



**Prifysgol Abertawe
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A Multi-Dimensional Evaluation of Youth Justice Practices and Outcomes in Wales

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Summary

The Risk-Need-Responsivity (RNR) model has been recognised as the leading model of offender supervision due to its 'empirical validity and practical utility' (Polaschek, 2012:1). However, this thesis discusses the need to develop the explanatory depth, theoretical and empirical base of the RNR model in order to make it more applicable to youth justice practices in Wales. To date, the precise processes of supervision in the Welsh youth justice system has remained largely unexplored. This has created a gap in knowledge and poses several implications. With limited empirical insight, it is difficult to understand whether practitioners effectively implement evidence-based practices into their front-line service delivery.

This thesis utilises the Correctional Programme Assessment Inventory 2010 (CPAI-2010) to evaluate the practices of four Youth Offending Services and one Secure Estate in Wales. Designed by North American academics, the CPAI-2010 measures practice integrity and indicates the extent to which criminal justice agencies are aligned to Gendreau et al.'s (2004; 2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model. Previous research has revealed that high CPAI scores (high practice integrity) are associated with lower levels of recidivism.

This study revealed that a practice integrity gap exists in Wales. As such, this thesis discusses the factors that undermine practice integrity and provides practical solutions to bridge the gulf that exists between the theory of effective practice and its implementation of front-line service delivery. Additionally, this thesis addresses the evaluation responsivity issues associated with using the CPAI-2010 in Wales. The innovation of this study is the development of a responsive, youth-specific, evidence-based evaluation tool - the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEI).

Declarations and Statements

DECLARATION

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

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STATEMENT 1

This thesis is the result of my own investigations, except where otherwise stated. Where correction services have been used, the extent and nature of the correction is clearly marked in a footnote(s).

Other sources are acknowledged by footnotes giving explicit references. A bibliography is appended.

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STATEMENT 2

I hereby give consent for my thesis, if accepted, to be available for photocopying and for inter-library loan, and for the title and summary to be made available to outside organisations.

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Abbreviations

ABC	Antecedent, Behaviour, Consequences
ACE	Adverse Childhood Experience
AL	Adolescence Limited
AWYOS	All Wales Youth Offending Strategy
CBT	Cognitive Behaviour Therapy
CCP	Core Correctional Practices
CDA	Crime and Disorder Act
CFOS	Children First, Offender Second
CPAI	Correctional Programme Assessment Inventory
CPAI-2010	Correctional Programme Assessment Inventory-2010
CR	Confidence Rating
CSH	Children's Secure Home
DTO	Detention and Training Order
EBP	Evidence-Based Practice
ECM	Enhanced Case Management
EPICS	Effective Practices in Community Supervision
ETS	Enhanced Thinking Skills
GPCSL	General Personality and Cognitive Social Learning
GLM	Good Lives Model
ISS	Intensive Supervision and Surveillance
JSIC	Jersey Supervision Interview Checklist
LASPO	Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders
LCP	Life-Course Persistent
MoJ	Ministry of Justice
NOMS	National Offender Management Service
RFPP	Risk Factor Prevention Paradigm
RO	Referral Order
RNR	Risk, Need, Responsivity
SCH	Secure Children's Home
SEED	Skills for Effective Engagement Development
SLCN	Speech, Language and Communication Needs
SOT	Statutory Orders Team
SSET	Southampton Swansea Evaluation Team
STARR	Staff Training Aimed at Reducing Re-arrest
STICS	Strategic Training Initiative in Community Supervision
TRM	Trauma Recovery Model
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNCRC	United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child
VS	Verification Score
WG	Welsh Government
YJB	Youth Justice Board

YJEI	Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory
YOI	Young Offenders Institution
YOS	Youth Offending Service
YOT	Youth Offending Team
YRO	Youth Rehabilitation Order

Chapter One: Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine the implementation of the Risk-Need-Responsivity (RNR) model into youth justice supervision practices in Wales. This thesis seeks to understand the issues associated with the transfer of evidence-based practices (EBPs) into front-line service delivery by utilising the Correctional Programme Assessment Inventory-2010 (CPAI-2010) (Gendreau, Andrews and Thériault, 2010). It also considers the validity and suitability of CPAI-2010 for evaluating youth justice practices in Wales. First disseminated in 1990, the RNR model has evolved to incorporate overarching, organisational and core principles (see Andrews, Bonta and Hoge, 1990; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Herzog-Evans, 2017; see also Table 3). A summary of the core principles is as follows:

