline children and does not give them any help with how they can handle an impossible situation and control a rebellious cottage, time has been wasted. If he advises them not to stress cleanliness, while they were just previously upbraided by their administrator for not having their cottages clean enough, he only confuses them.

One must be aware too that this calling in of experts has been used sometimes as window dressing in an effort to impress the institution's board, the community, or the State welfare department with the kind of training offered the staff. In-service training, however, should not be used as a flashy publicity stunt. In-service training is an art, a long tedious job that must go on all the time. In this framework the calling in of experts is desirable only if it is done in a thoughtful way and at the right time.

Let us review now what in-service training can and cannot do. In-service training is a planned, multiple-training program within the institution. It is not initiated because a problem arises sporadically, but rather is arrived at in a purposeful way and if possible with full participation of the staff on the basis of their own recognition of their educational needs. It is desirable that there be a staff program committee to work out a program for a period of time. All in-service training efforts should be included in the houseparent's working time.

In-service training is valuable in a number of ways: (1) it serves as a means to identify the houseparent with the agency and its philosophy; (2) it gives houseparents security and support in their work; (3) it is a medium of self-expression for houseparents and offers them a way of handling the anxiety and hostility generated in their daily work; and (4) it presents new areas of learning and knowledge in a systematic fashion.

In-service training does have its limitations, however. For example, only to some degree can a houseparent in an in-service training program—or any staff member, for that matter, in any kind of an in-service training program—learn to conceptualize experiences and thoughts, systematize them, and apply what he has learned in a specific case to the more general.

Another limitation is the danger of one-sidedness. An institution generally looks closely only at its own mode of operation. A wider point of view, therefore, is usually lacking in in-service training programs. The very function of a particular institution sometimes precludes consideration of certain aspects of work in the general field. For instance, a houseparent does not learn much about the handling of girls in a boys' institution. In a one-race institution people do not learn much about interracial education. In institutions that serve only dependent children, houseparents do not learn much about the security measures that are necessary in institutions dealing with severely delinquent children.

Still another shortcoming is the fact that the learning has to take place in the face of pressures of the job. These pressures have both external and internal effects. The houseparent who has had a difficult time handling the violent behavior of a delinquent boy will of necessity be both physically and emotionally exhausted when he comes to a training session. He will also have the tendency to want to discuss at the meeting the very experience that is so much on his mind.

Finally, the teachers in the training program frequently are at the same time the "bosses," or at least the supervisors or colleagues. Thus it is very hard for the learner to give free expression to his weaknesses, ignorance, hostility, and frustrations, which is often necessary in a learning process, because these teachers may have the power to influence either the houseparent's status within the agency or even his salary. Nevertheless, it seems that in-service training for houseparents must be established in every institution, no matter what training and experience they had prior to their coming. In-service training is an essential part of the program of any institution that has a sizable staff.

Short-term institutes

Short-term institutes are usually sponsored by State agencies or groups, councils of social agencies and the like, and are focused on one or more facets of the job. While they last only one or a very few days, they are an important way of transmitting information. Not every institution can set up an in-service training program. An institution that has only two houseparents and one social worker would find it difficult to have a training program of its own. For these agencies the short-term institute has a definite value. Houseparents in larger institutions may also gain from these short-term institutes, since they make it possible for people from similar fields of interest and occupations to get together. People from various institutions may thus compare notes and exchange experiences, and find reassurance in terms of their own problems. Such sharing and exchange of experience stimulates interest and may open new areas of knowledge and skill to the participants. This is especially significant if the stimulus can then be followed by in-service training programs at the institutions where the participants are employed.

It has been found that short-term institutes are particularly valuable for

workers living in isolated districts. Thus it would be desirable for these institutes to be given more frequently and for State conferences to plan sessions not only for superintendents and caseworkers but also for houseparents. Perhaps some of the conferences could be arranged on a regional basis so that houseparents from various States could come together.

There are, however, a number of pitfalls involved in such short-term courses. They can become dangerous if they are used as a substitute for rather than as a supplement to in-service training. There is also the temptation to discuss topics that are "fashionable" at the moment rather than some of the basic problems. Furthermore, people may not have enough basic knowledge to understand the general concepts underlying the presentations. Also, people may bite off larger pieces than they can chew in one day. Learning proceeds slowly and requires a readiness of the total personality. Integration of new knowledge frequently cannot be achieved in 1 or 2 days, except possibly on an intellectual level. Then, too, the group may be too heterogeneous to profit from learning together. While all the participants may work in the institutional field and even hold similar positions or have similar capacities, the institutions from which they come may vary so much that what is applicable to one will be quite out of line with the program and practices of another. Some of the people present may have extensive experience, others little experience; some a good educational background, others a poor background. Quite frequently case-workers, houseparents, and superintendents participate in the same institute. In such cases it is difficult to predict what any of the participants will actually take away from the experience. One houseparent who reported on an institute of this kind summed up his learning by saying, "The speaker was against discipline and for sex."

Even with these potential dangers, short-term institutes may be utilized to advantage if the participants are given a part in the planning or at least in the selection of the topics, instead of having someone else determine what is "good for them." Again, as mentioned above in relation to the special courses in in-service training, the selection of the right persons to give the institute is most important. They must know not only their subject but also the composition of the group and, at least in a general way, some of the circumstances under which the participants work.

The truth of this latter injunction was brought home in the following incident. An institute leader at a State conference opened her discussion with the statement that an institution that does not have caseworkers should close up. This remark naturally caused much resentment, especially since in that State most of the institutions did not as yet have caseworkers on their staffs. Another leader who knew the State quite well discussed some of the problems that really concerned the group, in the course of his discussion pointing out the need for casework in institutions. The group could go along very well with this approach.

Short-term institutes have a certain value if they are not the "main dish" but are used as supplements to other forms of training.

Extension courses

There can be no doubt that some of the extension courses offered by universities have considerable value as supplementary learning experiences for institutional staffs, particularly when the subject matter is pertinent to the workers' tasks and not something simply "educational" in a vague way.

Extension programs of universities vary greatly in regard to both quantity and quality. Unfortunately in many of them there has not yet been shown sufficient consideration for the needs of the social work field, let alone those of institutions. But as universities themselves frequently have expressed a desire to serve States and communities in these broader ways, it seems entirely possible that some of them might eagerly respond to a request by institutions in their geographical area to include appropriate courses in their curricula or even to have members of their faculties teach groups of workers at some of the larger institutions. While certainly such cooperation between universities and institutions might lead to considerable improvement in our institutional programs, it is well to remember that many of the same dangers outlined in relation to the short-term institutes may prevent a successful outcome here, too, unless a great deal of thought from both sides is invested in the undertaking.

Extended institutes

The need for extended institutes has already been recognized by a substantial group of superintendents and administrators in this field. There have been very slight beginnings with this form of training, as, for instance, at the University of North Carolina.⁴ Such an institute may be of 1, 2, or 3 months' duration, preferably 3, and consist mainly of academic courses, given to people who already work in institutions and who have received a leave of absence for this specific purpose.

There are many reasons why such courses would be helpful to houseparents. Freedom from their daily job would guarantee that they would not be exhausted when they come to the learning experience. Thus they could give of themselves wholeheartedly and not be under the pressure of the job as they are in the in-service training program.

Also, while the selection of areas of learning in in-service training is limited by the individual institution's needs at a given time, in the extended institute the program could be planned more methodically and be based on awareness of what a houseparent has to learn in order to fill his job more adequately, rather than on what has to be done to improve the program of a particular institution.

Then, too, the extended institute could contract for the services of teachers from different fields of knowledge and experience. This again contrasts with in-service training and with short courses; in the former the selection of areas of learning is conditioned by the incidental availability of people

⁴ See *Report of Workshops for Executives and Houseparents of Child-Caring Institutions, 1953* (University of North Carolina School of Social Work, Chapel Hill, 1953).

with special knowledge and experience in certain areas, and in the latter only one small area out of the total field can be selected.

Finally, whereas in short-term institutes a meaningful teacher-learner relationship is only very rarely achieved and in in-service training teachers are at the same time the students' "bosses" or their colleagues, the extended institute can be carried on by outside people experienced in teaching and ready to give of themselves totally in this teaching experience, thereby making for a close teacher-student relationship.

