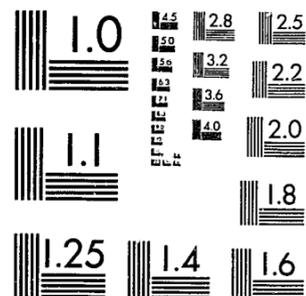


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ADVANCED

MODULE I

CASE CLASSIFICATION MANUAL

Texas Adult Probation Commission



88701

December , 1981

ADVANCED CASE CLASSIFICATION TRAINING

MODULE ONE:

Technical Aspects of Interviewing

U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

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Spring, 1981

ADVANCED CASE CLASSIFICATION TRAINING: Module One

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This project is an excellent example of the national, state and local criminal justice systems cooperating to produce a product which will improve the criminal justice system and ultimately provide improved public safety.

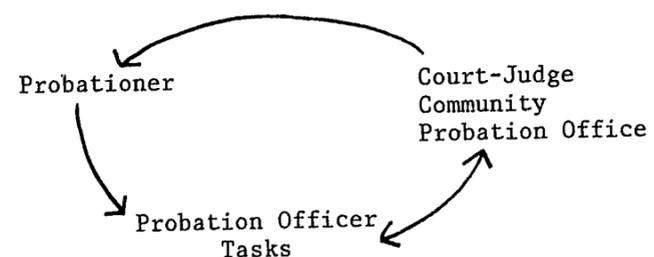
TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF INTERVIEWING

The Purpose of Probation

The probation officer's job requires responsible discharge of duties in a variety of areas. He is responsible to the court, his department, the probationer, and the community. He has a specific purpose; to serve the community through the supervision and rehabilitation of the probationer and to serve the individual probationers through professional use of his helping role within the limits imposed by policy and the courts.

The purpose defined above highlights two important propositions about probation: (1) the probation officer has a particular function to perform in the community which is the job assignment for which he is accountable; (2) this assignment is then elaborated into modes of activity and action patterns which become a process for ordering one's activities. One must further describe what he does - the tasks - in the basic role of probation officer. These tasks are limited by the immediate sphere of action and are within the limits of the description of the function which has been defined by society.

This proposition may be diagrammed as follows:



Notice that the diagram illustrates the relationship between the components defined in the purpose of probation. It specifies the task of

the officer as he relates to the ambiguous and (sometimes) inspecific expectations placed by the community and court on himself and the client. This model directs the probation officer's attention to the relationship between the community and the probationer as he attempts to define needs and risks and serve the requirements of each. The probation officer must work at the point at which these two forces meet - the probationer's need for health, growth, belonging, and rehabilitation; and the community's need to integrate him/her as a productive and dynamic person.

Tasks of the Probation Officer

Using this model, the probation officer will need skills or tools for carrying out his tasks as well as his roles. There are a range of roles the probation officer may use to achieve his purpose. These roles will enable one to serve the individual and the community in handling the type of problem situations defined by the case classification system.

The model being suggested for use by the probation officer yields several additional propositions about roles and tasks:

- (1) Even though the probation officer/probationer relationship is involuntary, there is a basic need factor which constitutes the rationale for their meeting.
- (2) This need is specifically confronted through the pursuit of common tasks. Tasks become needs converted into work the probation officers must perform in order to meet the requirements of his probationer and improve his/her behavior to more successfully meet community standards. There should be a fair degree of consensus between the probation officer and probationer about what these work tasks are to be.
- (3) Work, in this sense, is need fulfillment.

Work Roles Needed by the Probation Officer¹

Detection

Detection can involve identifying when an individual is at risk or when the community is at risk. The first objective for the officer is to identify the individuals or groups who are experiencing difficulty (at crisis) or who are in danger of becoming a risk to the community. A second objective is to identify conditions in the community itself that may be contributing to the personal problems of the probationer and which might raise his assigned risk level. A third objective is to determine when the community is at risk from the probationer and take steps to protect the community.

Broker (Linkage)

The primary objective is to steer people toward the existing services that can be of benefit to them. Its focus is on enabling or helping people to use the system and to negotiate its pathways. A further objective is to link elements of the service system with one another. The essential benefit of this objective is the physical hook-up of the person with the source of help and the physical connection of elements of the service system with one another.

Advocate (Advocacy)

The primary objective is to fight for the rights and dignity of people in need of help. The key assumption is that there will be instances where practices, regulations, and general conditions will prevent individuals from receiving services, from using resources, or from obtaining help. This includes the notion of improving for changes in laws, rules and regulations, etc., on behalf of a whole class of persons or segment of society. Advocacy aims at removing the obstacles or barriers that prevent

people from exercising their rights or receiving the benefits and using the resources they need.

Evaluator (Problem Solver)

This involves gathering information, assessing personal or community problems, weighing alternatives and priorities and making decisions for action.

Mobilizer (Mobilization)

The foremost objective is to assemble and energize existing groups, resources, organizations and structures or to create new groups, organizations or resources and to bring them to bear on problems that exist, or to prevent problems from developing. Its principal focus is on available or existing institutions, organizations, and resources within the community.

Enabler (Facilitating, Supporting)

Its primary objective is to provide support and to facilitate change in the behavior patterns, habits and perceptions of individuals or groups. The key assumption is that problems may be alleviated or crisis may be prevented by modifying, adding or extinguishing discrete bits of behavior, by increasing insights or by changing the values and perceptions of individuals, groups and organizations.

Information Manager (Information Processing)

Its primary focus is the collection, classification, and analysis of data generated within the community. Its contents would include data about the individual case, the community, and the institution.

Mediator (Mediating Between Systems)

The primary objective is to mediate between people and resource systems and among resource systems. The key assumption is that problems do not exist within people nor within resource systems, but rather in the

interactions between people and resource systems and between systems.

Educator (Instruction)

Instruction is used in the sense of an objective rather than a method. The primary objectives are to convey and impart information and knowledge and to develop various kinds of skills. A great deal of what has been called casework or therapy is, in careful analysis, simple instruction.

Community Planner (Community Planning)

This involves participating in, and assisting neighborhood planning groups, agencies, community agents, or governments in the development of community programs to assure that probationer needs are represented and met to the greatest extent feasible.

Enforcer

The enforcer role requires the officer to use the authority of his office to revoke the probationer's standing due to changes in the status quo which involves heightened community or individual risk or which involve factors outside of the control of the officer or the probationer.

II - THE RESISTANT CLIENT

Who Is The Resistant Client

The reluctant client is the unwilling person who finds his way against his own inclinations to the probation office and who rejects the role of helpee that was chosen for him by other persons. Reluctant clients literally do not want to be in the office and they generally make this clear in a variety of ways. Besides the non-verbal language they may communicate, they may typically respond with:

- silence
- verbalized hostility toward the probation officer
- overcompliance
- probation officer hero worship
- grandiose expectations
- "putting the probation officer on"
- excessive agreeableness
- denial of the need for counseling
- retreating into humor

Any discussion involving the reluctant client must consider two important elements:

1.) Reluctance is as common a problem for a probation officer as low back pain is for the general practitioner. Far from being an unusual phenomenon, it may, in certain situations, seem to be the rule rather than the exception. Dr. William Glasser, author of Reality Therapy, has described the universal experience in telling of his work as a school counselor. "They put you in a small room, about six by eight, and then they throw a kid at you and close the door."² The counselor is expected to take things from there and to return the student in improved shape to the school environment.³ Probation officers will frequently find themselves in the same situation.

2. Reluctance on the part of the probationer does not necessarily mean something is wrong. It is not, in other words, necessarily the same

kind of signal as resistance to counseling which is based on a conscious decision to withdraw and repress feelings. Not wanting to be in the presence of a probation officer can be a natural and understandable response to a situation of which the individual is not the author. As two recent students of the problem, John Vriend and Wayne Dyer have written, "It may be the most reasonable and realistic approach for a client (probationer) to take..."⁴ When probationers do not want help, it should not surprise us when they express this clearly and directly in their behavior.

The reactions of the reluctant client can frequently create barriers to communication. These barriers may be thought of as a form of resistance on the probationer's part against entering the problem-solving process. This resistance may be thought of as a special kind of defense to ward off the probation officer and protect the probationer from any discomfort he might otherwise experience.

These sources of resistance can be distinguished as follows:

1) Resistance may stem from the unusual discomfort of dealing with a strange person and situation. Essentially this is a "normal" anxiety and discomfort with which many of us approach new situations.

2) Resistance may stem from cultural and subcultural forms regarding involvement with service agencies.⁵

3) Resistance may stem from a certain degree of gratification from one's problems. This type of pathological involvement with one's problems is a serious source of resistance which interferes with the probationer's ability to communicate and makes seeking a solution more difficult.

4) Guilt and shame may create resistance at the initial interview. The presence of guilt and shame following the commission of crime is characteristic of normal persons and should be anticipated. Excessive guilt

and shame may indicate emotional instability or personal maladjustment.

The Probation Officer's Role

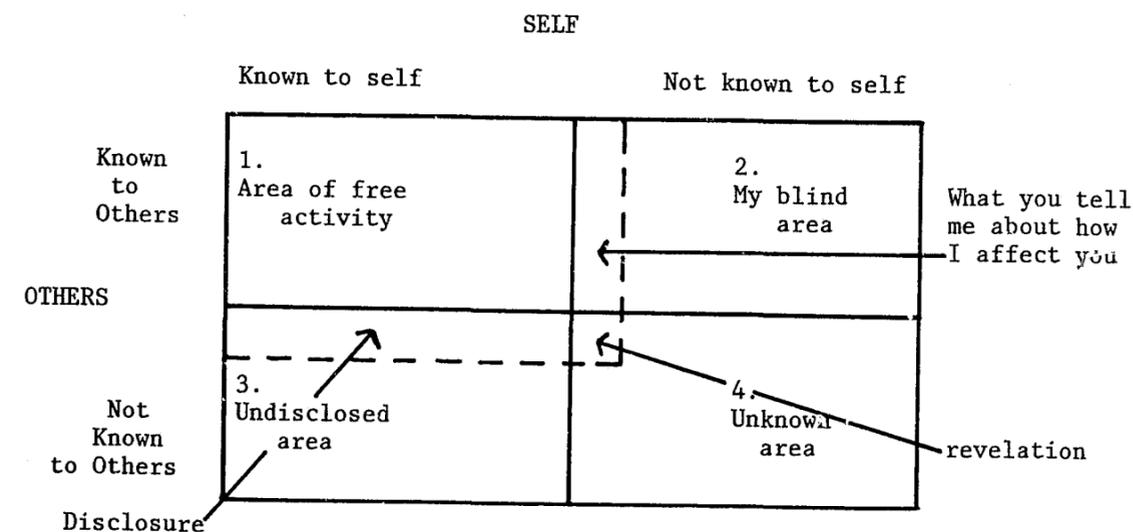
The effective use of interviewing skills in offender assessment is an essential prerequisite to the professional practice of probation work. While the probation office setting imposes some modification of technique, the interviewing skills used by the investigating officer are similar to those practiced by the other helping professions.