1. The Risk principle – the intensity of interventions should be matched to the offender’s assessed level of risk of re-offending. Higher risk young people¹ should receive intensive levels of support/interventions, while low-risk young people should receive minimal interventions (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; 2010b; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010);
2. The Need principle - interventions should focus on targeting the criminogenic needs or the needs of the individual that are associated with their criminal behaviour (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a);
3. The Responsivity principle – there are two components of the responsivity principle: general and specific. Underpinning the general responsivity principle is the notion that cognitive, behavioural and social learning approaches are the most effective modes of intervention to reduce re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Lipsey, 2009). These approaches encourage people to learn new pro-social behaviours (Bonta and Andrews, 2007; Bonta et al., 2008; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010). Cognitive, behavioural and social learning approaches

¹ The term ‘children’ and ‘young people’ will be used interchangeably within this thesis. While some academics would argue that their meanings differ, this research will adapt the definition that a child/young person is someone under the age of 18 (UNCRC, 1989). The terms children and young people are used as opposed to ‘young offender’, in order to avoid the negative connotations associated with this label.

incorporate two key principles; relationship (the importance of the practitioner developing excellent working relationships with the young people) and structuring (using relevant skills and practices to help the young people to learn how to develop pro-social attitudes and behaviours) (Andrews et al., 2011; Dowden and Andrews, 2004). The specific responsivity principle advocates interventions should be individualised to match the style and mode of the person's learning style and ability. Additionally, interventions should accommodate the characteristics of the individual, such as gender, ethnicity and age (Andrews, 2006; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014).

There is sound empirical evidence that supports the efficacy of the RNR model of 'offender' rehabilitation (see Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Lipsey et al., 2010). For example, adherence to all three principles of the RNR model is associated with reductions in recidivism by 25-50% (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; 2010b; Lowenkamp, Latessa and Smith, 2006a). Interventions that fail to adhere to these principles yield minimal reductions in recidivism and in some cases even increase recidivism (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; 2010b; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Lipsey, 2009). However, a substantive amount of the RNR/ 'what works' research has focused on adult populations (see Bonta and Andrews, 2017). As such, the RNR model requires a more in-depth explanation for its suitability and application in the youth justice system. As such, Chapter Two explores the limitations and strengths of the RNR model and advocates for an integrated RNR model that is youth-specific (see also Herzog-Evans, 2017; Brogan et al., 2015). The international evidence-base for effective youth justice supervision practices has started to grow over the past two decades (see Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010; Trotter, 1996; 2010; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). However, Farrell et al. (2011) note that the identification of EBPs in the area of youth justice is still 'premature'. As Taxman and Belenko advocate:

A key challenge for identifying EBPs that are salient for the field and community corrections populations and can be realistically implemented with fidelity [integrity] and sustainability is maintaining scientific rigor while

recognizing the real need to implement new programs and practices with relatively little lead time

(2011: 50).

In real-world settings, several constraints impede the implementation of EBPs (see Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). There is evidence to suggest that practitioners have difficulties in implementing the theory of effective practice into front-line supervision (Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; 2006b; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). Poor implementation has resulted in a 'practice integrity gap' (see Helmond et al., 2014a; 2014b; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). Taxman and Belenko (2011) argue that in order to implement EBPs, organisations and practitioners must have a foundational knowledge of EBPs and mechanisms in place to ensure staff are trained to implement and monitor it. However, to date, there has been very limited insight into the precise processes to which youth justice practitioners in Wales understand and implement EBPs into front-line service delivery (Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). Accordingly, this thesis examines the degree to which organisations implement EBPs as outlined by Gendreau et al.'s (2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model. This study provides insight into whether a practice integrity gap exists and if so, why? In order to explore practice integrity, this study utilised one Canadian designed research tool, the CPAI-2010. The CPAI-2010 measures 'programme integrity' or what this thesis conceptualises as 'practice integrity' (see also Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018) (see pages 94-97). The CPAI-2010 assesses the degree to which front-line practices are aligned with the RNR model. The CPAI-2010 is an empirically validated inventory underpinned by meta-analytical research on the characteristics of effective offender interventions (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Gendreau et al., 2010; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). The CPAI-2010 is recognised as a useful tool that helps to bridge the gap between the theory of EBPs and its implementation in practice (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Therefore, this study provides empirical insight into the 'black box' of supervision practices in the Welsh youth justice system, which Bonta et al. (2008) refer to as the limited understanding of what occurs during supervision. This study identifies the key strengths in practice, areas of practice that require

improvements, the barriers that impede the delivery of EBPs, and how implementation issues can be minimised.