Extended institutes would serve the purpose of providing a systematic approach to the major areas of knowledge required in houseparent work. Houseparents sent to such institutes would gain an appreciation of the importance of their job simply from the fact that they are given a leave of absence of 3 months from the institution in order to study. They would see more clearly the value of their work and the need for training for it. Such an experience would help to bridge the gap between the trained and untrained workers in the institution, and give the houseparents a new self-assurance with regard to the job they are doing. It would give them a needed feeling of status.

A number of practical matters related to these institutes might well be considered.

Auspices. An extended institute might be offered under any of a variety of auspices, such as, for instance, a university, council of social agencies, a State welfare department, or even a professional organization. Preferably it should be given under the auspices of a university, for the sake of library facilities and an academic atmosphere, which encourages learning. Also, it should probably be given during the summer months, when teaching staff is more frequently available.

Financing. Financing might present a problem, particularly since many institutions do not have provision for such training expenses in their budgets. It seems, though, that if institutions really believe in giving their houseparents needed help in their jobs, they could somehow find the money to provide some of their most promising workers with a paid leave of absence in order that they might attend such an extended institute. The institution might reasonably require that the houseparent serve the institution for a certain length of time after such a leave of absence. There is no doubt but that the money spent would bring good returns in terms of staff efficiency, such as in increase of self-awareness, greater interest in their work, and in an extension and deepening of their knowledge. The intellectual curiosity generated might well affect the rest of the staff. Houseparents might be inclined to stay longer with this work rather than to consider it a transitory experience.

Part of the child welfare services funds given the States by the Federal Government and now used by some States for professional training in social work could perhaps be made available as training grants to houseparents. This would clearly be consistent with the intent that these funds be used for the improvement of services to children. Certainly there would seem

to be few better ways of carrying out this intent. At the same time it seems reasonable to require that participants at extended institutes pay part of their tuition, not only because of the necessity to finance the program but also as an expression of their interest in such training.

Curriculum. While no specific curriculum can be suggested at this point, a number of "most important" courses can be determined that should be included in an extended institute:

1. A course on understanding the individual, dealing with the psychodynamics of different age groups, normal behavior, behavior problems, and some aspects of work with delinquents.
2. A course on understanding the group, covering such matters as the dynamics of the group, the role of the leader, and roles of group members.
3. Courses teaching specific program skills important in helping the individual and the group, such as folk dancing, finger painting, and social games.
4. Courses on child placement, including, for instance, material on the relationship of the real parent to the child in placement, on the relationship of the real parent to the houseparent, on the role of the caseworker in the institution, particularly as it relates to the work of the houseparent, and on the houseparent's relationship to other staff; also, information about who does what in an institution, how an institution should be set up, what is meant by residential treatment, and some of the legal aspects of delinquency.

For such an undertaking, the teaching method is of great importance, as is the atmosphere in which this learning takes place. It is preferable that extended institutes be offered as residential institutes. The students would live together and have many social affairs together. There would be opportunities for informal discussions, games, dances, and visits to institutions. A group worker or at any rate someone knowing how to integrate groups might be helpful in coordinating such a course.

Persons fitted to take this training. Since these extended institutes are not connected with field work practice, people with experience as houseparents would profit more from them than would people who have had no such experience. The institute is best fitted for those houseparents who can grow through learning and who have not as yet developed rigid personality patterns. Or, putting it positively, the houseparents who would most likely profit from such training would be people who are open to change intellectually as well as emotionally. They should be people who can learn intellectually and integrate what they learn into their total personality, and who are willing to use this in their future professional activities.

Limitations. The limitations of extended institutes are fully evident. First, they do not include any field work experience. Real professional

learning can take place only if field work and academic learning go together. Though one can regard such training as a "foot in the door" to professional training for houseparents, it should certainly not be considered the ultimate solution. It is too short to provide a real learning experience, for learning means changing and that takes more time than is available in even an extended institute. The extended institute definitely will not serve the purpose of people who have not as yet had any specifically related work experience, and it might even be dangerous for people who only learn intellectually. Such a course does not lead to the houseparent's becoming a professional person, nor does it make houseparent work a profession, but it is a beginning.

Professional training

Attempts to prepare houseparents for their work in some of the aforementioned ways have so far had meager success. Whether this result is due to an inherent lack in these methods to solve the problem at which they are directed or whether the methods have never been given a sufficient and fair trial, it is impossible to say. In any case, many superintendents and other workers in the child welfare field are convinced that bringing service to children in institutions up to a minimum standard can be done only by the provision of *professional* training for houseparents; that is, graduate training that provides the knowledge and skills essential to any social worker's performance plus some specialized knowledge as needed in residential care of children, which should be provided both in the academic curriculum and in supervised field work in an institutional setting.

In all professions, including social work, there must be great reliance on the human qualities a person brings to his work. In respect to institutional work particularly, the qualities that count are those in relation to children. All of us have probably seen many instances in which a "natural" houseparent handled a difficult situation with amazing understanding and skill. Even so, the almost complete reliance at present on the personal qualities the houseparent brings to his work seems unfair and unwise in view of the obvious fact that he would function much better if he had not only his personal strength to depend on but also professional training. It seems particularly unfair to expect untrained houseparents to accept excessive amounts of testing and hostile attack from the children now being cared for in our training schools and to handle such behavior in a consistently constructive way. Consequently it should be made possible for houseparents to acquire a deeper insight into human behavior and relationships, a greater degree of self-awareness, and the necessary skills to be really helpful to these children. All of this can come only from professional training. Furthermore, if such training were made available to houseparents, they, as prospective social workers do now, could explore their suitability for their chosen profession via such training rather than on the job itself. The way the latter method of self-discovery can lead to possible damage to both houseparents and children, as well as to frustrations to the

institutional staff, is well known to all of us.

Planning for professional training of houseparents and implementing such bold planning calls for the concerted thinking and action of the whole training school field. But even as we call for such planning and action, we must admit that, realistically, the kind of professional training defined as being needed by houseparents must be sought as a long-term goal. Schools of social work are currently not equipped to prepare an appreciable number of workers for houseparent positions. In addition, a recruitment program to interest qualified people in securing such training would be necessary since few of the present houseparents have the undergraduate college training that would qualify them for such advanced training. Finally, upgrading of the position of houseparent would evidently be necessary before professionally trained persons will be attracted to the job.

In view of these practical difficulties, some kind of interim program, providing training of at least a semiprofessional nature, is needed as a preliminary step to the offering of a full professional training program. In this connection it is interesting to note that the Hollis-Taylor report, *Social Work Education in the United States*, points out the great need for some kind of training for people engaged in social work at the less professional level in order to do away with the unfortunate hiatus between the small number of fully or partially trained social workers in this country and the vast number of completely untrained persons who occupy positions that require some training related to social work, a group to which certainly institutional houseparents belong.⁵

Turning now to the planning of this semiprofessional training program for houseparents, it should be pointed out that if the program is focused too narrowly on institutional work, it might become a dead-end street that few would wish to enter. On the other hand, if training for houseparent work were planned so as to provide at the same time some of the knowledge essential for probation and parole work, people might think of houseparent work as part of a career in serving children who have run afoul of the law. In fact, it might be emphasized that if more probation and parole officers could have houseparent training and work in an institution—where they would acquire a deep understanding of the needs and problems of delinquent children as well as of the strengths and limitations of residential treatment—the gap now so frequently existing between those caring for children in the training school and those working with them in probation and parole services might at last be closed.

Thus, we should like to suggest that basic training for houseparents be such that anyone who has taken the training and worked successfully as a houseparent for a period of 3 years or more should be able to use this training and experience as a stepping stone toward additional training for such work as that of a probation or parole officer. This latter training would then emphasize areas that are purposefully omitted from or merely touched

⁵ Ernest V. Hollis and Alice L. Taylor, *Social Work Education in the United States* (Columbia University Press, New York, 1952).

upon in houseparent training but that are essential to functioning in the probation and parole field, such as, for instance, social casework, social work and the law, community organization, and so on.

In considering the content of such a training program, it might be profitable and helpful at this point to draw on the thinking of a group of superintendents in the Chicago area who, in 1951, in cooperation with the Welfare Council of Metropolitan Chicago, the Division of Child Welfare of the Illinois State Department of Social Welfare, the University of Illinois, and the School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago, set down a broad outline in their statement "A Proposed Training Course for Houseparents in Children's Institutions." This proposed course was desired primarily for houseparents in institutions for dependent and neglected children. However, it is plain that most of the course content is generic in nature and would apply equally well to the training of houseparents to serve in institutions for delinquents; some special material related to the treatment and control of delinquents could simply be added.