Particularly difficult is the non-voluntary nature of the probationer; this individual places a premium on the skills of the probation officer who must counter resistance with patience, persistence, and good will. In counseling agencies where most clients are eager for assistance, the reluctant offender (probationer) is not very welcome. The insecure probation officer who expects to derive personal gratification from the appreciation of his clients often finds corrections and probation are dearly bought from probationers; it takes hard work and perseverance to see results which are more easily obtained in other people-helping settings.

The sum of all the negative feelings and retaliatory actions projected on the offender by a frustrated probation officer is referred to as "defensive communication". Defensive communication is the irrational and destructive response of the officer. This is a chronic problem for those who have not completely worked out their professional identities and their role-taking functions with clients. Defensive communication is, by definition, over-reactive and should not be confused with firmness in handling confrontations with offenders when required. The point of this discussion is the necessity for probation officers to constantly examine their values and

commitments so that they are guided rationally in their supervision of probationers and are contaminated by defensive communication attitudes as little as possible.

In 1955 Jo Luft and Harry Ingham developed a device called the Johari Window⁶ which helps to illustrate and understand those things we know and do not know about ourselves and consequently communicate or do not communicate to others. Each probationer with whom we work will have a Johari Window of his/her own. A review of the Johari Window may help probation officers reflect on their communication strengths/weaknesses and guard against defensive communication with probationers.



We can describe the four areas in this way.

Area 1 refers to my behavior, thoughts, feelings, beliefs, motives, etc. known to me and known to others. It is concerned with the extent to which two or more people can give and take, work together, enjoy experiences together, etc. The larger this area, the greater is my contact with the real world and the more I can make available my abilities to others or express my needs to them.

Area 2 is my blind area representing behavior performances where others can see things in me of which I am unaware. It may be some unconscious mannerism which is quite obvious to others; or I may have a need to run the whole show and not be as aware of this as others are. I need someone else, therefore, to tell me about this if I am ever to find out.

Area 3 is the avoided, undisclosed, hidden area representing behavior, thoughts, feelings, etc., of which I am aware but do not wish to reveal to others in the given situation. For instance, I may resent a remark but keep the resentment to myself.

Area 4 is the unknown area in human relations. Neither I nor others are aware of certain qualities, motives, etc. which operate in me. The potentially new and creative are included in this area. We may assume their existence because some of these aspects, when they come to be known, will be recognized as having influenced our behavior all along. An individual may surprise himself and others, for example, by taking over the group's directions or may discover that he has a great ability to help hostile people become friendly again.

The reluctant or non-voluntary probationer is one of the greatest sources of stress the probation officer will have to deal with. These probationers may have been placed in other settings but the emotional context of their appearance in the probation office creates a problem the officer has to deal with. Probation officers, whether formally in that role or not, are expected by others to "cure", "adjust", or otherwise "solve" a problem person referred from the courts for supervision. This weight of expectation from the court system and the community at large can be very great; it seems almost a test of the probation officer's skills and resources. It is as if other people were implicitly saying, "You're

supposed to be able to help others; now, here's a chance for you to prove it".

Added to these external expectations are those which the probation officer may make on his or her own performance. Many probation officers feel that they should be able to reach and change most of the persons who come to them. This is because they may have high ideals, personalistic value systems, and optimistic outlooks from their training and reading that make them feel that they can constructively transform most of the persons they deal with. These are assumptions that lead to trouble for officers. In addition, officers must continually work with the pressure that the community places on them in their role as supervisor of probationers and guardian of the social welfare.

Reluctance resides primarily in the probationer but probation officers would do well to inspect their hierarchy of expectations about their work. Until probation officers can come to terms with a semi-messianic conviction that they can help everyone, they may increase their own stress in a way that is not fair to themselves. Probation officers may also have to re-translate the notion of help into a more modest and sensible concept. A little real help is a great deal of help. When probation officers can accept that, they lessen their experience of stress and increase their chances of assisting other people in a positive way.

It is generally agreed among professional people in the human service profession that certain qualities are necessary within a human relationship for growth and change to take place. These qualities can be classified into six groups of essential elements for all professional relationships.⁷

a. Concern for the Other

Concern for the other means that the probation officer sincerely cares

about what happens to the probationer and is able to communicate this feeling. This is an unconditional affirmation of the client's life and needs -- wanting your clients to be and do all they can for their own sakes. Sometimes probation officers' equate concern for others with "liking". This is misleading. "Liking" everyone often results in a denial or repression of feelings rather than a change in them. Under this term -- concern -- can be placed many other descriptive words such as: warmth, liking, support, nonjudgemental respect, and understanding. Understanding may be a part of other attitudes and is important as a part of the concern of the worker to seek understanding on behalf of the other out of desire to help in a way that can be useful -- not out of a personal need to know. Concern for the other means that the probation officer views clients as uniquely valuable human beings and in a helping relationship this means that -- in addition -- the probation officer transcends his own needs and view of the problem and lends himself instead to serving the client's interests and purposes.

b. Commitment and Obligation

Persons cannot enter into interrelationships with others in a meaningful way without assuming the responsibility that is linked with this action. A commitment to the conditions and relationships allows the probationer to feel safe and thus reduces the testing behavior and trial and error searching that usually marks the beginning of a relationship. The expectations of both probation officer and probationer are explicitly shared. This means that the probation officer assumes more commitments and obligations and cannot renegotiate this contract without the consent and participation of the client. Commitment, then, is an involvement with a probationer and his/her environment that is unqualified by one's own id-

iosyncractic needs. This commitment is communicated through a resulting consistency, constancy, responsible follow-through, and the preservation of the other's dignity and individuality.

c. Acceptance and Expectation

Acceptance and expectation means to receive as adequate or satisfactory what the other offers. To accept others means to receive what they offer of themselves, with respect for their capacity and worth, with belief in their capacity to grow and mature and with awareness that behavior can be understood as attempts at survival and coping. Acceptance means acting in the recognition that the essence of being human is having problems, making choices (good and bad, wise and foolish), and participating in shaping one's own destiny with the resources one has to command. In this sense one does not judge but actively seeks to understand. Most human behavior is purposive. If one can understand the purpose, then it becomes understandable rather than right or wrong.

A unique characteristic of human beings is that their mental representation of the future powerfully effects their state of well being in the present. Expectation is a force with which one must reckon in all transactions with other human systems. There are at least three elements of expectation that are important to consider:

- 1) how one feels about the other's desire or willingness to change and contribute effectively to the change in your client or your's and the client's environment;
- 2) the expectation of the probation officer held by those environmental forces that influence one;
- 3) the environment's (community's) expectation of the effect of the helping process.

The second element of expectation for which the probation officer must show concern is the probationer's expectation of what you will do to help. The more congruent the notion of the probationer and officer working together -- the tasks -- the more effective the work will be. If the expectations of the probation officer's behavior are highly discrepant with what actually occurs, the probationers will rapidly withdraw from involvement in the relationship. In other words, it is very important for you to be consistent in what you say and what you do.

The third important element in expectation is the probationer's belief that good results will follow from your interaction with him. Expectations of the future that are critical to the change process are found in probationers' attitudes of trust and faith.

d. Empathy

Most authorities agree that empathy is a necessary quality of the helping relationship. Empathy is the capacity to enter into the feelings and experiences of another--knowing what the other feels and experiences--without losing oneself in the process. Carl Rogers defines empathy as "the perceiving of the internal frame of reference of another with accuracy, and with the emotional components which pertain thereto, as if one were the other person but without ever losing the 'as if' condition."

Keith-Lucas differentiates between pity, sympathy, and empathy with a cogent illustration.

Consider three reactions to someone who has told us that he strongly dislikes his wife. The sympathetic man would say, "Oh, I know exactly how you feel. I can't bear mine, either". The two of them would comfort each other but nothing would come of it. The pitying man would commiserate but add that he himself was most happily married. Why didn't the other come to dinner sometime and see what married life could be like? This, in most cases, would only increase the frustration of the unhappy husband and help him to put his problem further outside himself, on to his wife or his

lack of good fortune. The empathic person might say something like, "That must be terribly difficult for you. What do you think might possibly help?". And only the empathetic person, of the three, would have said anything that would lead to some change in the situation.⁸

Perhaps the best way to illustrate empathy was managed by Wendell Johnson when he explained how cowboys found a lost horse:

The experienced western cowboy was able to find a lost horse with uncanny ability. I understand that he did this by working at the job of trying to feel like a horse. He asked himself, "Now what kind of reason would I have for wandering away if I were a horse? With such a reason where would I go?" Apparently, it is possible to empathize with a horse a good deal -- to feel like a horse to a surprising degree. At any rate, the cowboy would imagine that he was a horse, that he had the horse's reason for going, and then he would go to the place he would go if he were a horse -- and usually he would find the horse.

In learning to be empathic, a probation officer has to develop the capacity for imaginative consideration of others and to give up any fixed mental image that may lead one to change reality to fit any pre-conceived notions. In this, probation officers are handicapped by two factors:

1) The set of stereotypes carried with them, which are useful in enabling one to quickly grasp the meanings of encounters in everyday life, to manage great bundles of communicated messages, but which block greater discernment.

2) The limits symbols, words, gestures and reports available to them to convey another's reality.