1.1 The Welsh Youth Justice System – Policy and Practice Considerations

As the fieldwork for this study was conducted in Wales (from November 2014 to April 2015), it is important to understand its policy and practice setting. There appear to be three key considerations pertinent to this thesis when evaluating the wide range of work that youth offending services undertake and the applicability of the RNR model. Firstly, the influence of the ‘children first, offenders second’ (CFOS) ethos on policy and practice (see Haines and Case, 2015; Drakeford, 2010; 2009). Secondly, the commitment in Wales to divert young people away from the youth justice system via a range of out-court mechanisms (see Haines et al., 2013). Thirdly, due to a significant number of young people being diverted from the youth justice system, there is now a cohort of young people who have very complex needs (see Williams et al., 2018). This consideration coincides with the pilot of Enhanced Case Management (ECM) which is underpinned by the Trauma Recovery Model (TRM) that seeks to support young people with complex needs (see Skuse and Matthews, 2015). The majority of the services which participated in the fieldwork began training in the ECM pilot just after or during the CPAI-2010 evaluations. These are important considerations when examining the transportability of the CPAI-2010 to evaluate youth justice services. Indeed, it is essential to understand whether the CPAI-2010 is responsive to the policy and practice settings of Wales. The following sections provide greater context to the aforementioned policy and practice settings of the Welsh youth justice system. Chapter Two examines in greater detail how these considerations may co-exist with and complement an integrated RNR model.

Children First, Offenders Second

It is important to highlight while Wales forms part of the United Kingdom (UK), there are marked constitutional, jurisdictional and legislative differences between the four countries (Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland and England) that comprise the UK. Although England and Wales share a centralised youth justice system governed by the Westminster Government, there are divergences in policies and practices which set Wales apart from England (Haines, 2010; Drakeford, 2010; Haines and Case, 2015). Over the last two decades, there have been unprecedented changes to youth justice policy and practice in England and Wales. In regard to the centralised youth justice system, the introduction of 1998 Crime and Disorder Act (CDA) was the catalyst for the widespread reform to the youth justice system in England and Wales (Goldson, 2000). One fundamental change pertains to the statutory obligation placed on all core agencies associated with the youth justice system to work together to prevent youth offending (Souhami, 2009). The informal arrangements in the 1980s between criminal justice agencies and external agencies were replaced with contract-based partnerships (see Home Office, 1991). Essentially, the introduction of the 1998 CDA cemented formalised interagency collaboration and saw the formation of multi-agency Youth Offending Services (YOSs). The 1998 CDA also saw the creation of the Youth Justice Board (YJB), a government quango which provide central oversight for both community and custodial regimes. Many academics argue that the changes under the 1998 CDA, particularly the emphasis on risk-led approaches and managerialism resulted in the 'punitive turn' (Muncie, 2008), 'popular punitivism' (Garland, 2001) and the 'new punitiveness' (Pratt et al., 2005; see also Bateman, 2005; Muncie, 1999; 2002; 2006). Indeed, the policies and approaches under the centralised youth justice system have been criticised for criminalising young people and treating them as 'mini adults' (Haines and Case, 2015; UN Committee, 2008; UK Children's Commissioners, 2015; Muncie, 2010).

However, Wales takes a very distinctive approach to youth justice. Since partial devolution, the Welsh Government has developed its own unique social policies for young people. The social policy context for young people in Wales has created the conceptual and practical space for a rights-based, 'dragonised' youth justice system