Here are a number of excerpts from this statement.⁶

Excerpts from statement "A proposed training course for houseparents in children's institutions"

A full-time training program extending over 3 academic quarters for 5 days per week, including 2 academic courses per quarter, a day per week for study and any necessary field visiting and 3 days per week of supervised field work in carefully selected children's institutions. Not more than 10 students would be admitted to the course in the beginning. Those recruited should be mature individuals, some of whom would have already demonstrated their ability as institutional workers. High school graduation would be a prerequisite for the course. Field work assignments will in no case be regular job placements of houseparents. Every effort will be made to provide a rich as well as realistic training experience.

SUGGESTED OUTLINE OF TRAINING PROGRAM

I. Field work

The following criteria would be considered in the selection of institutions for field work placements but it is recognized that it would not be possible to apply all of these rigidly.

1. A board of directors that evinces understanding of a desire for a good program.

⁶ Quoted by permission. The complete statement is available in mimeographed form from the Welfare Council of Metropolitan Chicago, 123 West Madison Street, Chicago 2, Ill.

2. An executive who is accepting of the idea of a training program for houseparents and a willingness on the part of the institution in participation in the plan.
3. Qualified staff or evidence that the agency is committed to securing only qualified persons insofar as they are available.
4. A child centered program with good casework, recreation, and medical services, and good physical standards.
5. In-service training and supervision of staff within the institution.
6. Good working relationships with other community agencies and use of community resources.
7. Geographical location and facility of transportation, and facilities for housing.
8. Good working conditions.

Field work means learning by doing and thus would include a thorough acquaintanceship of the student with the following aspects of a houseparent's responsibilities which will be gradually assigned to the student:

1. The day by day living of the children in a cottage or dormitory situation, including the following facets.

- (a) A practical introduction to the physical care of a child as it relates to a good understanding of bodily needs and the development of proper health habits.
- (b) Cottage routines implying the handling of the necessary work to be done in the most constructive and educational way possible.
- (c) Mealtimes with the children with an emphasis upon making these an enjoyable experience.
- (d) Play with stress upon helping houseparents to gain as much understanding as possible of the significance of the pursuit of play for children, and giving houseparents a sound philosophy of their role in it.
- (e) Discipline with emphasis upon exposing houseparents to constructive practices in this important area of child care as it relates both to individual children and to control of the group as a whole.

2. Relationships of houseparents to other members of the institutional team.

- (a) To the superintendent and to the supervisor of houseparents. This would involve giving houseparents a clear understanding of the institution's goal with regard to the children, enabling them to plan their program in relationship to the total institutional program and to help them toward a better understanding of the individual child as well as to the group as a whole.
- (b) To the caseworkers. This would involve helping houseparents

toward a sound concept of the close interrelationship of their own work with that of the caseworker in terms of a mutual exchange of material regarding the individual children under care and a planning together for the best approach to their problems.

- (c) To the recreation workers. This would involve teaching houseparents to make the most constructive use of the resource of the recreation worker with the common goal of making leisure time activity of the children as profitable as possible.
- (d) To the doctor and nurse. This would involve helping houseparents to understand and to utilize these persons as far as the general health care of the children is concerned and in relationship to the incidents of sickness as well.
- (e) To the maintenance and clerical personnel. This would involve helping houseparents to make effective use of these staff members in order to coordinate their contributions to the children and to integrate their special services successfully in the day by day living situation.

II. Academic courses

The academic program would include the following areas:

1. The institutional setting.

Intake. Kinds of children coming to the institution, their backgrounds and problems.

The intake process. How the agency accepts the child for institutional placement.

The use of the setting for treatment purposes. This will not be limited to its use for treatment of the severely disturbed child but rather it will show the ways in which the various aspects of group living can affect children's adjustment in a positive manner.

2. The institutional program.

The goals of treatment for the individual child, the length of stay, and work with parents.

What the institution attempts to do in providing food, clothing, shelter, group living, medical care, casework, education, psychological and psychiatric services.

The functions of the various members of the staff, the operation of the staff as a team, and specifically the role of the houseparent in the institutional program in relation to children, staff, and parents of children.

3. Understanding of the individual.

Dynamics of human behavior at various age levels and in various living situations with particular emphasis on the psychosocial development of a child separated from his parents and having grown up in his own home under unfavorable circumstances.

4. Understanding of the group process, group work principles and skills. Grouping of children. Treatment values of the group and their use. Group control, group climate, subgroups.
5. Survey of the field of social welfare with particular emphasis on child welfare.
This will include a consideration of common human needs, the reasons that people come to social agencies, the way in which communities are set up to meet needs, the philosophy of meeting needs, and a review of those community resources that are particularly related to the program of the institution.
6. Program skills.
This will include actual activities which can be planned and carried out with the children; arts and crafts; folk-dancing, games, etc.

This material would, of course, have to be elaborated on in several respects were it to be used as a blueprint for a professional training program for houseparents in training schools for delinquent children.

The carrying out of such an ambitious plan would obviously call for major effort and considerable expenditure of funds. It might be well to call attention to how a similar problem has been solved elsewhere, in order that we may all take heart from this example. The reference is to England. There, after the war, a thorough survey of social services for children was made by an especially appointed Care of Children Committee (later known as the Curtis Committee). On the basis of this survey, an interim report entitled *Training in Child Care* was presented to Parliament in March 1946 by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, the Minister of Health, and the Minister of Education.⁷ In broad strokes this report outlined and recommended a full-time training program of 14 months' duration for houseparents in children's institutions. The plan was approved and has been put into operation. Ten training centers have been established in various parts of the country. Funds are granted to the participants for tuition, living expenses, travel, books, and so on.

In this country, too, public support for a training program of the dimensions outlined will be necessary if it is to be realized in full. Certain funds now made available under the Social Security Act for the improvement of services to children might well be used to make a beginning along these lines. Of the total child welfare services funds allotted to the States under this act, the Children's Bureau reports that about 8 percent were used by the States in the fiscal year 1953 for training of personnel who work with children. Most of the States have been making the major portion of these training funds available for professional training in graduate schools, mainly schools of social work. Since graduate schools nearly always

⁷ *Training in Child Care, Interim Report of the Care of Children Committee* (London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, Cmd. 6760, March 1946).

require a college degree for entrance, this has meant that houseparents, few of whom have college degrees, are not able to take advantage of such training opportunities. A few States have recently offered training programs that have reached houseparents, but use of training funds for this type of program is as yet negligible. However, it is clear that States are free to use Federal child welfare services funds for the purpose of training such child serving personnel as houseparents.⁸

Training for houseparents would eventually change the complexion of the houseparent staff. It is anticipated that as the result of such training being offered, the work would attract (1) a more wholesome group of people, whose dependency or other questionable needs would not be their major motivation for entering this kind of work, and (2) younger men and women, with possibly a larger percentage of the former than enter this work at present. In addition, turnover of houseparents would be reduced, since the work would be thought of as a career rather than as a stopgap. There would be a strengthening of the relationship between houseparents and other staff members in the institution. The skills and knowledge gained from the training would enable the houseparent actually to function as the hub of the wheel. And last, but not least, such training would lead to an equalization of service in all institutions.

Even putting a *beginning* program for professional training for houseparents into practice will undoubtedly call for major efforts on the part of all those who have convictions that our training schools cannot be improved unless and until this step is taken, but the example of England that we have cited proves that such a program can be secured. And it should be kept in mind that while working for the realization of a nuclear plan, we must also become active in mapping out what we see as the only *real* solution; namely, demanding the kind of training for houseparents that is now required for professional social workers on the institutional staff.

*summary of workshop discussion**

The various parts of this paper were thoroughly examined by the participants in a conference workshop. The group drafted the following statement relating to the need for training houseparents for work with delinquent children in training schools.

The training school is only one tool in a total community program of social services for the rehabilitation of delinquents and is effective only if it is well integrated with other services.

⁸ See *Policy Manual for the Use of Federal Child Welfare Services Funds* (Children's Bureau, April 9, 1951), p. I-9.

*Prepared by Drs. Schulze and Mayer.