The accuracy of interpretation of messages, then, is dependent on your sensitivity and intuition. One can never fully understand another, but one can only try. It is even questionable if one wants to be fully understood. This understanding can be frightening if it is suspected that one knows "everything" about another, for in knowledge lies control. As the Johari Window illustration suggests, much of what we are is hidden. The known part

of self is revealed to others when there is trust. This trust is most likely to be given to an unknown other when psychic pain is so intense that there is hope for the relief another can offer. Without the pain of the problem and the hope that the probation officer can, in some way, offer relief, no clients will willingly share themselves. The probation officer who can accept the probationer as an individual with both rational and non-rational positions and who can empathize with these positions will, other things being equal, be more productive than the probation officer who does not possess these skills.

e. Authority and Power

Authority may be defined as a power delegated to the probation officer by the probationer, community, and agency in which the officer works. He is seen as having the power to influence or persuade resulting from possession of certain knowledge, ability or experience and from occupying a certain position. Thus there are two aspects of authority in helping relationships. The first is functional and comes from the probation officer's tasks within the agency and community and the second is psychological in that probationers give the probation officer power to influence or persuade when they accept him as a source of information and advice -- as an expert in the field. The crucial significance of power and authority lies in how they are utilized for help. The primary characteristic of the concepts of power and authority in the helping relationship is that they are neither good nor bad in themselves. Some aspects of these elements are always present. Attempts to abdicate the role of authority figure and pretend that it doesn't exist only leave the probationer troubled by suspicions and doubts about why you are unwilling to admit what they, the probationers, are so aware of. This incongruence between what

the probationer feels and what the probation officer says makes an authentic relationship impossible.

f. Genuineness and Congruence

In an effective helping relationship the helping person needs to communicate four things: empathy, acceptance, unconditional positive regard (we have called this quality "concern for the other", and find this phrase more expressive of the essential notion), and congruence. Congruence means that officers bring to the relationship a consistent and honest openness and realness and that behavior and the content of communication with, and in regard to, the client must at all times match each other (be congruent) and must match the underlying value system and the essential self as a professional person.

In order to be congruent and genuine, we must seek three things:

- 1) an honest knowledge of ourselves, of who and what we really are;
- 2) a clear knowledge of agency procedures and policies and of the professional role, both in their meaning to the probation officer and their meaning to the clients;
- 3) an internalization of the first two and our concern for the other, acceptance of probationers, commitment to their welfare and to the authority aspects of the role and position, so that these qualities are so much a part of you that one no longer needs to be consciously aware of them and can turn full attention to the probationer and his situation.

In conclusion, relationship is a climate or an atmosphere. The probation officer needs to study and understand the six qualities of relationship and his/her own skill at each one. Note that relationship is an integral part of the whole helping process. It is not the end of service but a stepping-stone toward the provision of a problem-solving service for the

probationer. In addition to the responsibility of establishing the relationship, the probation officer needs to provide a focus for the interview. This occurs by establishing a purpose for the interview very early and focusing the interactions in relation to the purpose. Focusing the interview does not mean dictating the purpose; it does mean jointly establishing with the probationer a particular purpose for an interview and fulfilling the responsibility of maintaining that focus. Clear purpose may assist the officer in keeping the interview focused although this is difficult with an aggressive probationer.

Why is There Reluctance and What Does It Look Like?

Non-voluntary probationers may have many motives for not wishing to work with the probation officer. They may share these in common with all persons who are not motivated to deal with their problems or to change themselves. The only difference, of course, is that they find themselves in the helping situation. It is not surprising that they balk at this; it may even be a reasonable reaction on their part. It is helpful, however, to explore some of the possible reasons that explain why people who do not wish to engage in helping themselves change. These include the following reasons.

Clients resist the idea of facing things that they do not wish to examine or admit about themselves. These may not be causing them enough subjective anxiety to move them to seek help; in fact, their behavior may be getting them some secondary gains that tend to reinforce it, therefore, they are reluctant to deal with it.

Talking to a probation officer frequently involves a loss of self-esteem -- which already may be a basic part of the individual's problems -- because it seems tantamount to admitting failure. In certain institu-

tional settings, seeing the counselor is what you do when there is something wrong with your head. Going to see the doctor becomes another way of admitting painful failure.

Some individuals are referred as a logical consequence of their being against the establishment in general. As they act out against it -- or against any symbols of authority -- they become annoying to the system so that the message is sent that "You'd better get your thinking straightened out on this". The probation office may merely provide an extended stage on which the individual can act out even further; now, however, he uses resistance as a new weapon against the expectations of the uncongenial establishment.

The probation officer who deals with unwilling clients comes to recognize a wide variety of behaviors that tell the same story and offer the same challenges. The resistant probationer may, for example, express himself or herself in silence. This silence can be very loud and can seem to be very long for the officer who is unprepared for it. Such periods of silence are not without expressive gestures, shrugs of the shoulder, or other examples of body language. Sometimes the client can do something as simple as fiddling with a loose button on a jacket to indicate his genuine removal from the situation. Silence can also mean that the probationer is thinking about what the officer has just said. He/she may feel frustrated if the probation officer is talking too much, and feel that there is nothing left to be said. He/she may also feel that the probation officer has stated the problem situation very succinctly, and nothing else that the probationer could say would add anything of relevance.

Hostility may be expressed by silence but it can also come out more directly. "This wasn't my idea", the probationer says, and the room fills

with a feeling of forces engaged on a field of battle. The hostility can be raw and unprocessed but it can be subtle as when the client knows how to tease the officer or how to go through the motions of counseling without getting any help. Some clients who have been referred frequently for help have learned a lot through their experience and they begin to look on each succeeding helper the way a matador looks at the bulls. They learn to lead the officer by telling colorful stories that are more fiction than fact. They play the role of a productive and cooperative probationer on the surface but withhold themselves or turn off completely when they feel like it, much to the exasperation and frustration of the officer. One is reminded of the famous cartoon, drawn when America was becoming conscious of psychoanalytic concepts, of the young prisoner being led from an interrogation room. He turns to speak to another young prisoner just being led into it. "Tell them your mother beat you", he says with a knowing smile.

Other probationers who do not want to be there may indulge in distracting behavior that gets silly at times in a self-conscious way but which, nevertheless, achieves the goal typical of resistant clients; it delays or interrupts the helping process itself.

It is especially easy for new probation officers who bring to their work high expectations of their performance to fail. They are vulnerable, therefore, to the probationer who will not cooperate and who may, by his or her behavior, slowly pick apart the substance of the officer's self-confidence. New officers frequently try too hard to do good or to do well and so they over-invest in succeeding rather than in understanding what is going on in the helping relationship. They sometimes live with the fear of meeting a non-cooperative client and, once repulsed by one, they are not eager to try again.

According to Vriend and Dyer, helpers both old and new, sometimes fail because they project the client's reluctance onto themselves personally and thereby feel rejected.¹⁰ They blame themselves for the counseling failure and, not sorting out the elements of the emotional exchange that are relevant to the situation, they will feel trapped or engulfed unnecessarily because they have taken on too much responsibility for the success of the relationship.

The most important learning for the officer dealing with such clients is the ability to accept the person as resistant or uninterested in counseling. The key to any successful therapeutic relationship is related to our capacity to let people be what they are in our presence. If we try to make them into cooperative clients when they are, in fact, just the opposite of this, then we impose a demand that interferes with the institution and the development of helping. We treat feelings of reluctance, in other words, in the same way we would treat any other emotions expressed by those who come for help. There is no need to get into a psychological wrestling match with non-voluntary probationers nor to present ourselves as extensions of the environment or other societal forces which brought them to us in the first place. It may be easy to fail but it is not difficult to succeed if we keep clearly in mind the notion of accepting the person of the other. We may need to explore the reasons we find it difficult to accept resistant probationers as they are. Whatever the situation, authentic acceptance is the appropriate response.

Dealing With the Resistant Probationer

In dealing with the resistant probationer or the non-voluntary probationer, probation officers should begin by examining themselves, and asking, "What is he doing to me?" and, "What am I doing in return or in

retaliation?" The probation officer needs a feel, in other words, for the flow of the relationship, so that he may judge whether he is allowing himself to be trapped or if he is further provoking resistant behavior because of his responses. The probation officer may well focus on the source of reluctance to see if he is rewarding it in some way and therefore strengthening and extending it.

There are three ways that the probation officer may deal with the resistant probationer.

1) Bargaining can be used in the probation setting when conflicting interests of officer and probationer come into play. Bargaining is a process through which mutual expectations are clearly defined and investments and rewards are restructured. Bargaining usually develops through different levels until a point is reached where probationer and officer come to some action agreement. The first level involves the discovery of those things or behaviors which can be bargained over; in the probation context there are certain aspects of behavior which are not "bargainable". The second level involves determining areas of agreement -- areas and behaviors which both officer and probationer can agree to work on. The third level is that of "critical bargaining" which involves the use of proposals, compromise and concession. The fourth level involves the bargained agreement, stated publicly in some fashion (documentation, contract, time-frame) by the probationer and the officer.

This outline of levels of bargaining gives the structure but says little about the actual process. Bargainers typically make extensive use of rewards/gifts in bringing others around to their particular point of view. To be successful in bargaining, the probation officer and the reluctant, non-voluntary probationer may attempt to get each other's consent

and cooperation by convincing them of the value of their plan. This is usually accomplished through persuasion.

2) The second way of dealing with the resistant probationer is through the use of persuasion. Despite the importance of persuasion in probation work, there have not been many serious attempts to analyze this skill. People use persuasion in a variety of ways in trying to resolve conflicting situations; probation officers may find that a more thorough understanding of its operation can offer an alternate method of handling resistance. One approach to persuasion is called "partisan discussion" or an examination of the offense and the circumstances surrounding it as well as a look at the various definitions of probation, supervision, conditions of probation, etc., held by both the probation officer and the probationer.

Another approach to persuasion centers on compensations or the giving of rewards and attention within the limits of the probation setting. It may be possible, for example, for the officer to use the reduced reporting schedule or valid travel permit as a compensation for behavior with the understanding that such rewards will be removed if abuses occur on the part of the probationer. Compensation persuasion with the reluctant probationer can also involve demonstrating certain "demeanors". A probationer might show deference or gratitude to the officer who grants requests where and when possible; the officer might pay some attention to the probationer who demonstrates good behavior.

The strategic use of authority is another possible form of persuasion available to the officer working with the resistant probationer. Both the officer and the probationer may seek a base of their authority for making demands on each other. The officer may invoke the power of his position or that of the Court to persuade the probationer and gain cooperation. How-

ever, the probationer may counter with the expression of his individuality and eligibilty for probation services.

Individuals involved in the use of persuasion may bring social pressures to bear in the relationship. The officer may attempt to win over and use third parties such as family members or community authorities to persuade the probationer. Likewise, the probationer may try to bring pressure on the officer by mentioning his connections in the community or referring to the public or tax monies which run the department.