underpinned by a CFOS ethos² (Haines, 2010; Haines and Case, 2015). As Drakeford notes, ‘the term “children first”, in a Welsh youth justice context is used to denote an attitude of mind, in which offending is understood as only one element in a much wider and more complex identity’ (2010: 141; see Haines and Case 2015 for a full overview of the ‘children first’ principles). In other words, the CFOS promotes the view that offending is a ‘normalised and minor element of a child’s broader identity and behaviour’ (Case and Haines 2014: 7). The adverse effects of labelling young people as offenders are well established (Becker, 1963; Lemert, 1951; 1967; McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; 2013). As such, the CFOS ethos helps to promote the de-stigmatisation of young people who offend and help to ensure that they can enjoy their rights (Haines and Case, 2015). In essence, the CFOS ethos, legislative, policy and practice context of Wales is underpinned by the UNCRC (1989)³, particularly Article 12. Article 12 states that ‘every child has the right to say what they think in all matters affecting them and to have their views taken seriously’ (Article 12, UNCRC, 1989). Essentially, Article 12 empowers young people by viewing them as social actors, where adults must give children’s views ‘due weight’ (Lundy and McEvoy, 2012). Many academics advocate that young people should have the right to be involved in decision-making processes and participate in the process of discussing and deciding their rights (Bell, 1999; Haines and Case, 2015). This may be due to the widespread assumption that children are experts in their own lives (Clark, 2004). The UNCRC (1989) is regarded as ‘the fullest legal statement of children’s rights to be found anywhere’, particularly for children in conflict with the law (Freeman, 2000: 277; see also Melton, 2005). Indeed, Kilkelly (2008) advocates that the UNCRC’s (1989) principal value lies in its articulation and application of fundamental children’s rights principles to the very context of the criminal law. Article 40 asserts explicitly that young people in conflict with the law have the rights to be treated:

In a manner consistent with the promotion of the child’s sense of dignity and worth, which reinforces the child’s respect for the human rights and

² England has also now embraced an idea of ‘children first’ but due to differences in other policies these may not be exactly the same in practice.

³ The UNCRC (1989) comprises 54 articles that outlines the rights to which *all* children are entitled. Articles 1-42 set out how children should be treated. Articles 43-45 explain how governments and adults should implement the UNCRC into law, policy and practice.

fundamental freedoms of others and which takes into account the child's age and the desirability of promoting the child's reintegration and the child's assuming a constructive role in society

(UNCRC, 1989).

Furthermore, the UNCRC (1989) proclaims that young people require non-discrimination in the enjoyment of their rights (Article 2) and that the child's best interest be a primary consideration in all matters affecting the child (Article 3). Muncie (2011) notes that within the UK, Wales is alone in formally advocating the UNCRC (1989) for the basis of its policies affecting young people. Indeed, social policy for young people in Wales can be seen to be underpinned by a set of fundamental rights, which include commitments to: universal rather than narrowly targeted means-tested services; equality of outcome rather than quality of opportunities; and processes of engagement and participation (Drakeford, 2010; Haines and Case, 2015).

Introduced in 2000, *Extending Entitlement* can be seen as one of the key policies that shaped the policy and practice context of Wales (Williamson, 2007; Haines et al., 2004). In summary, it sets out ten entitlements that young people should have access to in relation to health, education, recreational activities and support in order for them to succeed in life (Haines et al., 2004). *Extending Entitlement* was viewed as the Welsh Government's 'flagship' strategy for promoting opportunity and choice for *all* young people aged 11-25 years' (Haines et al., 2004, *emphasis added*). While *Extending Entitlement* is not explicitly linked to youth justice policy and practice, academics assert that *Extending Entitlement* has a crucial role in preventing young people from entering the youth justice system by ensuring that they have access to the ten entitlements under this policy (Williamson, 2007). More recent legislative and policy developments have further strengthened the rights of young people in Wales. For instance, the *Rights of Children and Young Persons (Wales) Measure 2011* places a duty upon Welsh Ministers to have due regard to the rights and obligations of UNCRC (1989) when making policy decisions about matters that concern or involve young people (National Assembly for Wales, 2016). Additionally, the *Well-Being of Future Generations Act 2015* emphasises 'improving the social, economic, environmental and cultural well-being of Wales' (Welsh Government, 2016: no page