There is wide diversity in the practice of training schools over the country. Basic to any effective program is a progressive philosophy that recognizes the reeducation potentials of treatment of delinquent youngsters in an authoritative setting.

The protection of the community and rehabilitation of the child are compatible. Any solution which does not bring these two functions together is inadequate.

The effectiveness of a treatment approach derives from the total emotional impact of the training school on the child and his parents. This impact derives primarily from human relations between the child and all staff members.

Staff relationships and activities should be based on a common philosophy regarding treatment and joint planning and effort. Staff members have separate as well as joint responsibilities. The climate for a joint treatment effort is created by the superintendent and other administrative personnel.

Training of administrative and supervisory personnel is a prerequisite for effective implementation of a houseparent training program.

Training and supervision of the houseparent must take into account the social and emotional life of the houseparent, his working hours, salary, and his own needs and problems, so as to free him for best use of himself in treatment of children.

All these conditions involving philosophy, program, nature of executive and supervisory personnel, personnel practices, and so forth, are strongly affected by the relative understanding and support of the press, the public, the responsible State agency, legislators, and the governor.

In the group discussion of the need for selectivity of intake in a delinquency institution, the question arose as to where special problems, like that of the feebleminded delinquent child, are best handled. One realistic conclusion was that delinquency institutions must take care of a variety of behavior problems and of psychopathology. Some attention was given to the size of groups that houseparents should be responsible for. The group made it plain that it would be unrealistic to gear our houseparent training program to an ideal or exceptional situation, but that it should rather be oriented to present conditions. This does not mean that a substandard institutional setup should be condoned, but that the standards should be broad enough to cover the varying levels of practice to be found in the existing institutions. While there was awareness among the discussants of significant differences in the existing settings, there was also a strong belief that there are enough generic factors in all settings to make a consideration of some of the major aspects of houseparent training worthwhile.

The need for standards for training schools has long been recognized. Under the auspices of the United States Children's Bureau a manual of standards has finally been prepared and has been made available to the field just this year.⁹ These standards, developed with the help of training

⁹ *Tentative Standards for State Institutions Serving Delinquent Children*, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Children's Bureau Pub. 351, 1954. (Obtainable from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.)

school superintendents, deal with intake procedures, relationship to the community, group and individual aspects of care, and so on. They carefully take into consideration the existing situation, and also forge ahead and look forward to improved practices.

In relation to professional training of houseparents, the group felt that it would be premature at this time to talk about a long-term training program for houseparents that would lift them into a "professional" category.

The workshop group agreed that the suggested 3-month course (the extended institute) was something to be aimed at immediately. People who attend such a course would commit themselves to remain with the agency for at least a year, and after 1 or 2 years, they should be evaluated in the light of their utilization of the knowledge acquired in the course. After 4 years the value of the 3-month course should then be rediscussed, and possibly at that time longer training might be taken into consideration.

The financing of the 3-month course was discussed. It was felt that with the help of Federal grant-in-aid funds to State welfare departments for child welfare services, and with the aid of a leave-of-absence program, such a course could be financed.

The group also considered thoroughly the need for extension courses. Suggestions made have been incorporated in the paper.

There was discussion at great length of the need for training of supervisory personnel. Most of the suggestions on this subject have also been incorporated in the paper.

A special resolution suggested in group discussion and presented by Mr. Sherwood Norman called for the appointment of a committee by the United States Children's Bureau to make a thorough study of the best existing methods of training child care personnel in training schools for children and youth. The committee should be endowed with sufficient funds to do a thorough job and should consist of representatives of the Children's Bureau, the National Probation and Parole Association, and of professional people from the various disciplines that have something to offer to the training of institutional personnel, such as education, social work, mental hygiene, etc. All types of institutes, short courses, and in-service training programs should be examined for all types of schools, both public and private, in all parts of the country. Emphasis should be placed on both content and method, and success should be evaluated in terms of the effectiveness of those training efforts in reaching untrained personnel working directly with children. Finally, the committee should recommend a program of nationwide scope and, after the implementation of such a program, continue to report on developments from time to time.

*first steps in solving training needs of
court and institutional workers who
treat juvenile delinquents*

FRANK T. FLYNN*

The preceding papers and the summaries of the Madison workshop discussions give a detailed and comprehensive view of the situation in regard to training for certain important groups of workers with delinquents. There is also sketched a broad outline of possible solutions to the problems defined. It is unnecessary to try to add to this discussion. The intent of this paper is simply to bring into sharper focus certain points made in the other papers and to select from the overall picture those features that need to be and can be given immediate attention. In other words, I am in a sense trying to determine from the results of the Madison conference the first steps to be taken in the effort to reach an effective solution to the problem of providing adequate training for persons who work with delinquent children.

**ADDING TRAINED SOCIAL WORKERS IN THE
DELINQUENCY FIELD**

A point emphasized repeatedly in the papers and at the conference is the need for more adequately trained social workers to serve in agencies dealing with delinquent children. The acute degree of this need in probation work alone, for example, is shown by the fact that at least 9 out of 10 persons serving juvenile courts lack complete social work training. Just in terms of numbers and of the length of time and the extensive educational structure required for the training of social workers, this need represents a serious challenge. It can be met only through large scale planning and determined efforts.

A major part of the task of providing more trained workers for the de-

*Frank T. Flynn is Professor at the School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago.

linquency field evidently must be the development by schools of social work of training programs suitable for prospective workers. But development of such programs depends in turn to a large degree on a number of other considerations, such as the extent to which social work students are interested in entering this field and the desire of agency administrators to employ them. In reality, then, at least two important questions must be considered: What can the schools do to improve their total programs, including field work placements? How can recruitment and employment of able students be stepped up?

These aspects of the complex problem of increasing the number of trained social workers in the delinquency field are all interwoven, but at the same time each has its own peculiar conditions and difficulties, for which solutions must be found. In the discussion that follows, an attempt will be made to show how these principal factors relate to each other and how ways to approach them simultaneously must and can be found.

Program development in schools of social work

Curriculum. In their paper on the role of the schools of social work, Studt and Chernin make numerous interesting points that go to the very core of curricular construction in the schools. They see one of the tasks of the schools to be that of providing special subject matter on the control and treatment of delinquents, which may or may not be offered as a special course. This conclusion raises a number of questions and needs to be explored for its implications.

Schools of social work generally hold, in varying degrees, to one or more of these assumptions: that generic social work education prepares a student for any specialized field of work; that specialization in the field of child welfare provides a suitable background for work with adjudicated delinquents; and that the training of a worker in special aspects of a particular setting is the responsibility of the employer agency.

There is some merit in each of these assumptions. To introduce at this stage a specialization in work with juvenile delinquents would be to turn the clock backward. The trend is clearly against this; the progress toward a planned program of generic education cannot and should not be interrupted. However, the development of a totally generic educational program must not become so restrictive that it crowds from the curriculum any reference to a special field. Educators should rather attempt to maintain a balance between what they consider true educational goals and the specific demands of the field. That they do attempt to do so is shown by the frequency with which such a title as "What the Schools and the Agencies Can Contribute to One Another" is featured on conference programs.

At the present time the curricula of most schools of social work reflect the structuring of courses in sequences. This structuring has not necessarily led to rigidity, but it has made it difficult to add courses in a special field. A number of schools do, however, offer an elective course for persons who intend to work with delinquents. The workshop on the

Studt-Chernin paper recommended a number of areas in which special courses might be added.

In schools in which it is not possible to expand the curriculum or even in schools in which one or more special courses dealing with delinquency are offered, a promising avenue of approach would seem to be the incorporation of concepts and methods relating to work with delinquents into the various courses now being offered. While this may be a difficult task, it can be accomplished by the use of appropriate case materials in casework courses as well as by the development of necessary materials and concepts in the courses on organization and administration. A strong second year field work program in this specialized field would also be indicated. The contributions from this special field—both conceptual elements and the specifics of casework practice in this setting—could enhance and strengthen the entire social work curriculum. A particular value that might result from such a development would be that social workers in what Studt and Chernin call the "auxiliary service agencies"—those that deal with delinquents only as incidental parts of a larger caseload—would also be better prepared for work with delinquents, thereby encouraging the auxiliary agencies to take responsibility for the treatment of a larger proportion of delinquents than they do now.