These particular approaches to working with the resistant, non-voluntary probationer -- bargaining, persuasion, use of authority, social pressures -- are methods which may help the officer stabilize and develop the probation relationship with the individual who seems totally opposed to probation supervision and cooperation.

3) The third method of dealing with reluctance is an emphasis on dealing with a mutual exploration of a serious business. The officer takes probationers seriously and does not engage in trying to win them over or in other such unproductive behavior. If nothing more is accomplished than that the probationer and probation officer perceive each other in a more personal and less official way, small but substantial progress has been made. This attitude toward the resistant probationer must be present in order to carry out effectively any one of the many practical strategies that may be used to assist the client in exploring himself or herself further.

The officer may explain the process of helping so that it is not strange or mysterious. Resistant probationers may never have allowed themselves to learn anything about the way counseling ordinarily works. As this is explained to them -- especially when they feel they are being taken

seriously -- they may feel a lessening of their own reluctance to participate.

Resistant probationers must be recognized for what they are; people who do not want to be in your office and who need to be accepted and understood as such before any real progress can be made. The primary task is to deal with the reluctant feelings of the probationer rather than merely to get angry or to attempt to coax or cajole the probationer out of having them in the first place. Fundamental to this is the acceptance of the individual as unwilling or uninterested in seeing us. When we can convey an understanding of the way they perceive the situation in which they find themselves we may relieve a good deal of distress which we experience with them.

How does one talk to a person who is forced into one's presence in order to gather information? How can one engage this person in a discussion that has any meaning or purpose? How can one arrive at a tentative contract when he/she professes no need for help and actively resents one's presence?

There are a few things that you can avoid doing. Don't start with a pre-conceived idea of what the world looks like to this probationer. Don't assume that his denial of the problem means that he feels no discomfort. Don't take sides (with him or against him) so that you play into his continuing and fruitless battle. Don't lecture and exhort -- he has already been the object of exhortation and this has not helped him. Don't argue; what is logical and reasonable is a function of one's values. Arguing only wastes time and forces the probationer into the opposite position.

What you can do in a positive sense---- is to start with the observed reality that somebody is in trouble. How has this come about? Why does he

suppose he has been forced into the position of probationer? What is his perception of the circumstances that led to this? How does he feel about the people who have made him talk to you? What does he think your power over him might be? What does he expect you and the probation office to do to him? For him?

At this early point in your interchange it may well be that the only discomfort that the client can acknowledge is the discomfort of having somebody else say that he has a problem. Recognition of his own part in the problem (if this exists) and a definition of the problem may come much later and may be the end result of your helping efforts. Here you are reminded of all the communication and interviewing techniques you have learned.

III - COMMUNICATION SKILLS

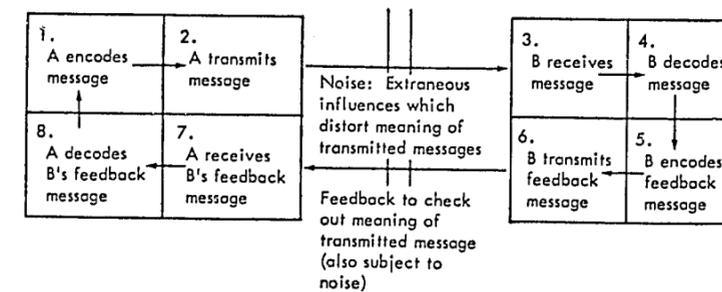
Structure of Communication

a. Process

Communication can be defined as an interactional process which gives, receives, and checks out meaning, and occurs when people interact with each other in an effort to transmit messages, receive transmitted messages, and check out meaning.

The communication process can be diagrammed as follows:

(As the number sequence illustrates)



One responsibility of the probation officer is to create a communication climate in which the probationer is comfortable in sharing valid and reliable information. There are some barriers to communication which will affect the validity and reliability of your data.

b. Barriers to Communication

Barriers to communication may occur at any phase in the communication process -- encoding, transmitting, receiving, decoding, and check-out. Many of these barriers are obvious -- inability to conceptualize and use symbols

(encoding problems), speech impediments, hearing or reception impediments, failure to understand the concepts received (decoding problems), and environmental influences (noise which interferes with the messages or prevents them from traveling clearly from the transmitter to the receiver). While these barriers are real and are of continual concern, they are also reasonably obvious sources of error in communication. There are subtler, less obvious, but equally serious barriers to communication which will affect the validity and reliability of the data on which intervention decisions are based. A total of six barriers in addition to the barrier of probationer resistance will be considered. Approaches on the part of the probation officer which may serve as barriers to the collection of valid and reliable data include anticipation of the other, the assumption of meaning, stereotyping, confusion of purpose, the urge to change, and inattentiveness.

The first probation officer barrier to communication -- anticipation of the other -- is alluded to by Carl Rogers as follows:

But what I really dislike in myself is when I can't hear the other person because I'm so sure in advance what the other is going to say that I don't listen because it is afterwards that I realize I have only heard what I already decided the other is saying. I have failed really to listen at those times when I can't hear because what the other is saying is too threatening, because it might make me change my ideas and my behavior.¹²

The assumption of meaning, a second probation officer barrier to communication, occurs when a probation officer receives an ambiguous message, fails to check out its meaning with the client, and proceeds on the basis of a meaning which the probation officer has read into the probationer's message. The words themselves may be ambiguous, the way in which they are uttered may convey unclear feelings or thoughts, or the probationer's behavior may be communicating messages inconsistent with the

words. In all of these situations the checkout of meaning with the probationer may prevent erroneous assumptions and proceeding on the basis of invalid and unreliable data. An example of assumption of meaning occurs in this brief excerpt from an interview with a 25-year-old on probation:

I asked how things had gone this past week. He looked at me with a grin and said, "Fine". He added that he had not done anything. During this time he kept leafing through the magazine and pointed out someone's picture to me. At this point I told him that we were here to talk and that he should put the magazine away. It is very obvious that this man knows very little or at least practices few of the common courtesies of everyday living.¹³

The probation officer assumed from this man's grin and his leafing through the magazine that he was trying to avoid entering into conversation. The probation officer, however, erroneously acted on the basis of this assumption without first checking it out with the man. A few minutes taken to ask the man what it was about the magazine that interested him or to make a more direct checkout "I get the message that you are not too interested in talking with me now" might have clarified the situation and produced a more reliable and valid basis on which to act.

Probation officer stereotypes of probationers are a third barrier to communication. This barrier exists when probationers are seen as members of groups -- low income, delinquent, schizophrenic, black and so on -- and action is taken without permitting the probationer individuality to transcend the stereotype of his group. Stereotyping leads to the two previous problems -- anticipating the other and assumptions of meaning occur because of stereotypes held by probation officers. Stereotyping can be very subtle; after experience with several similar probationers, probation officers may note similarities on the basis of which they begin to develop a stereotype of that particular kind of client. The stereotype then interferes with the probation officer's perception of new probationers and

may well serve to block out communications inconsistent with it.

Failure on the part of the probation officer to make explicit the purpose of an interview may lead to a condition in which the probation officer and probationers hold differing, perhaps contradictory, purposes. Given such confusion of purpose, both probationer and probation officer will then interpret their own and each other's communications in light of their particular understanding of the objective of the interview. As these subtle distortions continue, the probationer and the probation officer will be going in two entirely different directions.

One of the more serious barriers to communication arises from prematurely urging clients to change. This is a very easy pitfall. Change is a common word used by professional human service workers; by and large, probation officers are committed to being change agents, both to improve the conditions of the community and to assist individuals to utilize the resources of the community more effectively. Difficulties occur, however, when change efforts are attempted without sufficient data on which to base an assessment of the problem. Although change may occur through any human interaction, effecting change is not the primary purpose of the data collection interview. Change efforts should be based on valid and reliable data and on a considered decision of the probationer and probation officer to engage in such efforts. The purpose of the data collection interview is to gather the information on which decisions about intervention can be based. To urge change at this early stage may create a barrier to communication -- a barrier which limits the availability of important information that could influence decision-making. This problem will become more clear when interviewing techniques are discussed. A secondary problem is that change efforts in these early contacts frequently take the form of

directive approaches -- such as persuasion and advising -- which are seldom effective until a high degree of trust has been developed and which, used prematurely, creates barriers to continuing communication.

A very potent barrier to communication is inattentiveness. A probation officer whose mind wanders during the interview, who is thinking about other probationers or planning future activities, creates barriers for continued probationer/probation officer communication. Probationers can reasonably expect the probation officers to give undivided attention to their present communications, and probation officers have the responsibility for establishing a time frame that will enable them to attend to other matters that require attention without diverting attention from the interview of the moment.

As one learns to avoid these communication barriers, the likelihood of receiving valid and reliable communications is enhanced. Developing one's communication skills is an intricate part of becoming a good interviewer. There are three communicating skills on which to concentrate. Defensive-supportive communicating climates are descriptions of psychological barriers that we erect which are naturally learned yet preclude effective communications. Attending behaviors involve observing non-verbal messages. They require one's total, undivided attention to another person. Facilitative listening is a learned communication skill that has been found useful by most professional interviewers.

Defensive-Supportive Communication Climate

For several years it has been an established fact that when someone threatens you psychologically, you react by throwing a barrier against that threat. That barrier is referred to as a defense mechanism. Once that defensive barrier has been erected, effective communication is reduced.

Thus, it is valuable to learn what not to do so that when we communicate, we can avoid arousing others' protective psychological shields. A psychologist named Jack Gibb (1961)¹⁴ described six differences between what he calls defensive and supportive communication climates. These six differences are:

<u>Supportive climates</u>	<u>Defensive climates</u>
Description	Evaluation
Problem orientation	Control
Spontaneity	Strategy
Empathy	Neutrality
Equality	Superiority
Provisionalism	Certainty

When we feel that we are being evaluated, especially when someone is criticizing us, we are likely to rise to our own defense. However, when we feel that a person is objectively describing us without adding an evaluation we are not as likely to become defensive. When someone tries to control or coerce us, it usually is less pleasant than when a person seeks to solve the problem without forcing us to go along with his or her solution. Then, too, a person who has a present plan usually turns us off as opposed to one who spontaneously reacts to situations. Strategy often implies a gimmick or some deception. Similarly, when a person is neutral towards us as opposed to empathic or sympathetic, it usually makes us more defensive. When a person acts in a superior manner instead of as an equal, we say one is on an ego trip. Such superior behavior is deflating to our self-esteem and arouses our defenses. Finally, when someone acts as a "know it all", this attitude of certainty or dogmatism is less pleasant than when the person is willing to be open to different possibilities. The

probation officer should practice communicating in a supportive manner.