number). However, the divergences in social policy for young people in England and Wales have arguably created tension between the YJB and Welsh Government. These tensions are articulated in the *All Wales Youth Offending Strategy (AWYOS)* (2004). It appeared that the AWYOS conveys contradictory and competing goals. As Haines (2010) notes, the AWYOS advocates public protection, early intervention and appropriate punishment (YJB goals), alongside maximum diversion, minimal formal intervention and penal reduction (Welsh Government goals). While the AWYOS does reflect the 1998 CDA's preventive goals, it clearly promotes 'a right-based, pro-social ethos that resonates with *Extending Entitlement*' (Case and Haines, 2009a: 25). The AWYOS firmly asserts that young people should be treated as 'children first'. These tensions appear to have been mediated in the more recent joint strategy published by the YJB and Welsh Government (2014) – *Youth Justice Strategy for Wales: Children and Young People First*. The 'children first' principles continue to resonate throughout the strategy by building on the approach of the AWYOS. The priorities of the 2014 joint strategy include a partnership approach; early intervention, prevention and diversion; reducing re-offending; effective use of custody; and post-sentence resettlement and reintegration (Welsh Government (WG)/YJB, 2014).

Diversion

Diverting young people from the formal youth justice system has been a key priority for the Welsh youth justice system. Diversionary initiatives such as the 'Youth Restorative Disposal' (YRD) 'Triage' and the 'Bureau' have been implemented to reduce the escalation of young people through the youth justice system with the use of out-of-court disposals (see Haines et al., 2012; 2013; Coyles, 2014; Evans, 2008; Home Office, 2012; Rix et al., 2011; Kelly and Armitage, 2014; Smith, 2017; Soppitt and Irving, 2014). As such, these initiatives have contributed to a drastic decrease in the number of first-time entrants (FTEs) in Wales. Since 2007 there has been an 87% reduction in the number of young people entering the youth justice system in Wales (YJB, 2018). The introduction of the 2012 Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders (LASPO) Act has also helped to avoid the escalation of young people through the youth justice system by enabling out-of-court disposal (via processes such as the Bureau) to be used for young people. Diversionary initiatives

are essential when considering the nature of youth offending. Several life-course developmental theories highlight that the majority of young people who offend will naturally 'grow out' of crime as they mature (Capsi and Moffitt, 1995; Cauffman and Steinberg, 2000; Farrington and Ttofi, 2016; Moffitt, 1993; 1997; Monahan et al., 2009; Sampson and Laub, 2009; Steinburg and Cauffman, 1996; Steinburg et al., 2015; Thornberry and Krohn, 2005; Walsh, 2011). As such, excessive and unnecessary youth justice interventions are more likely have a detrimental effect on young people (Lipsey, 2009; Maruna and LeBel, 2003; McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; Petrosino et al., 2010). From the perspective of labelling theories, excessive contact with the youth justice system can increase the likelihood of future offending (Petrosino et al., 2010). Criminal justice interventions with young people may actually reinforce offending behaviour through the establishment of deviant identities (see Lemert, 1951; McAra and McVie, 2010; Maruna, 2001). Additionally, it is a waste of resources to provide unnecessary intervention to young people; this is particularly pertinent given the current climate where youth services have received significant cuts to their budgets (YJB, 2017; Chalkley, 2018; Children & Young People Now, 2013).