Competent faculty. A paramount consideration in the development of special subject matter for inclusion in the regular curriculum is the need to have one or more faculty members who have knowledge and understanding of the special problems of treating delinquents in an authoritative setting as well as reasonably recent work experience in the field. The supposition here is that such faculty members would be used primarily to help plan courses rather than necessarily to present material that might be distributed through several courses. There is reason to believe that at the present time, while there is widespread interest among faculty members, only a few schools have personnel who meet the qualifications set down above. Additions to faculty will generally therefore be required.

Schools that cannot add a faculty member for the specific purpose of improving the training offered students for work with delinquents can still make improvements by assigning responsibility for this kind of professional development to a faculty member who has particular competence in treatment in a variety of settings. Still another possibility would be to obtain as a part-time faculty member a practitioner working with delinquents in a juvenile court or similar agency. The selection of such a person should be made carefully, however, since agency personnel who have other commitments may not be able to identify fully with the school program and may have difficulty in making the needed contribution to the development of the total curriculum.

Field work placements. A related problem that needs a vigorous and imaginative approach is the provision of an adequate number of field work placements. With the separation of correctional agencies from the main stream of social work in the early 1920's the dichotomy between the agen-

cies dealing with juvenile and adult offenders and other social work agencies became increasingly marked. This has meant that throughout the nation for many years there has been only a limited number of agencies in the delinquency field in which students could be placed for field work. In metropolitan Chicago, for example, it has been impossible in recent years to place any students in public agencies working with juvenile offenders, and at the present time field work placements for University of Chicago students in the entire field of corrections are available for a maximum of *three* students.

There are many reasons for this paucity of field work openings. For one thing, the complex tasks demanded of the official agencies dealing with juvenile delinquents generally has contraindicated their use by the schools of social work for first year students. Their use for second year students is limited because of their inability to provide adequate supervision. Second year students tend to have more technical knowledge about issues related to human behavior than do most of the workers in the agencies in question.

This problem is not without a solution. Schools of social work have in the past developed their own field work units in agencies that were unable themselves to supply all that was needed for a complete educational process. This has been true notably in the case of large public assistance agencies, which because of shortage of professional staff, high caseloads, and other restricting factors, would otherwise not have been able to open their setting to the schools for field work. Such an approach is also being utilized now in the delinquency field. The New York School of Social Work has recently established two such training units in New York City, one at the Home Term Court, which has jurisdiction over family conflicts that usually come before the regular Magistrate's Court, and the other in the Children's Court, which is a part of the New York City Domestic Relations Court. In both these units the school furnishes the supervisor.

Such a procedure does, of course, increase the per capita cost of student instruction considerably. As a result, placement under faculty supervision may not seem feasible to most schools of social work at the present time since few of their graduates seek employment in courts and other public agencies concerned with offenders. However, experience suggests that more students would enter this employment if adequate field work placements were made available to them. In a sense, then, provision of suitable second year placements is a device for recruiting trained personnel for work in the agencies dealing with adjudicated delinquents.

Financing. Of course, the addition of faculty and provision for school supervised field work would make considerable new financial demands upon schools of social work. The budgetary situation of most schools is not strong enough at the present time to permit much expansion of program. It is possible that this difficulty might be partially surmounted by agreement among the schools to develop a concentrated program in a small number of strategically located schools. Such a solution, while of some value, would

never adequately meet the current needs of the employing agencies so long as residence restrictions are maintained in the various States. Under present conditions, schools in as many States as possible should be providing programs for workers in this field.

Regardless of the number of schools that may have to be involved, however, additional financial support must be found to do the necessary job. A precedent and pattern that could possibly be followed is that furnished by the mental health field. Here second and third year training programs for psychiatric social workers have been developed by schools with the help of mental health funds granted to them through the United States Public Health Service.¹ The way in which these funds have been used has meant an enrichment of the curriculum for all students. No such funds are available for the delinquency field, but logically, should Congress so decide, Federal appropriations might be made available for the addition of special faculty and development of supervisory units for field work.

Recruitment and employment of candidates

Recruitment. To turn to the matter of recruitment, it must be pointed out that if more graduates of schools of social work are to be interested in obtaining training for work in these agencies, certain changes in the current patterns of employment will be necessary. Field work placements alone will not do the job.

Among the factors that put agencies for delinquents in an unfavorable competitive position in the recruitment of social workers are the presence of political considerations in employee selection, the undeniable frequency of dismissals for political reasons alone, and the general insecurity prevalent in such situations. Even in agencies in which civil service protection is given, numerous restrictions, such as residence requirements, tend to serve as barriers to recruitment. The slowing up of promotional opportunities because of the weight given seniority is likewise a discouraging factor. Also, as in numerous other social work positions, salaries are low, although in localities where professional standards prevail, they may be slightly higher than for comparable positions in other settings. Whether a slight salary advantage is sufficient to outweigh other disadvantages is dubious.

In many of these agencies, caseloads are unrealistically high. Of course this is a burden shared with many other public agencies, but even so, it can be extremely frustrating to a skilled, sensitive worker. Furthermore, supervision in the educational sense has been noticeably lacking in agencies dealing with delinquents. Whether or not other agencies stress supervision too much, the fact remains that this has become a competitive issue which is generally resolved unfavorably for juvenile courts and institutions for delinquents.

¹ *Training and Research Opportunities under the National Mental Health Act* (U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Washington, D. C., January 1954), pp. 3-5.

In addition to general improvement of agency standards and personnel practices, another way of encouraging workers to enter this field—and also a way of enabling schools of social work to expand their program—would be through the device of scholarships and fellowships, given on condition that a person commit himself to work in the field for a certain length of time. Experience shows that it is feasible also to give financial help for further training to workers of demonstrated competence in the field.

If this scholarship plan is to be a State financed program or a program based on a Federal grant-in-aid to States, it will be difficult in many States to single out an appropriate agency to administer the program. Most juvenile courts and their probation departments are agencies of local government and are in effect completely independent of State agencies even where some nominal State supervision is provided for by statute. Even when permitted to extend assistance to local or other State bodies, a State agency that has few funds and little if any responsibility for the services of such a body will generally, and probably naturally, favor its own program. Thus State departments of welfare have made only limited use of Federal child welfare services funds to train workers in the delinquency field even though it is permissible for the funds to be so used.²

Should funds for training be made available, these difficulties in administration can undoubtedly be surmounted by various kinds of adjustment. A simple way to avoid such difficulties might be to establish a scholarship program at the Federal level similar to that for psychiatric social workers carried on through the National Institute of Mental Health of the Public Health Service.³ In this program the Public Health Service authorizes certain approved schools of social work to administer traineeships. Students apply directly to the schools, and training stipends are provided the students through the school administration.

Whatever plan is worked out, it is doubtful if a scholarship program for delinquency specialists could be established without Federal aid.

Creating employment opportunities for trained workers. Improvement in school curricula and field work placements can be of major value in bringing employer agencies and the social work profession into closer accord. The point is made in the Studt-Chernin paper that some administrators in this field show resistance to graduates of schools of social work. Whether this resistance is due to defensiveness or to real disappointment

² See *Policy Manual for the Use of Federal Child Welfare Services Funds*. (Federal Security Agency [now U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare], Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau, Washington 25, D. C., April 9, 1951) pp. I-9 and I-10. An example of a State in which delinquency workers *do* serve a State agency and in which child welfare services funds *are* used for training these workers is Wisconsin. With these funds the Wisconsin State Department of Public Welfare has been able to grant educational leave with some financial support to a number of workers in the delinquency field. The persons aided in this way are committed to return to the Department's Division of Correction.

³ See *Social Work Fellowships and Scholarships in the United States and Canada for the Academic Year 1954-55* (Council on Social Work Education, New York, December 1953), and *Training and Research Opportunities Under the National Mental Health Act*, *op. cit.*

with social work graduates is impossible to ascertain. Nevertheless, this resistance must be overcome. It has already been overcome in part by the increasing recognition given the social work profession by acknowledged leaders in the field of delinquency treatment and control. It can be further overcome by insuring that schools of social work are preparing students reasonably well for work in this field, although the agencies themselves cannot be absolved from the responsibility to conduct ongoing in-service training programs for all personnel.

Observers have noted the readiness of administrators of agencies in which students have been placed for field work to absorb such personnel into their staffs whenever possible. Whether these administrators are already favorably disposed to social workers in the first place, as evidenced by their providing field work opportunities, is a moot question, but in any event experience shows that new employees who have had previous orientation to a particular setting tend to operate more freely in it at an earlier stage than they would if they had had no such orientation.