Attending Behaviors

Observation is part of the listening process. One can refer to observation as attending behavior. Observing behavior involves receiving a communication from another. Receiving communication means understanding one's life, discerning what is the problem, being able to recognize the problem when you hear it. Receiving communication means becoming a good and effective listener. The first skill that goes into the listening process is attending behavior. This is a non-verbal skill in which one both physically attends and gives total psychological attention, total undivided attention to another person. This is an essential part of creating a psychological climate which is conducive to another person disclosing and talking about his feelings and dealing with problems in his life. There are two parts to attending behavior: attitudes and specific behaviors.

(a) Attitudes

1) An ability to give one's total attention to another person when discussing the problem: This is done by making a conscious choice to listen closely to another person talking to me. This may also involve trying to stand in the other person's shoes and perceive the world from that person's point of view.

2) An ability to suspend judgement: One can't analyze, judge or evaluate another person and listen to him/her at the same time. Put aside this tendency. Say to yourself that you are going to try to understand this individual and also try to see the world through his eyes for a few minutes. The special circumstances involved in working with probationers, especially the aggravated nature of some of their offenses, can tempt the

probation officer into making judgemental opinions and statements about probationers. Moral judgements or evaluative statements have an inhibiting effect on communications. Your role as a facilitative listener is to obtain a complete and accurate account of what happened and the probationer's own feelings about the event. To achieve this end a non-judgemental attitude is necessary.

3) An ability to resist distractions both from within ourselves and out in the environment (noise). One has to develop an ability to ignore, for a short time, one's own fantasies and problems, and keep one's thoughts from going off on a tangent. This is one reason it is important to pay attention to the physical setting discussed earlier. Outside noises must also be factored out of one's awareness.

(b) Specific Behaviors

There are specific behaviors that are part of the attending behaviors one can engage for help in becoming a more effective listener. The three basic behaviors that one should develop are:

- 1) eye contact,
- 2) body posture and position, and
- 3) interpersonal distance

Let us examine how one can use these behaviors to help listen better.

1) Eye Contact

Looking another person in the eye at the same time he is looking at you is eye contact, and it has a variety of meanings in our culture. At its most basic level it signifies an awareness of another person. Our feelings get communicated in our eye contact. There seems to be a problem of too much or too little eye contact. Either can be detrimental. Somewhere in the middle seems to be more effective in making an impact on

another person.

(Exercise: Practice with a partner communicating non-verbally with eye contact. Show that you are hostile, bored, or concerned through use of your eyes. Have your partner tell how effective you have been. Change roles with your partner.)

If we are to define eye contact in terms of listening, eye contact would include facing another person with a relaxed facial expression, but showing interest, spontaneously looking at the other person, but for a comfortable length of time, and permitting your involvement to be expressed with a certain amount of intensity which shows your interest or concern.

2) Body Posture and Position

Body posture and position is simply the way in which our bodies are positioned and held as we sit or stand when interacting with another. Body posture can also have a number of meanings attached to it. It signals physical and possibly mental alertness...how much you are interested. It communicates feelings through the way we hold our bodies. Showing interest in listening to another person would involve sitting without your arms and legs crossed and leaning forward toward the individual and facing him/her.

(Exercise: Practice taking turns with a partner communicating the following feelings through the use of eye contact, body posture, or position):

happy - delighted
angry - hostile - resentful
suspicious - distrustful
boredom - disinterest
tightness - tenseness - anxiety
concern

3) Interpersonal Distance

Interpersonal distance is the actual physical distance between two people when they are face to face. Your distance from another gives some indication of how willing you are to be open with another person. It communicates how you feel by how close you are willing to get to another

person. If you are too close, one can become anxious, but if too far away, no intimacy or privacy is felt. Research has shown that there are invisible zones around our bodies and these zones are areas that we either guard or let people penetrate, depending on how comfortable we are with them:

Zone 1 - intimate zone - 18" to face-to-face interchange (used only with people we care for).

Zone 2 - personal zone - 18" - 2 feet - (we feel comfortable and close with these people).

Zone 3 - social zone - 3½ feet to 5 feet - (know person socially, but not intimate or personal with the person. Person is not a stranger).

Zone 4 - public zone - 5 feet on - (group treatment).

(Exercise: Place six to eight persons in a circle with their knees touching. Ask them how they feel? Are they comfortable? What feelings do they have? Now ask them to push their chairs back until they are comfortable (approximately 18" to 2 feet). How do they feel now? Are they more comfortable? What feelings do they have now?)

Natural Response to People:

It has been found that the way one responds physically in an interview situation sets the stage for the way one responds verbally in the same situation. There are different styles for responding verbally to people; some of these styles are effective and some are not effective when responding to people one is trying to assist with their problems.

The first step taken by a person being interviewed involves whether or not to share a problem. There is risk involved in this step in that information and feelings about the problem must be shared. Talking out the problem can, through better understanding and clarification, bring a new perspective on the problem which may lead to solving it or a new way of behaving. There are five natural ways we have learned to respond to

people. Let us discuss these ways and determine why they work and when they do not.

a. Advice giving or giving a suggestion or solution to the problem:

Advice giving is providing someone with a specific method or solution to a problem and usually begins with saying something like..."Well, why don't you try..." Advice often doesn't work because it is premature. You may be responding to the first thing the probationer has disclosed to you and not the real problem. Advice giving does not allow the other person to resolve his own difficulties. The way you might solve this problem may not be helpful as it isn't your problem. Often we give advice because the problem makes us anxious. If we can provide the solution, it might go away. This would resolve our anxiety, but would it solve the problem? If advice is helpful or not you may receive clues which will tell you how a person has responded to your help. Often the clue we receive is open resistance. "No, I don't like that idea." This is an open and very obvious clue that your advice is not acceptable and frustration is occurring. More subtle rejection can occur with statements like, "Yes, but..." or "what if..." If you get these kinds of clues when giving advice, you should no longer give the advice. Sometimes advice works. One of the strongest positive clues would be to receive statements such as "I never thought of that" or "Yes, that may work". In other words, the probationer responds to your advice as if it is something brand new. In this case, advice is effective.

b. Supportive Messages

There are two ways that we try to reassure people. One is that we send a message that says, "Things are bad now, but they will get better in the future". Or we say that "I know what you mean as I have had the same

problem". So we have support that says the future will get better and support that says others have had the problem and survived. But support and reassurance do not always work, especially to begin with. The reason for this is you are trying to say to the probationer that you want him to change because you do not accept his feelings right now. This response may not make a person feel better, and there are clues to show you when it does or doesn't work effectively.

One of the strongest clues that people give when support and reassurance are not helpful to them is to say, "But you don't understand" and then go right on with their story. This means that support and reassurance are cutting them off and not helping. When support and reassurance are helpful, a person will accept your statements and reaffirm the hope you have offered.

c. Questioning

Questions ask for specific information about the person, problem situation, and/or predicament. Questions make up a central method of interviewing. Questions are asked in order to understand and be of assistance. The wording of a question may be less important than the manner and tone of voice in which it is put. Questions are helpful as a means of getting specific information but they can also distract a person, get one's mind to switch directions away from the one intended. Questions often derail a person. Many people resent questions and wonder why you asked a specific question. As a general rule, questions cut people off rather than facilitate gathering information or expressing a problem.

There are clues that will tell you when too many questions are being asked. The probationer may start speaking less and telling you less about himself. If, after your question, the probationer does not spontaneously

disclose more information, the question is not having its intended effect. If questions are working, the person will open up and share more information.

d. Evaluation (Positive or Negative)

Evaluation refers to making a judgement about the other person either in a positive or negative context. For example: do not respond to a drug abuser's admission of continued use with "That's dumb". "You are not thinking straight" or "That's really stupid". Or "You are bright and capable, don't be upset about not getting a job". Evaluation, as a general rule, turns people off. People like to make their own evaluation of self.

If a person is turned off by evaluation, we get resistance and this is a clue the person doesn't want to be or isn't helped by your evaluation. Examples of these clues are, "You're just saying that, but you don't understand how I really feel", or "I'm not that way". If evaluation is successful, the person will agree with your perception, "I am brighter than most people".

e. Rational Arguments (Logic)

When we use logic or rational arguments we are disagreeing with the other person's feelings or perceptions of the problem and we are arguing our own counter position. Very often, logic and rational arguments provoke in the person their counter position. This can lead to two people ending up in an argument or having a fight with each other, which gets us totally away from what we wanted to do, which would help the other person with his/her problem. Often people feel put down or inferior if you argue their position with them. Generally, it doesn't work. The strongest clue that it doesn't work is when the person argues back. If logic is to be effective, the clue is agreement. The probationer agrees openly with you,

"Yes, you are right" or "That's a good point", or "I never thought of that".

Learned Responses

a. Facilitative Listening

Facilitative listening is a learned way of listening to people. This is the method used by most professional interviewers. Facilitative listening is a way of tuning in to the feelings and experiences of an individual experiencing a life crisis that helps the individual resolve his dilemma and reduce his pain. This technique requires that you, the listener, communicate your caring and acceptance of the individual by attempting to see the world through the other's eyes. Feedback is the technique used to achieve this end. Facilitative listening can be defined as you, the listener, being accurately able to understand the feelings and experiences that the other person is having and to demonstrate this by restating it to the other person to his satisfaction. We have to deal with the felt communication, explained by the attending behaviors, that express what is going on inside a person and the expressed communication of the spoken word. The received communication is what the listener hears. Facilitative listening tries to go behind the words and focus on the feelings...trying to get the feelings one is experiencing in connection with a given problem. Of all the responses discussed so far, facilitative listening works most of the time in that it leads an individual to open up and share more information with you. Facilitative listening leads people through the techniques of problem solving.

b. Feedback

Feedback is a way of helping another person to consider changing his

behavior. It is communication to a person (or a group) which gives that person information about how he affects others. As in a guided missile system, feedback helps an individual keep his behavior "on target" and thus better achieve his goals.

Some criteria for useful feedback:

1. It is descriptive rather than evaluative. By describing one's own reaction, it leaves the individual free to use it or to use it as he sees fit. By avoiding evaluative language, it reduces the need for the individual to react defensively.

2. It is specific rather than general. To be told that one is acting defensively will probably not be as useful as to be told that "just now when we were discussing your probation requirements you did not listen to what was said and I felt forced to accept your arguments or face attack from you".