Prolific Offending and Complex Needs

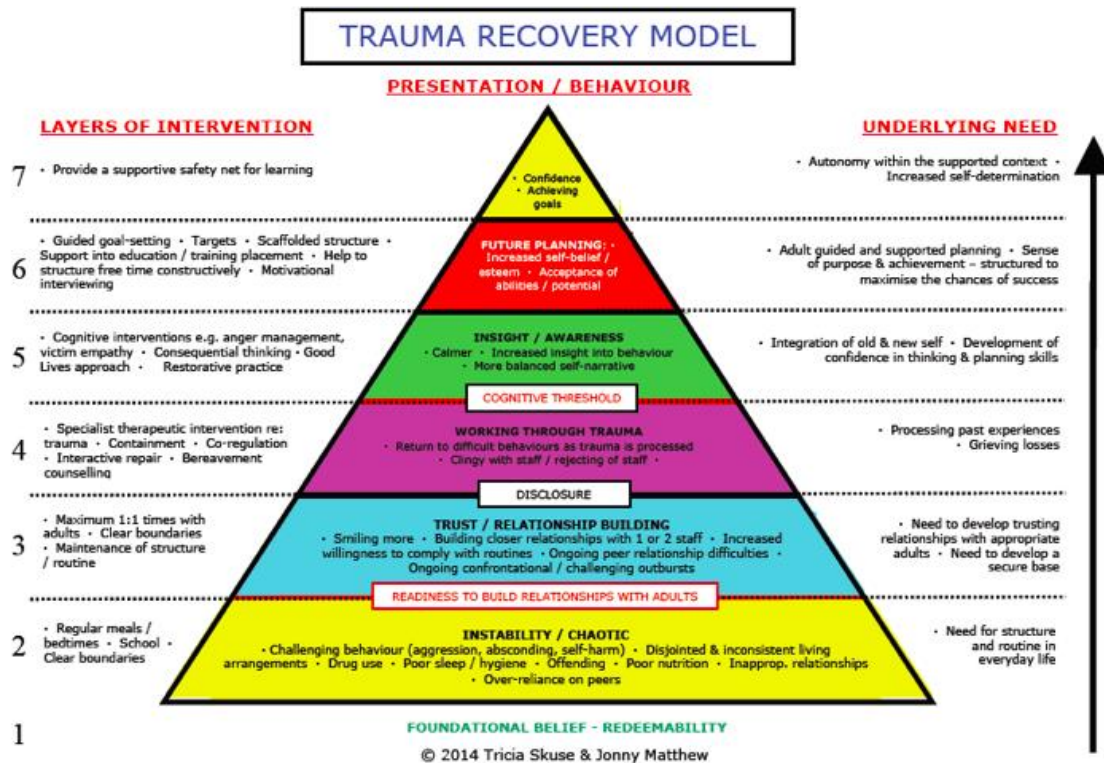
Several life-course developmental studies reveal that the majority of youth offending can be attributed to a small proportion of persistent/chronic young offenders with several criminogenic and welfare needs (Moffitt, 1997; 2006; Farrington and Ttofi, 2016; Newburn, 2017; Laub and Sampson, 2003; Sampson and Laub, 2009). These findings coincide with Williams et al.'s (2018) study which revealed that there is a concentrated group of young people in Wales with very complex needs. As the number of young people in the youth justice system has decreased, those who remain often have a history of prolific offending and have multifaceted needs (Williams et al., 2018; YJB, 2018). This has been called a 'thickening of the soup' (Carlile 2014; Williams et al., 2018). Due to their complex needs, these young people can be challenging to support, and case manage effectively, which is reflected in high rates of re-offending (YJB, 2018). As such, these young people have implications for policy and practice. Carlile (2014) advocates that this complex cohort

highlight the failures of the youth justice system as their needs have not been addressed. To some extent, this also highlights the gap between the theory of EBPs and its implementation in real-world settings. As Carlie also notes, this failure can also be 'an opportunity to better focus resources on addressing such challenges' (Carlile, 2014: 6). The RNR model can provide a clear framework for youth justice interventions to ensure that the needs of young people are appropriately met. Appropriate allocation of resources is central to the risk principles of the RNR model (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Lowenkamp et al., 2006b; Lipsey, 2009). In line with the risk principle, the resources of youth offending services should be targeted at addressing the needs of this cohort of persistent offenders. Additionally, young people of low risk of re-offending require minimal intervention and should be diverted away from the youth justice system (Bonta and Andrews, 2017).

As noted, during this study some of the participating youth justice services had began training in the delivery of the Trauma Recovery Model (TRM) as part of the Enhanced Case Managed (ECM) pilot. The ECM seeks to address the needs of young people with complex needs. It is essential to point out that this study is not concerned with evaluating the TRM. However, it is important to acknowledge the ECM as it forms part of recent practice developments in Wales. The TRM/ECM draws on several theories surrounding child development, attachment, neurological development, mental health and maltreatment and utilises a clinical psychology approach for case formulation (Skuse and Matthews, 2015). The model advocates that trauma experienced during early development and/or weak relationships between the child and their parent(s)/caregiver(s) can have a detrimental effect on the child (e.g. it may cause depression, anxiety, impulsivity, aggression and offending behaviour) (Skuse and Matthews, 2015; Matthews, 2018). This coincides with the Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) research stemming from Wales which further highlights that stressful and abusive experiences and environments can be detrimental to brain, immunological and hormonal system development (Bellis et al., 2015). Exposure to ACEs in early childhood can lead to individuals developing anti-social behaviours, including a propensity for aggressive and violent behaviour, which accelerates their involvement with the criminal justice system