This discussion perhaps has shown how involved this problem of bringing more social workers into the delinquency field really is. It seems plain that progress toward solving this problem will depend in large measure on a close working partnership between schools and agencies, and the approach to the problem must be broad and sweeping.

TRAINING PERSONNEL ON THE JOB

An important part of the role of schools of social work, as distinguished by Studt and Chernin, is to participate in in-service training programs designed to improve the competence of agency workers on the job who have not had professional training. The exact nature of the school participation is part of the broader question of the need for in-service training programs and the way in which they can be carried out.

Because of the acute shortage of trained personnel in this field and the dim likelihood that their number will grow appreciably within the near future, it is particularly important that ways and means be developed to provide for the training needs of workers who are already on the job. Schulze and Mayer have treated this subject exhaustively in regard to one important group, houseparents and related personnel. The needs of probation workers are dealt with at length in the paper by Meeker, but because of problems peculiar to agencies in this field, some of his points deserve special emphasis.

State leadership needed

As Meeker states, the initial responsibility for providing in-service training belongs with the agency itself. Unfortunately, however, the

way in which probation services are generally organized does not lend to fixing this responsibility, especially in the case of small courts. What is reasonably to be expected from a large metropolitan court may be utterly impractical in connection with a small court. The issue, therefore, is how to offer workers on the job in agencies both large and small the training in methods and the understanding of concepts that are vital in dealing with difficult behavior problems.

Court services, for example, are usually organized on a county basis. Even in the most populous States there are many counties that provide a staff of only one or two persons or no staff at all. It is perfectly clear that for the small agency the problem of conducting anything resembling an adequate staff development program cannot be solved adequately on a local or county level. In the larger communities and especially in metropolitan areas, the problem is somewhat different. It might reasonably be expected that the agency itself would see to it that adequate staff development plans were set in operation. However, this has happened in very few communities even though such a development is theoretically feasible.

While it was not the function of the Madison conference to explore the various methods by which services are organized, it was apparent to all concerned that the local organization of services for delinquent children has been and continues to be a stumbling block to staff development objectives. It is true that about one-third of the States have some provision for statewide probation and parole services, but these usually are for adults. Even in States in which the statutes permit State agencies to work with juveniles, they rarely do so. Given local organization of services and small staffs, the only remedy seems to be action at the State level to provide in-service training programs on a regional basis.

In those States that have State agencies conducting vigorous programs in the field of juvenile delinquency, substantial gains have been made in the establishment of in-service training. This has been accomplished in California, for instance, by the Youth Authority, in New York by the Youth Commission, and in Wisconsin by the Department of Public Welfare. In still other States, statewide child welfare staff development programs have been extended to encompass probation officers responsible to juvenile courts and workers in institutions for juvenile delinquents. In some States funds have from time to time been made available for institutes for workers in the delinquency field or for the expenses of workers attending institutes. This last type of effort is helpful, of course, but whether it has any sustained and lasting effect is open to question.

One plan now in effect in certain places is to include within the statewide child welfare staff development program persons working in the juvenile court and institutions for delinquents. This plan has much to recommend it, particularly in the case of those States in which child welfare workers carry the major responsibility for juvenile probation work and in which the institutions for delinquents are part of the regular child welfare program.

In a majority of the States, however, such a program would encounter

two serious obstacles. First, the staff development program for workers with delinquents must be geared to developing the special knowledge and skills necessary for work with alleged or adjudicated delinquents, as defined in the Studt-Chernin paper. In those States in which work with juvenile delinquents has not as yet been truly assimilated in the public child welfare program, it might be difficult to incorporate this *plus* factor in the regular child welfare training. A second obstacle is that in those States in which juvenile probation work is separate and apart from the child welfare program, the probation officers frequently do not think of themselves as child welfare workers. They often have their own State associations of probation officers and are more closely identified in their own minds with the field of adult corrections than with child welfare. The development of an integrated statewide staff development program for *all* persons engaged in work with children and youth is certainly a suitable long-term goal. Nevertheless, in many instances it is not a practical first step.

An alternative plan is for a State agency to provide a consultant who would be acceptable to workers in the delinquency field and who would have the ability to provide various forms of training help to the counties. Because of the need for the consuming group—the workers with delinquent children—to identify to the greatest extent possible with the aims and objectives of the State agency providing consultation, the selection of the agency is of paramount importance. In some States it might well be a youth authority, as in California. In others the best choice might be the department of welfare, and in still others a probation commission or, if there is one, the State juvenile court.

The way in which action at the State level and provision of financial aid by the Federal Government can lead to progressive programs of staff development reaching to the local level is well illustrated in the fields of child welfare, maternal and child health, and mental health. This progress has been noticeably absent in the area of juvenile delinquency. There seems to be clear evidence that the absence of State leadership and initiative, along with the provision of Federal funds for this field, has allowed programs for work with delinquents to fall behind seriously.

Supervision

One of the most important aspects of staff development is supervision, which is defined in the Schulze-Mayer paper as the "one-to-one teaching and helping relationship between a worker and a supervisor who are both employed in the same agency and who meet in regularly scheduled conferences." The function of a supervisor is to help others do their job more effectively. The supervisory relationship should provide a setting for the development of each worker's potential. An essential part of this setting is a sound administrative structure, in which the duties and responsibilities of workers are defined and lines of administrative responsibility are clearly drawn.

The absence of good supervision defined in these terms has been a serious handicap for workers in this field. The effect of its absence is greatest at the beginning; new workers are too often put "on their own" without the guidance and help they need at this psychologically crucial time. In many juvenile courts a superior, frequently the chief probation officer, directs his assistants on the assumption that each worker is a mature person capable of doing the work requested of him and is therefore really in no need of supervision. Even in larger courts the title "supervisor" usually refers to a person who is simply responsible for directing the work of others in line with accepted policies of the court; the use of supervision as an educational device is rarely exploited.

The assumption that all workers employed are capable of acting as independent agents is contradicted by the experience of business and industry as well as by that of social agencies. Two remedies for the lack of supervision may be suggested: (1) specialized training in the use of supervision for educational purposes might be given supervisors currently on the job, or (2) workers with the most adequate educational and professional background might be selected as supervisors. Since in the latter case the workers would tend to be the younger workers, the former remedy seems more advisable where civil service standards exist. Seniority, with all its ramifications, is a potent force in many of the larger agencies; it cannot be ignored to the extent suggested by the second proposal.

It would be a good idea for an agency to have a special program for supervisory personnel as a phase of its in-service training program. This was done, for example, in the Wisconsin Bureau of Probation and Parole during 1950-51, with results that were satisfactory both to the supervisors and to agency administrators. It is frequently suggested that extension and residence courses offered by nearby colleges and universities should be used for in-service training. There is no reason at all why agencies in this field should not take advantage of appropriate courses offered—which usually consist of courses in criminology and informational courses on social work, community organization, and the like—but these courses should be clearly recognized for what they are; it should be understood that their content does not cover areas involving professional casework skills and methods.

The institute as a device for training

Judging by the frequency with which they are offered and the number of people who attend them, one of the most popular forms of in-service training is the institute. Evidence that schools of social work play an important part in these institutes is given by the frequent extent to which faculty members of the schools are participants. Because of the popularity of this kind of training device and because of the amount of time and money spent on it by all concerned, every effort should be made to make it as effective as possible.

The institute structure could probably be improved both by limiting the

size of the groups to about 20 or 25 persons, by the spread of sessions over 3 or 4 days in place of 1 or 2, and by greater use of case materials drawn from the files of agencies represented. Further improvements might be made by dividing the institute groups so that workers of different levels meet in separate sessions, although this presents certain obvious difficulties.

One of the most serious drawbacks affecting institutes is the shortage of qualified leaders, both from the practitioner group and from the field of social work education. This shortage may be overcome in time by the addition of faculty personnel who would have special competence in the area of juvenile delinquency. An appropriate intermediate step might be to prepare more social work educators to be institute leaders by holding short-term training sessions for them. The materials on content and methods needed for such training should be prepared beforehand by a representative group of experienced institute leaders and practitioners meeting in a 2- or 3-week workshop for this purpose. Such a training program could improve both the quality and quantity of institute leadership, equipping many social work educators who have had no previous experience in the control and treatment of juvenile delinquency with more definite knowledge of the problems met in this field and giving them a sense of security and of acceptance by institute participants that is often lacking now. No matter how willing a school of social work may be to offer faculty members as leaders of institutes and short courses, this kind of help must be carefully planned and developed if it is to be of full value to the persons participating.