3. The giver of feedback needs to clarify and improve communication by responding on the feeling level. The receiver of feedback needs to hear what feeling messages they have communicated. For example; the message sender might have sent an unintentionally destructive message such as: "Persons with mustaches always look funny." The message receiver may respond by feedback that the message hurt feelings. Then the message sender can clarify that the intent of the message was not to hurt feelings and thus the destructiveness is set aside.

4. It is directed toward behavior which the receiver can do something about. Frustration is only increased when a person is reminded of some shortcoming over which he has no control.

5. It is solicited, rather than imposed. Feedback is most useful

when the receiver himself has formulated the kind of question which those observing him can answer.

6. It is well-timed. In general, feedback is most useful at the earliest opportunity after the given behavior (depending, of course, on the person's readiness to hear it, support available from others, etc.).

7. It is checked to insure clear communication. One way of doing this is to have the receiver try to rephrase the feedback he has received to see if it corresponds to what the sender had in mind.

Feedback, then, is a way of giving help; it is a corrective mechanism for the individual who wants to learn how well his behavior matches his intentions.

c. Here and Now

The criteria for useful feedback involves communicating in the "here and now". This concept is most easily explained by the chart below.

<u>Most Distant</u>	<u>Least Difficult to Discuss</u>
.....I tell you how one person felt toward another, neither..... person being present, e.g., "Joe was angry with Jim."	.
.....I tell you my <u>past</u> feelings about somebody not pre-..... sent, e.g., "I was angry with her."	.
.....I tell you my <u>present</u> feelings about somebody not pre-..... sent, e.g., "I am angry with her".	.
.....I tell you my <u>past</u> feelings about <u>you</u> , e.g., "I was..... angry with you last month when you..."	.
.....I tell you my <u>present</u> feelings about <u>you</u> , e.g., "I am..... angry with you."	.
<u>Here and now</u>	<u>Most Difficult</u>

IV - INTERVIEWING SKILLS

Physical Setting:

The physical setting for the interview, especially the interview with the reluctant, non-voluntary client, is important to consider. Some degree of privacy and a comfortable, relaxed atmosphere are important. Interruptions and telephone calls should be reduced to a minimum. If a wait or interruption has been unavoidable, it is always helpful to give recognition that these are disturbing and make it more difficult for one to proceed.

Probation officers should also keep in mind that they have the option, in most cases, of conducting the interview either in the probation office or outside the office in the probationer's setting, usually his home or residence. The reason for taking note of these options is that each presents distinct advantages and disadvantages for effective interviewing to obtain relevant information.

First, the probation office provides the officer with immediate access to files, information, and resources that may be necessary for him to consult at some time during the session with the probationer. Secondly, this setting is the 'turf' or immediate space of the officer and as such allows him to retain and, as necessary, exercise the authority/control function of his role. On the other hand, both of these factors tend to inhibit the free flow of information from the probationer to the extent that they present barriers between the interviewee and interviewer. While these factors can be used for productive reasons by the officer, he must

also keep in mind that they can be destructive, if used in the wrong way or for the wrong purpose, during the course of any interview.

If the interview should be conducted outside of the probation office, there probably is a good possibility that the information from the probationer will be more easily obtained with less hesitation and 'gaming' on his part. This setting may cut down, in other words, on some of the normal, natural and expected barriers that confront work with the reluctant, non-voluntary client. If the interview setting happens to be the immediate living situation of the probationer, the officer also has the advantage of observing and noting significant details that may give clues to the manner of life style of the probationer. Such observations may provide information to verify statements of the probationer, feelings/suspicions of the officer and the projected plans for problem solving and supervision.

Home interviews, however, have the built-in disadvantage of diminishing the authority/control function of the probation officer since he is outside of his environment where this function is most easily exercised. Access to needed file information is also taken away from the officer. Other resources which are normally at hand and taken for granted will not be readily available for use by the officer.

The Needs and Risk Assessment forms can be used creatively and for the benefit of the probationer since the main outline on these forms is relevant to the situation. When the probationer is talking freely and openly about the problem situation it is unlikely that he will be following an outline as specified in the interviewer's form. Nevertheless he will probably touch on most of the topics that need to be covered. He may move

back and forth among the several topics and may elaborate on some of them at considerable length. If the probation officer has the major topics firmly in mind, he will, almost without knowing it, express interest as the probationer begins to touch upon these subjects. His interest may be shown by a change of posture, an inquiring look, a murmured question or brief question to clarify what the probationer is saying, or a direct suggestion that the probationer tell more about a particular event. When the major topics of the interview schedule or form have been covered in this way, one can return to the form and ask supplementary questions, if these are necessary. It is a good idea to review with the probationer the main outlines of his story, particularly when his account has been rambling or complicated. This will give the interviewer a chance to verify his own perception of what the probationer has said and it will give the probationer an opportunity to correct any errors.

Length of Interview:

The length of the interview is dependent on its purpose but should not be more than an hour. Longer interviews exhaust both the officer and the probationer and lose productivity. Rather than have too long an interview, agree on a definite time for another talk. While efficiency is important, it can only be measured by the adequacy of the understanding obtained by both parties--adequacy of understanding that will make effective help possible. In the long run, the greatest efficiency will be achieved by giving the probationer comfortable surroundings, undivided attention and ample time to express himself during the interview.

Component Part of Interviewing

Interviewing is a set of communications with four basic character-

istics:

- (1) it has a context or setting;
- (2) it is purposeful and directed;
- (3) it is limited and contractual;
- (4) it involves specialized role relationship.

All interviews, regardless of their purposes, require that the interviewer listen and observe. The constellations of other activities will vary in relation to purpose, tasks, and personal attributes. It is through use of the skills involved in the interviewing techniques that one gathers information and defines the problem(s) of the probationer. Although the most skillful interviewing gives the appearance of being a smooth and spontaneous interchange between the interviewer and the interviewee, the skill thus revealed is obtained only through careful study and years of practice. For purposes of study, it is possible to break down an interview into five component parts and discuss each separately. In actual interviewing, of course, no such sharp breaks occurred, but one must make them in analysis if discussion is not to be so general as to be relatively useless. These five component parts are:¹⁵

a. Purpose

The purpose of the interview should be clear in the interviewer's mind and should be explained to the client in the early stages of the session. In evaluating an interview, keep in mind the following points about purposes:

Was the purpose of the interview explained?

Did the probationer indicate that he or she understood the purpose of the interview?

Did the probationer perceive the purpose to be the same as that of the officer?

Was the purpose stated in specific terms or general terms?

Was the purpose sufficiently clear and specific to give guidelines to the probationer as to what to expect during the course of the interview?

b. Structure

The structure of the interview may fall at two extremes: highly structured or very loosely structured. Structure refers to boundaries placed upon the content to be elicited by the officer and the constraint placed upon the probationer's behavior and responses. In evaluating structure, keep the following points in mind:

Did the structure of the interview flow naturally from the stated purpose of the interview?

Did the structure allow the probationer to present significant and useful information?

Did the structure maintain the interaction between the probation officer and the probationer?

Did the structure seem to provide guidelines for the probationer's responses?

Did it help the probationer to clearly understand his role in the interview and in the problem solving process?

c. Balance

The structure of an interview also involves a sense of balance of control over the interview between the officer and the probationer. Again, two extremes may be present: the probationer dominates the officer or the

officer dominates the probationer. In evaluating an interview, note the following points:

Who seems to do most of the talking - the probationer or the officer?

Who has control of the direction which the interview takes?

Did the balance in control shift frequently during the interview?

Was the balance appropriate in the light of the purpose of the interview?

Did the balance in control help or hinder the problem solving process?

d. Feedback

Feedback refers to the officer's efforts directed toward clarifying the probationer's statements or messages and reflecting an understanding of the probationer's feelings through verbal and non-verbal communication. In evaluating feedback, keep the following points in mind:

Did the officer indicate that he understood what the probationer was saying?

Was the probationer certain that the officer understood the meaning he was trying to convey?

Did the officer attempt to clarify meanings by re-stating the probationer's communication?

Did the officer indicate a recognition of the probationer's feelings such as hostility, worry, confusion, anxiety, depression?

Was the officer aware of unspoken messages and did he deal with them appropriately?

Did the officer give feedback through body language such as facial expression, tone of voice, bodily posture and gestures?

e. Outcome

This component refers to the outcome of the interview in relation to the purpose of the interview. In evaluating outcome, please keep the following points in mind:

Was the probationer helped to solve the problem?

Did the interview deal with the probationer's feelings?

Did the officer help the probationer to determine what steps needed to be taken at the end of the interview?

Did the interview result in a task agreement between officer and probationer?

The obvious fact about interviewing is that it involves communication between two people. It might be called professional conversation, however. Special problems confront the message sender and the message receiver. Communication is important in that its skillful use can determine the relative outcome of any relationship. Some of these special problems are:

1. The contact with the probation officer is seldom initiated by probationer.
2. The probationer is seldom able or willing to state his problems or needs clearly and may, in fact, not think a problem exists.
3. You may not understand each other.
4. The interview may include more than one person.
5. A significant interview may last five minutes or several hours.
6. The contact between the probation officer and the probationer may be one single interview or a series of regular or irregularly spaced interviews.
7. Interviews may take place in many settings other than the conventional office.

8. Your interview may be used as means of helping in many other agencies other than the primary function of helping the individual.

It goes without saying that a good interviewer is a good listener. A good listener indicates by brief, relevant comments or questions that he has grasped the essential points of the tale and adds illuminating comments on certain significant features of one's account that have not been stressed and might well be overlooked by an inattentive listener. (Refer to facilitative listening material.)

After you have dealt with the probationer's initial reluctance, the first step in an interview is to help the person relax and feel fairly comfortable. The interviewer must also be relaxed to achieve this end. Both parties may be helped in the initial interview by using certain techniques. The interview may begin with:

1. Reviewing why the probationer is there and when and why he must come to the probation office;
2. Stating your purpose and role and that of your office;
3. Use of the life history grid; (The method for the use of this grid is described below.); or
4. Use of open-ended questions to secure valid and reliable data about the probationer's perception of his problem, his/her interpretation of that problem, and plans or objectives for dealing with the situation; (Try to avoid asking "why" questions to gather your information as these are basically defensive communications and will produce basically defensive responses.)