(Bellis et al., 2015). In relation to this, the TRM suggests that early childhood trauma stunts the neurological and emotional development of young people, which has implications for the delivery of interventions and support. Several studies show that cognitive-behavioural approaches are the most effective mode of intervention to reducing re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2007; 2017; Bonta et al., 2008; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010). However, young people whose neurological and emotional development have been impeded may not be able to engage with cognitive-behavioural interventions from the outset. Before these interventions take place, their non-criminogenic needs must be understood and addressed (Skuse and Matthews, 2015). It is widely acknowledged that people do not mature neurological until well into their mid to late 20's (Edwards, 2009; Erickson et al., 2009; Johnson et al., 2009; Sebastian et al., 2010; Sowell et al., 2002; Spear, 2009; Walsh, 2011). In light of this, the TRM presents tiers of sequenced interventions which consider the developmental stages of young people (see Figure 1) (Skuse and Matthews, 2015). In order to progress to the next tier, the needs of the young person must be met in their current tier of development. In this sense, the TRM can help to formulate clear case management plans for practitioners. This can help to inform cognitive-behavioural interventions that address the specific needs of the young people which accommodate their development stage (which also coincides with the specific responsivity principle of the RNR model, see pages 49-71 and Table 3) (Skuse and Matthews, 2015).

Figure 1. The Trauma Recovery Model



(Source: Skuse and Matthews, 2015).

However, the validity of the TRM is not the focus of this thesis, but as previously noted, it is important to acknowledge it as it is part of practice developments in Wales. In comparison to the RNR model, the empirical support for the TRM is limited (see Cordis Bright, 2017). The ideas contained within the TRM are not new, and this has been acknowledged by its creators (Skuse and Matthews, 2015). The architects of TRM place importance on building positive relationships with young people and understanding their capabilities and the barriers that prevent them from engaging with interventions (Skuse and Matthews, 2015). Arguably, this is the specific responsivity principle of the RNR model which stipulates that interventions need to be tailored to the specific characteristics and capabilities of individuals (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). The TRM may compliment the RNR model in terms of some similarities in approach, which further highlights the need to consider the integration of relevant approaches. An integrated approach must be considered in the context

of EBPs (see also Herzog-Evans, 2017). The initial evaluation of the ECM provides very limited insight into the effectiveness of this approach to reduce re-offending (see Cordis Bright, 2017). However, the evaluation of the ECM highlights the importance of implementation. The ECM pilot has provided practitioners with continual training, support and clinical supervision from a psychologist which helps to inform the case management approach (Cordis Bright, 2017). The feedback from the practitioners who participated in the ECM pilot revealed the value of the on-going training and clinical supervision (Cordis Bright, 2017). The support received during the ECM pilot appeared to enhance the practice integrity of this approach in the sense that it was being delivered as intended and further highlights the importance of implementation on the ground.

1.2 The Research Questions

In light of the existing gaps in current academic knowledge and empirical insight, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. What level of 'practice integrity' do youth justice agencies in Wales possess?
2. What are the barriers for youth justice agencies in Wales to implement the theory of evidence-based practices into front-line practice?
3. What is the relationship between 'practice integrity' and recidivism rates in Welsh youth justice agencies?
4. Is the CPAI-2010 a suitable evaluation inventory to use within the context of the Welsh youth justice system?

1.3 Key Stages and Utility of the Study

In order to address the central research questions, this study comprised five key stages:

1. Stage one involved a process evaluation of youth justice practices in Wales. The process evaluation used the CPAI-2010 to assess practice integrity; the

degree to which youth justice practices are aligned to Gendreau et al.'s (2004; 2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model (see Chapters Two and Three for an overview of the RNR model and practice integrity).

2. The second stage of the study examined evaluation responsiveness (see Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017). In other words, this stage of the study assessed the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for practice settings in Wales. This phase employed a participatory approach where feedback was gained from the practitioners who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations.
3. Stage three of the study pursued an outcome evaluation. Previous research has revealed that high CPAI scores (high practice integrity) are associated with lower levels of recidivism (see Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). This stage of the study planned to analyse the CPAI-2010 scores of the individual youth justice services with available recidivism data in order to establish if there was a link between high practice integrity and lower rates of recidivism in Wales (see Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). However, difficulties in obtaining key information in an accessible format prevented the completion of a comprehensive outcome evaluation (see Chapter Five, pages 208-213).
4. The fourth stage of the study focused on addressing the evaluation responsiveness issues associated with the CPAI-2010. This phase involved the co-development of an evaluation inventory that is more attuned to the policy and practice settings of Wales; the YJEl. The YJEl is underpinned by the international evidence-base of effective practices with young people.
5. The final stage of the study piloted the YJEl in one Youth Offending Service (YOS) in Wales. Due to the time constraints of this PhD study, future research will seek to develop and validate the YJEl.