PROPOSAL FOR A SPECIAL THREE-MONTH COURSE

As indicated in all the papers included in this volume, the minimum education recommended for work in delinquency treatment and control is that gained by completing the 2-year program of an accredited school of social work. The enormous gap that exists between this standard and the education that most workers presently employed in this field have had makes it imperative that some step be taken immediately to bring about partial improvement in the training of personnel even though the result will recognizably fall short of desirable standards in training.

It is impossible to state with certainty how many of the workers in this field are graduates of accredited schools of social work, but such evidence as there is indicates that the proportion does not exceed 10 percent. There is little hope that accredited schools of social work will be able in the foreseeable future to train a sufficient number of workers or recruits to meet current needs. Nor is it likely that various pump-priming devices will accelerate staff development programs enough to raise the general level of staff preparedness appreciably. One of the chief obstacles to getting adequate staff development programs is that because of the way services are

organized now, the responsibility for initiating staff development programs rests with individual courts and agencies, many of which do not have the resources to shoulder such a responsibility.

In view of these circumstances, there would seem to be merit in the proposal that a specialized training course of about 3 months' duration be offered in regional or State centers for persons who are presently working with delinquents. Admittedly this is a limited goal, falling far short of the 2-year program in social work thought necessary for this kind of work and veering close to the specialized undergraduate curricula in corrections offered by many colleges and universities. It is a device created out of expediency and not an acceptable substitute for what is really needed.

Notwithstanding these failings, this goal is an important one in that it should at least offer immediate help to many workers, so that they can do a more effective job in helping delinquent children than they are presently doing. At the same time, as a temporary goal it should not preclude work and progress toward offering more substantial programs of training; in fact, it may very well be an important step forward toward ultimate goals.

There are precedents for such an interim program. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration in the 1930's achieved certain staff development goals by sending workers away for relatively brief periods of study in a graduate school, frequently for a quarter or a semester. The Delinquency Control Institute of the University of Southern California offers a 3-month curriculum for training police officers for work in the juvenile field. Also, the experiences of the armed services during World War II and the experiments of industrial concerns since that time prove the value of methods of training that encompass a much briefer time than prior experience seems to have justified. While none of these examples exactly parallels the present situation, some similar features are present. The success of the very limited Federal probation training center at Chicago suggests that the extension of its 2-week program to one of several months would result in a proportionate increase in the skills of those persons trained under its auspices.

Personnel to be reached

Such a short-term course would be desirable for all persons who deal with delinquent children in a treatment relationship and who lack adequate training for such work. There are a number of groups of such workers, diverse in their function. Particularly important among them are probation officers and institutional workers, including houseparents. A good case might also be made for using such a course to help meet the training needs of police officers, recreation workers, teachers, and other groups.

Because of the wide range in educational level and previous experience of the persons in these various groups, no single course could be devised to meet the training needs of all of them. Instead, a separate 3-month course would be required for each homogeneous group of personnel. Furthermore, for each course it would be necessary to establish "floor" and

"ceiling" requirements, in terms of educational attainment, for acceptance in the course. The task of determining appropriate teaching materials and methods would otherwise be overwhelming.

"Floor" and "ceiling" requirements for each course at each center should be determined by the resources available for conducting the program and by the crucial needs in the area being served. For example, in an area in which most of the probation officers have a college degree and many of them graduate training in social work, the training center serving that area might well set a college degree as the minimum requirement but bar those persons with professional training. For its course for institutional workers, however, this same center might make high school graduation the floor requirement, with a college degree as the ceiling.

A further requirement might be that candidates have had at least 2 years' work experience. This much previous experience would indicate that the person seriously intended to remain in the field and would also equip him to profit more from the course and contribute more to the group learning process. Preference might also be shown persons employed under a formal or informal merit system. This policy would help obtain candidates who are generally better qualified and who are apt to remain in the field for a reasonable length of time.

Since courses probably could not be immediately made available to all the groups of personnel who need training, perhaps one group should be selected for a beginning. This group should be, it would seem, the probation officers—because of their number, their generally high level of educational qualifications, and their great importance in dealing with delinquent children at an early stage. If the courts are going to meet realistically the problem of the increasing numbers of children coming before them and prevent the flow of children to institutions, they must have competent, well-trained staffs.

Curriculum and faculty

The Schulze-Mayer paper includes an outline for a semiprofessional training program for houseparents (see pp. 65-68.) that would extend over a full academic year. The general objectives and selected content of this proposed program might readily be adapted to an intensive 3 months' experience that would be effective and useful for other workers dealing with delinquent children. This is not to say that the proposal of a 1-year training program is necessarily unrealistic, but a beginning must be made somewhere.

The curriculum of the 3-month program should be organized so as to include information on normal child development as well as on deviant and antisocial behavior. Instruction should be offered on interviewing and on ways and means of handling manifest aggressive behavior. The core curriculum would vary for particular groups. Institutional personnel, for example, might need instruction and practice in the elements of working with children in a group. Probation officers, on the other hand, might

prefer to focus on social investigation, and police officers on special problems related to interrogating juveniles. In other words, this program is not meant to be a watered-down version of social work education as it is presently conceived, but is rather an attempt to offer basic education for the immediate task at hand.

The program should be conducted under social work auspices. However, the faculty should be drawn not only from schools of social work but also from related disciplines. Trained people working in appropriate fields might also be considered for faculty use. The criteria for selection of faculty should include mastery of subject content and the ability to teach adults experienced in the field but lacking academic training for it.

Where offered and how financed

In many instances the number of persons in a single State who could benefit from such a course is considerable enough to warrant establishment of a center to serve that State alone. For most States, however, the number of workers involved and the resources available are limited. A regional approach is the solution in such cases. Several States might jointly establish a center. Locating the center on a university campus would make extensive capital investment unnecessary and would offer many other advantages.

National leadership and financial support—from either a Federal agency or a voluntary organization—may very well be needed for this undertaking. Furthermore, the State or local agency employing a candidate should probably grant him a leave of absence with pay to attend the center and perhaps should bear some or all of the tuition fees. Probably the student himself should be required to pay some of the costs, however small his contribution may have to be. Financial participation on the part of the employing agency tends to ensure a real willingness on its part to use the newly acquired skills of the center graduate; the student's contribution indicates that he is truly interested in the work and will remain in this field.

Pilot operation necessary

Before a national network of State or regional training centers is established, an experimental pilot operation should first be conducted at a single center. This pilot operation would serve the dual purpose of showing what the general pattern for the other centers might be and of revealing various difficulties and problems for which solutions will have to be found.

To conduct such a pilot operation and then to duplicate it in a national system of training centers might seem to be an undertaking of great magnitude. Measured by its necessity, it is less overwhelming. This chain of proposed centers would have to be operated for a 3- or 4-year period in order to reach just half of the workers who need training. The need is great.

The proposal offered here is simply a small step toward the ultimate goal of complete training for those persons who work with delinquent children.

SUMMARY OF "NEXT STEPS"

This paper in itself represents a kind of summary—an attempt to pull from the discussion of the Madison conference the most important conclusions and recommendations. This broad summary needs in turn to be summarized so that the principal features of our blueprint for action will stand out clearly and sharply.

Getting more social work graduates into the field

There are three main parts of this plan. The first and the most complex in its ramifications relates to the job of training more social workers for the delinquency field and getting them into the agencies officially concerned with treating and controlling juvenile delinquents. A major share of this job must inevitably fall on the schools of social work. It is thought best that the schools not establish a specialized curriculum for specialists in the delinquency field but, instead, they should incorporate within their regular courses materials on method and content related to the treatment and control of delinquent children. A few special courses, offered on an elective basis, might also be practicable. Specially prepared faculty members are needed to guide this adaptation of the regular curriculum. These faculty members may be found within the schools or they may have to be drawn from the field, preferably on a full-time basis.

The problem that the schools now have in obtaining field work placements for second year students can perhaps be solved by a determined joint effort on the part of schools and agencies. Should this not produce satisfactory results, a way will have to be found to enable the schools to provide field work supervision for the students until the agencies are able to assume this function.