Open Ended Questions

Open ended questions are those that cannot be answered yes or no - rather they require an essay type answer. Some suggested open-ended questions that will elicit information required for case classification and which will explore the probationer's needs are listed below:

1.
 - a. How did you get involved in or decide to commit this offense?
 - b. Can you tell me more about the circumstances that led to this offense?
 - c. Looking back now, what's your general feeling about your committing this offense? Remorse, committed/remorse, caught or no conscience? Etc.
2.
 - a. What prior offenses have you been convicted of?
 - b. Describe your trouble as a young person growing up and in school.
 - c. Describe times you have harmed or hurt someone during the commission of offenses.
 - d. Describe any threats you have made to hurt someone.
 - e. Were you drinking or high on drugs when you committed these offenses?
 - f. Describe how you planned these offenses before you committed them.
3.
 - a. How would you describe your childhood? Early, prior to adolescence, - happy or unhappy?
 - b. How would your parents have described you as a child?
 - c. Were you ever treated cruelly by your parents?

- d. If you did something wrong as a teenager how did your parents handle it?
 - e. Who made the rules in your family?
 - f. How were you punished for not carrying out the rules?
 - g. If you could change anything about your childhood, either early or adolescent, what would you change?
4.
 - a. How far did you go in school?
 - b. What kind of problems did you have with school work?
 - c. What was your favorite subject in school?
 5.
 - a. Since leaving school what kind of jobs have you had?
 - b. What kind of trouble have you had supporting yourself?
 - c. How long did you work on your most recent job?
 - d. Have you ever received any kind of financial aid such as welfare or government loans?
 - e. Where do you live now?
 - f. Do you move around much? In the past year?
 7.
 - a. Who are some of your best friends now?
 - b. What is it about these people that you particularly like?
 - c. Do you have a close friend?
 - d. What do you like best about her/him?
 - e. Do you think people are basically good or bad or both?
 - f. Do you have a good relationship with (women) as well as (men)?
 - g. In your relationship with your (wife) - (husband) - (girl-friend) (boyfriend) how are decisions made?
 8.
 - a. What kind of things make you angry with people?

- b. What do you do or how do you react when you are angry?
 - c. What kinds of things cause you to feel depressed?
 - d. How do you get rid of these depressed feelings?
 - e. Have you ever thought seriously about hurting or killing yourself? (If answer to above is Yes) Have you ever tried to kill yourself?
 - f. What do you like/dislike the most about yourself?
9.
 - a. Aside from your legal problems, what is the biggest problem in your life right now?
 - b. How do you expect to work this problem out?
 - c. What goals do you have for the future?
 - d. How do you expect to achieve these goals?
 - e. How will being on probation affect your life?
 - f. What do you expect to get from being on probation?

Life History Grid

A life history grid is a means to elicit the life history of a probationer in graphic form during an initial interview. The grid is a tool that correlates items of the probationer's life history, identifies periods of crisis, and summarizes the formal written record. Information may not seem significant from a single report, but when it is correlated with other information, its significance in the probationer's life emerges. The grid can assist some probationers to see crisis periods in their lives and, in some situations, cause an effect.

The method for using the life history grid involves use of your interview skills. The interviewer should have the probationer do his own grid (see Page 62 for sample grid).¹⁶ After a brief introduction, the

probation officer describes the grid along the following lines: "You and I are going to try to summarize your whole life up to now on one sheet of paper. The left hand column will be years of your life. The next column can be geography; where you have lived and when and where you have traveled. The next column will be for describing events in yours and your family's life."

The probationer should then designate topics for other columns such as friends (companions), employment and education, and other headings which the probationer wishes to designate as having importance in his/her life. The heading "other" may also be used. When the grid headings have been filled out, the probation officer, acting as recorder, asks the probationer to identify events in his or her life. Let the probationer start anywhere and free associate, which stimulates memory. Gradually the squares will fill up, but usually there will be some corrections in dates and sequences. It is like trying to solve an intriguing puzzle together. The probationer and probation officer then study the grid and discuss it together. The grid helps develop insight, identity issues, and interpret their significance. The life history grid is an easily constructed summary of the formal written record summarizing a probationer's life history in graphic form.

Interviewing Skills

There are four major interviewing skills which will be practiced in the exercise that follows:¹⁷

1. Exploratory responses - those that encourage the probationer to stay involved in the communication and at the same time provide freedom and latitude to determine what the next response will be.

Exploratory responses have been discussed previously as open-ended questions. These responses allow for disagreement, rejection or modification of the interviewer's comments by the probationer. Responses also include those that allow expansion, and evaluation of the content discussed.

2. Listening responses - those that communicate to the person being interviewed that you are listening, interested and trying to understand. These responses were explored under the section entitled "Communication Skills". (page 30)
3. Affective responses - help the person you are interviewing focus on attitudes, values, feelings and body reactions. This response level was explored as facilitative listening and under the section entitled "Relationships with Non-Voluntary Probationers".
4. Honest labeling responses - those that clearly define the feelings and/or ideas expressed by the probationer. These responses communicate a willingness on the part of the interviewer to deal with the concerns presented. This response has been discussed under feedback as a response technique, and as to quality of relationship necessary for growth and change to occur.

Exercise for Developing Interview Skills

Students will break up into small groups. A video tape of a role-play lasting 10 to 15 minutes will be shown. Following the video interview, each group of trainees will be asked to decide what were the most helpful things that occurred in the interview and what were the least helpful things that occurred. The four major interviewing skills should each be addressed according to whether they were utilized successfully or not.

Focus should also be maintained on observable behaviors -- non-verbal (gestures, posture, etc.) and verbal (statements, questions, tone of voice, loudness, or other comments). Return to the large group for group discussion and a replay of the video tape for further analysis and study.

LIFE HISTORY GRID

Date	Age	Geography	Family			
1960 /	/	/	/	/	/	/
61 /	/	/	/	/	/	/
62 /	/	/	/	/	/	/
63 /	/	/	/	/	/	/
64 /	/	/	/	/	/	/
65 /	/	/	/	/	/	/
66 /	/	/	/	/	/	/
67 /	/	/	/	/	/	/
68 /	/	/	/	/	/	/
69 /	/	/	/	/	/	/
70						
71						
72						
73						
74						
75						
76						
77						
78						
79						
80						
81						

V - PROBLEM SOLVING SKILLS

The Problem Solving Technique

John Dewey was one of the first to develop a method of problem solving. In his book How We Think, written in 1933, he describes the thought processes a human being used when confronted with a problem. Dewey's purpose was to clarify rational thinking, goal-directed thinking, or problem solving. He said a rational procedure must be followed. If not, a person might leap to inappropriate conclusions, mistake the nature of the problem or become involved in searching for answers to the wrong problem. Dewey held that effective problem solving is a set of procedural steps in a well-defined and orderly sequence.

Basic Steps to the technique are:

- (a) recognition or definition of the problem(s);
- (b) collection of relevant data;
- (c) assessment of the situation using the relevant data;
- (d) set goals and develop a plan of intervention to reach the goals;
- (e) implement the plan;
- (f) evaluation which leads to reassessment or termination.

Concepts basic to problem solving and the meaning of these concepts for the probation officer:

Problem: A problem is a question for solution and states the probationer's unmet needs.

Partialization: Separating out from all the problems facing the probationer - a specific problem or problems to be worked on.

Goal: The hope for outcome of the interaction between the probationer and probation officer, and use of community resources.

Assessment: Judgements made by the probation officer and the probationer as to the reason for the problem(s) and what to do. Tools to use in making this judgement are outlined further along in this narrative.

Intervention Plan: Decisions jointly made by the probationer and the probation officer about the steps which will be taken to solve the problems and reach the goals.

Contract: The explicit agreement between the probation officer and the probationer concerning the problem on which they will work, the goals, the strategies, and the roles and tasks of the participants.

Defining the Problem:

For many individuals and groups, needs and wants come in bulk size. But one cannot do everything at once, so the first job the probation officer and probationer have to do is decide where to start. The probation officer begins, then, with a consideration of problem(s) as seen by the probationer as the beginning place for problem-solving.

If the probationer's choice is dangerous to self or others, or if it promises more trouble and failure, the probation officer has the responsibility of pointing out the risks.

Frequently, your idea of the problem and the probationer's perception of the problem may not be the same. When this occurs, it becomes necessary for the probationer and the probation officer to enter into a series of negotiations and discussions directed toward arriving at a definition of the problem on which they are to begin to work.

We cannot over-emphasize the point that everything else depends upon appropriate problem identification.

Partializing is also an important aspect of problem definition. Partializing refers to the process of separating out from the universe of problems brought by the probationer and/or identified by the officer the specific problem or problems which are to become the focus of probation officer-probationer attention. Later other problems may be tackled. Partialization also provides greater opportunities for finding a common ground. Probationer and probation officer do not have to agree on all problems in order to find a beginning place to work.

Gathering Information from the Unwilling Probationer

It is difficult to deal with areas of data collection concretely because the specific areas to be explored depend upon the situation. However, before the probationer comes to see you for the first time sources of data are available to you. You should attempt to gain access to this data and study it before your first interview. It would be good to share with the probationer the sources of data being used for data collection. This is not only ethical but can serve as a means of verifying data should the probationer know that some of it may be out of date. Data collection goes on all the time. It is critical to the problem identification, assessment, and planning states of work.

Some sources of data that you may find useful are:

- a. use of written and verbal reports;
- b. contact with other agencies who may know of the probationer;
- c. contact with other individuals who know the probationer and/or his family;
- d. direct observation;
- e. talking with the probationer in an interview or meeting which requires a knowledge of the principles of relationship and communication that have been discussed.

Assessment as a problem-solving technique:

It is useful to assess the information gathered by identifying the probationer's strengths and weaknesses in four major areas. This assessment technique would involve looking at the probationer's ability to change with relation to his resources, opportunities, capacities, or motivation. One would interview and observe the probationer in order to seek answers for the following questions:

- a. What motivates this probationer? internally? externally?
- b. What opportunity does this probationer have to change if he/she is motivated to do so?
- c. What capacity (ability) does the probationer have to achieve his/her plan for change?
- d. What internal, family or community resources are available to the probationer to help with his/her change efforts.

In the problem-solving frame of reference, the probation situation is seen as a special instance of the problem-solving process which is a

part of everyday life. The client's perception of his problem, the nature and strength of his desire to do something about it, the resources that he has within himself and that are available within his environment, the ways in which he has tried to deal with the problem in the past, the degree of success or failure that he has experienced in these previous efforts, and the way in which he can make use of help are all of importance in the initial assessment of the situation. The expectation is that the process of helping the probationer to work on the problem and achieve some degree of success will strengthen the probationer's capacity to manage for himself.

Non-Voluntary Client and Motivation as an Assessment Tool

Motivation is defined as want or need which one person feels that he decides to do something about, and engages in goal directed behavior to deal with it. This is a definition for a fully motivated client. Motivation is not a personality attribute. Persons are motivated toward something, a goal. Motivation has three components: emotion, cognition, and behavior.

If a person denies a problem, i.e., "I have no problems", his motivation is on an emotional level. The emotions surrounding the problem are so primary that they block recognition of problem existence. An example of this strong an emotion is fear.

If a person is ambivalent about a problem stating that one knows a problem exists but can't sort it out or doesn't know what to do about it, the behavior is one of avoidance. The problem is available for discussion at the cognitive level, but the person is not motivated or weakly motivated to change the problem. If one states that he wishes to do something about a problem but doesn't know how, then motivation is available on the behav-

ioral level. If this level of motivation is available, the person may be helped to change by understanding fear, or readjusting inaccurate perceptions of reality. Another inhibiting factor may simply be familial, social or cultural values that are conflicting.

All people are motivated. Your probationers simply may not be motivated toward something you and the community would like him to be motivated toward. Your basis for decision should be whether or not you can motivate. If you want to work with the client's motivation, one should try to redirect the energy directed from one motivated goal to another. This can be done with negotiated contracts. Persons who will not recognize their problems are much harder to motivate. If the problem is on a behavioral level, lack of resources may be a factor. One supports motivation by providing information and resources. If a contract is negotiated, and the client does not follow through, one can determine the serious intention of the client. It may be that the level for motivation needs to be re-examined.

A second way to understand motivation is to see the problem in terms of a balance between realistic hope and moderate discomfort. The problem should create stress. On the feeling level, if there is no social or cultural discomfort in the client's life, then motivation for change will be at a low level. If a person sees no problem, a reality issue may be the central issue. Persons who see no problem are much harder to motivate. One would need to re-define the problem to create stress. For example, the drug user is used to short term gratification of his needs. He is not able to think in long term goals. Motivating this individual would have to involve the use of short term goals. Persons who have no hope for change

have a sense of powerlessness. These people discount their own ability to think and act upon their own environment; therefore they "cop out".

One important element of motivation and decision making available to the probation officer centers around the concept of locus of control. Does the probationer allow persons external to him to provide his motivation and make his decisions, or does the probationer rely on self for decision making? Does his motivation and self-control come from internalized sources of information on which he may make decisions or does he rely on others for direction?

Lawrence Kohlberg has suggested that people develop morally just as they do physically or intellectually. He has suggested six stages of moral development. Your understanding of these stages may help you to better understand the idea of locus of control and to see more clearly how your probationer is guided morally.

Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development¹⁸

1. Punishment and Obedience:

Right is determined by physical consequences.

2. Selfish Hedonism:

Right is determined by what instrumentally satisfies one's own needs:

3. Social Approval:

Right is that which pleases others or is approved by them.

4. Social Order:

Right is doing one's duty or showing respect for authority.

5. Social Contract:

Right is determined in terms of general individual rights and standards agreed upon by society.

6. Social Justice:

Right is based on self-chosen ethical principles which are universal and consistent.

Remember you cannot make people change. You can try to motivate them toward positive change in their lives.

Force Field Theory as an Assessment Tool

In addition to the above assessment tools, the probation officer may find Kurt Lewin's Force Field Analysis¹⁹ system useful. As originally developed by Lewin, force-field analysis was both a means for analyzing the reasons why an event occurs in society and a technique for planning how to modify the frequency of the occurrence of that event.

Lewin argued that any social event can be visualized as occurring at a given frequency in a given social group. The frequency will be determined by various forces acting on the social event, some of which tend to lead to an increased frequency of the event, others which seem to have the opposite effect. In the case of violent crime, for example, the availability of handguns would tend to increase its frequency while the apprehension of offenders would tend to decrease its frequency. An event occurs at a given frequency at a given time because the forces acting on it have attained a "semi-stable equilibrium," whereby the total strength of the forces tending to increase its frequency are roughly equal to the total strength of the forces decreasing its frequency. The reason that an event shows a steady pattern of change in its frequency is that the forces which determine its

frequency are themselves changing steadily. Let us now re-interpret Lewin's argument so that we can construct a useful assessment tool.

After identifying a problem(s) and gathering as much information about that problem as possible, the material collected should be assessed. The assessment process involves a pause for the probation officer. The probation officer looks at the materials he/she gathered about the probationer's problem(s). An analysis of this information helps to clarify the probation officer's viewpoint and point to areas which may be amenable to change. Aspects of the probationer's system which seem appropriate intervention points will suggest the plan of intervention or treatment techniques that the probation officer will want to follow.

Force Fields Analysis provides a method for assessment. Having followed the steps of defining your problem and gathering information, outline your material as follows:

<u>Level of Equilibrium</u>	
Restraining forces	Driving forces
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Driving and Restraining forces

- a. factors that give impetus to change
- b. factors that restrain change
- c. perceived level of equilibrium, no change, or impasse

Forces are factors that influence the problem situation. Driving forces promote movement in the desired direction. Restraining forces make it difficult to move in that direction.

Strategy Planning (Things to Consider About Forces)

1. Is there some logic for dealing with some forces before others?
2. Once you are certain a force cannot be altered, move on.
3. Strategies for changes: (a) Increase driving forces; (b) Decrease inhibiting forces; (c) Change restraining forces into driving forces, vice versa, or combine these strategies. You may find it helpful to decrease restraining forces.
4. Start with one or two forces. What steps can be taken to reduce restraining forces and/or increase driving forces in the problem situation? What needs to be done? By whom? And when? What resources are available?
5. How will you know when something is done?
6. Be aware of complex forces (both driving and restraining).
7. Begin with forces that produce changes (equilibrium) quickest.

Implementation of the Plan

After you have assessed the problem(s) and assigned a level of supervision, you may find your probationer can benefit from help in several areas. With the probationer's help you should agree on a plan of action, some tasks for the probationer to achieve which will help him/her experience change. One may need to review with the probationer what needs to be initiated, enhanced, restored, protected or terminated, tasks assigned, availability and location of resources, time frame in which one will work, and money transactions. Your tasks in this process may be to:

1. support the probationer;
2. undertake collateral contacts;
3. help the probationer identify and use beneficial social support networks;

4. assist the probationer with growth and development of his capacities;
5. intervene in the existing service networks which effect probationers to increase the probationer's opportunity to use the available resources and services. Review the material on probation officer roles and tasks which was discussed earlier.

Referral to Resources

To make an appropriate referral to another resource requires knowledge both of the client and his needs and of the agency or other community resource and the services that it can offer. The officer needs to know exactly what services are given by the agency and the conditions under which those services are offered. Does the probationer want any of these services? Is he/she able to meet the conditions that are set? Does he/she know how to get to the agency? What are the office hours? Is it necessary to make an appointment ahead? Must the probationer make the appointment himself or is it possible for the officer to do so? Should a referral slip also be sent? Does the agency have a waiting list? Should the probation officer accompany the probationer for initial interview? How long might it be before the probationer could be seen? Has the probationer heard about this agency before or used it before and does he have some impression of what might be involved in going there? These are some of the questions that come to mind as probationer and officer discuss the possibilities of a referral. The probationer is more likely to be able to use the services of another agency if he/she has an accurate idea of what to expect and how to go about making his application. Inaccurate or incomplete information constitutes an impediment to the use of the referral service. Some proba-

tioners may need to rehearse for future action. What kind of clothes shall they wear when they go to the employment office? What are they expected to tell the vocational counselor?

In the course of making a referral, especially if the situation is complex, the interviewer will have considerable contact with the other agency. The quality of the relationship between representatives of the two agencies has more to do with interagency cooperation than all the administrative memoranda that are written. In making a referral, one of the major items to remember is that a particular service cannot be "ordered".

Reassessment and Termination

Some things to be considered at this phase of your work are:

1. determine the probationer's continuing needs;
2. contract with service providers for these needs;
3. if terminating, identify with the probationer the changes he has made, successes, feelings about the process and ending, work to be done;
4. complete the contract made with the probationer.

More details for understanding the last three basic steps in problem-solving will be explained in the teaching module dealing with supervising the probationer.

FOOTNOTES

1. The roles defined in this section are suggested from the University of Texas at Austin Social Work Undergraduate Field Work Manual, 1980. pp. 9-10
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3. Ibid, Glasser
4. Vriend, John and Dyer, Wayne W., "Counseling the Reluctant Client", Journal of Counseling Psychology, 20 (1973) pp. 240-246
5. Kadushin, Alfred, "The Racial Factor in the Interview: Copyright, 1972, National Association of Social Workers, Inc. Social Work 17:3 (May, 1972), pp. 88-98
6. Tubbs, Steward L., A System Approach to Small Group Interaction, Addison-Wesley, Reading, Mass. 1978., p. 205
7. The six groups of essential elements for all professional relationships are taken from: Compton, Beulah and Galloway, Burt, Social Work Processes, Revised Edition, Dorsey Press, Illinois, 1979, pp. 168-182
8. Ibid, Compton and Galloway, pp. 175
9. Ibid, Compton and Galloway, pp. 175
10. Ibid, Vriend and Dyer, p. 45
11. Ibid, Compton and Galloway, p. 205
12. Robers, Carl, "Characteristics of a Helping Relationship" in Donald L. Avila, Arthur W. Combs, and William W. Prukey (Eds.), The Helping Relationship Sourcebook, Boston, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971, pp. 2-18
13. Ibid, Compton and Galloway, p. 205
14. Ibid, Tubbs, pp. 205
15. Component interview parts have been defined by George Thorman, Associate Professor of Social Work, St. Edwards University, Austin, Texas, unpublished paper, 1975.
16. Anderson, James and Brown, Ralph, "Life History Grid for Adolescents:", Social Work, Vol. 25 #4 (July, 1980) pp. 97-99
17. Kegan, Norman I. and Burke, Bruce J., "Elements of Facilitating Communication" from Interpersonal Process Recall Methods of Influencing Human Interaction, Mason Media, Michigan, 1962.

18. Kohlberg, Lawrence, States of Moral Development in Readings in Values Clarification, p. 63.

19. Ibid, Tubbs, pp. 205

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