The success of this expanded program undertaken by the schools of social work will depend to a large degree upon the willingness and desire of agencies to employ more social workers and upon the personnel practices that will govern such employment. Among the beneficial changes that would do much to facilitate the employment of social workers by agencies would be the elimination of residence restrictions, the adoption of merit systems for employment and for promotion, the provision of proper supervision and a stimulating professional working atmosphere, the raising of salaries, and the lowering of caseloads.

Judged realistically from the financial viewpoint, it is obvious that schools of social work will not be able to carry on this new program without outside aid, nor will the number of people sufficient to meet current needs apply for such training without financial aid in the form of scholarships. The extent of this problem—both in terms of the amount of money needed

and its geographical scope—means that Federal aid seems the only likely solution. Grants-in-aid to the schools of social work are needed so that they can develop the necessary training program. Support to individual candidates for training might be provided in either or both of two ways, namely, through granting funds to State agencies specifically for the purpose of furthering training (conceivably child welfare services funds could be used for this purpose at the present time) or through grants to individuals from a Federal agency, through one channel or another. Numerous precedents could be cited in support of all parts of this plan for financial support. A particularly close parallel is that furnished by the National Mental Health Act, a plan for training certain categories of workers in the mental health field.⁴

Improving in-service training

The second principal section of our blueprint is a design for improving in-service training programs. There is great need for State leadership since a great many of the local agencies are too small to undertake in-service training programs of any consequence. Two ways in which the State can give leadership are suggested; either or both could be adopted. One way is for the State department that is concerned with staff development of child welfare workers to extend its staff development program so as to include court and institutional workers. An alternate or supplementary plan is for the appropriate State agency to which delinquency workers feel closest to provide a consultant on training who will devote himself exclusively to devising ways to further the education and training of workers in this field.

The conspicuous lack of proper supervision for delinquency workers at the local level particularly needs attention. Local administrators can help improve this situation themselves by a little effort. Assistance should be given by a State agency through the holding of workshops for supervisors or by other special programs for development of supervisors.

Another way in which in-service training programs can be improved is to increase the effectiveness of the ever popular institutes that are held at local, regional, and State levels. A primary way in which this could be done would be for the agencies and schools of social work to get together and devise a program for developing more and better skilled leaders for these institutes. A little effort here would pay great dividends.

These first two parts of our program should be sought as permanent, continuous goals. That is, we must seek to have a sufficient number of trained workers emerging from the schools of social work to fill the current needs of the agencies, and in-service training programs should always be in full swing. But at the present time an extra effort—a special project—is needed in order for us to lift the whole field to the point where the other parts of the plan can be undertaken with confidence and not with a sense of futility.

⁴ See *Training and Research Opportunities under the National Mental Health Act* (U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Washington, D. C., 1954).

This is not to say that the other parts are to wait upon achievement of this third part. Work on all three must proceed together.

Special short course offered on large scale

The third part of the blueprint, then, is a special training project in which large numbers of court and institutional workers undergo a short course of condensed instruction aimed at achieving an interim standard of education and training. The course should extend for at least 3 months. It would seem best that it be offered at State or regional centers. In the overall plan provision should be made to carry on the project for at least 4 or 5 years in order to reach the several thousand workers who need such instruction. It is advisable that a pilot operation be undertaken at one or two centers first.

Fundamental to this proposal are the questions: Where should the leadership come from? Who is going to pay for it? Financing such a program obviously presents serious hurdles. When it is kept in mind that this is a field in which educational leave is virtually nonexistent and stipends for education a rarity, some device must be found to provide for the costs of this short-term education and the maintenance and transportation costs of students. No final solution can be offered for all these problems, but it seems clear that the general confinement of both leadership and financing to local agencies over the years has failed to produce a substantial solution. This is an area of concern which extends far beyond the local community. In a country with such a high degree of mobility as this one, some degree of cooperative local, State, and Federal action is required.

appendix

LIST OF CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS*

Madison, Wis., May 22-23, 1953

Dorothy Banton,
Kruse School,
Marshallton, Del.

Bertram M. Beck,
Special Juvenile Delinquency Project,
c/o Children's Bureau,
Washington, D. C.

Herbert Beaser,
Office of the General Counsel,
U. S. Department of Health, Education and
Welfare,
Washington, D. C.

Donald Bloch,
National Institute of Mental Health,
Bethesda, Md.

Milton Chernin,
School of Social Welfare,
University of California,
Berkeley, Calif.

Fred P. DelliQuadri,
Division for Children and Youth,
State Department of Public Welfare,
Madison, Wis.

Charles C. Dibowski,
Probation Department,
Jefferson County Juvenile Court,
Louisville, Ky.

Laurence Dimsdale,
Regional Attorney,
U. S. Department of Health, Education and
Welfare,
Chicago, Ill.

Mary E. Durden,
School of Social Work,
University of California,
Los Angeles, Calif.

John Ellingston,
School of Law,
University of Minnesota,
Minneapolis, Minn.

Victor H. Evjen,
U. S. Probation System,
Washington, D. C.

Frank T. Flynn,
School of Social Service Administration,
University of Chicago,
Chicago, Ill.

Clarice Freud,
School of Social Work,
University of Michigan,
Ann Arbor, Mich.

Edward D. Greenwood,
Menninger Foundation,
Topeka, Kans.

Hyman Grossbard,
New York School of Social Work,
New York, N. Y.

L. Wallace Hoffman,
Probation Department,
Lucas County Juvenile Court,
Toledo, Ohio.

Alfred Kadushin,
School of Social Work,
University of Wisconsin,
Madison, Wis.

*The agency affiliations of the participants are those prevailing at the time of the conference.

Walter Kindelsperger,
School of Social Work,
Tulane University,
New Orleans, La.

Gisela Konopka,
School of Social Work,
University of Minnesota,
Minneapolis, Minn.

James Lamb,
MacLaren School for Boys,
Woodburn, Oreg.

John Farr Larson,
Bureau of Services for Children,
Department of Public Welfare,
Salt Lake City, Utah.

William H. MacKay,
Probation Department,
Juvenile Court,
Hartford, Conn.

Henry W. Maier,
Pittsburgh Child Guidance Center, Inc.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

Morris Fritz Mayer,
Bellefaire,
Cleveland, Ohio.

Ruth B. Melcher,
Probation Department,
Cuyahoga County Juvenile Court,
Cleveland, Ohio.

Elwood F. Melson,
Family Court of New Castle County,
Wilmington, Del.

Edith Monroe,
State Department of Welfare,
Bismarck, N. D.

Sherwood Norman,
National Probation and Parole Association,
New York, N. Y.

Russell G. Oswald,
Division of Corrections,
State Department of Public Welfare,
Madison, Wis.

Harris B. Peck,
Mental Health Service,
Domestic Relations Court,
New York, N. Y.

Martha E. Phillips,
Regional Representative, Bureau of Public
Assistance,

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and
Welfare,
Chicago, Ill.

Charles Prigmoor,
State Department of Public Welfare,
Madison, Wis.

Mary Lois Pyles,
Child Welfare Regional Representative,
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and
Welfare,
Chicago, Ill.

Fritz Redl,
School of Social Work,
Wayne University,
Detroit, Mich.

Sophia Robison,
New York School of Social Work,
New York, N. Y.

Heman G. Stark,
California Youth Authority,
Sacramento, Calif.

Phillip H. Starr,
Community Child Guidance Clinic,
Washington University,
St. Louis, Mo.

Elliot Studt,
School of Social Welfare,
University of California,
Berkeley, Calif.

John W. Tramburg,
State Department of Public Welfare,
Madison, Wis.

Howell V. Williams,
Raymond A. Kent School of Social Work,
University of Louisville,
Louisville, Ky.

Ernest F. Witte,
Council on Social Work Education, Inc.,
New York, N. Y.

From the Children's Bureau Washington, D. C.:

Elizabeth H. Ross.
Mildred Arnold.
Richard Clendenen.
Martin Gula.
Louise M. Noble.
William H. Sheridan.
Bessie Trout.
Helen L. Witmer.

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office
Washington 25, D. C. - Price 85 cents

CHILDREN'S BUREAU PUBLICATION NO. 348-1954

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Social Security Administration

• Children's Bureau