Stages One and Three of the Study: Examining Practice Integrity and Outcomes

Stage one of this study focused on examining youth justice agencies⁴ adherence to Gendreau et al.'s (2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model. The youth justice

⁴ These agencies include Youth Justice Services (YOSs) and Secure Estates.

agencies were evaluated in two dimensions: practice integrity and practice outcomes. Practice integrity refers to the degree to which agencies adhere to the principles of effective practice; these are correlated with reductions in recidivism rates (Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Essentially, practice integrity involves applying EBPs to a range of relevant front-line practices (Carroll et al., 2007; Dane and Schneider, 1998; Helmond et al., 2014a; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018) (see pages 94-97 for a more detailed discussion of practice integrity). As previously noted, this study used the CPAI-2010 to measure practice integrity. The CPAI-2010 is underpinned by meta-analytical research on the characteristics of effective offender interventions that are shown to reduce re-offending (see Gendreau et al., 2004; 2010; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a). The CPAI-2010 can provide a comprehensive evaluation of criminal justice agencies as it examines an extensive range of factors and practices that are associated with positive outcomes (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). The CPAI-2010 assesses practice within the following domains illustrated in Table 1 (these are discussed in greater detail Chapters Three and Four, see pages 101-104 and 114-116):

Table 1. CPAI-2010 Domains

A. Programme demographics
B. Organisational culture
C. Programme implementation/maintenance
D. Management/staff characteristics
E. Client risk/need practices
F. Programme characteristics
G. Core correctional practice
H. Inter-agency communication
I. Evaluation

Essentially, the CPAI-2010 indicates the extent to which agencies/interventions/programmes are aligned with the RNR model. As Polaschek notes, the RNR model has become the dominant model for criminal justice practice

due to its 'empirical validity and practical utility' (2012:1). Studies have revealed that interventions that adhere to the RNR model are more likely to be effective in reducing recidivism (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; 2010b; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Lipsey, 2009; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; 2006b). However, to date, the RNR research has primarily been conducted within the realms of adult rehabilitation. There has been limited research that has examined the implementation of the RNR model into youth justice practices, especially within Wales and the UK (see also Brogan et al., 2015; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Adler et al., 2016; Mason and Prior, 2008; HMI Probation, 2016).

Several criticisms have been levelled at the RNR model of supervision. One key criticism pertains to the RNR model being overly deficit and risk-focused (Laws and Ward, 2011; Ward, 2010; Ward et al., 2007a; Ward and Steward, 2003; Ward et al., 2012). This raises particular concerns when working with young people (McAra and McVie, 2010; Haines and Case, 2015; Brogan et al. 2015). However, the RNR model is often misinterpreted and misunderstood (Andrews et al., 2011; Robinson and Crow, 2009; Polaschek, 2012). This can be attributed to the model being difficult to comprehend and communicate effectively (Polaschek, 2012). There is evidence to suggest that the lack of effective implementation of the RNR model has led to deficits in practice across several offending populations, which are often perceived as shortfalls with the model as opposed to implementation issues (Raynor and Robinson, 2009; Polaschek, 2012; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). As such, the model has been met with resistance from practitioners and academics (Bonta and Andrews, Andrews et al., 2011; 2017; Helmond et al., 2014a; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). This often leaves the RNR model susceptible to criticism from academics of opposing or alternative models (see Laws and Ward, 2011; Ward et al., 2007a; Ward et al., 2007b; Ward and Steward, 2003; Ward et al., 2012). Therefore, it is essential to distinguish between what the RNR theory intends to do in practice and how it is implemented or not implemented into real-world front-line practice. The 'RNR model may facilitate a shift from punitive practices in the juvenile justice system toward individualised assessment and treatment of youth fostering rehabilitation and reintegration' (Brogan et al., 2015: 277). However, in order to successfully implement the RNR model, it must go beyond merely applying adult

measures and methods to young people who offend (see Brogan et al., 2015). A plethora of research highlights that ‘adolescents are not miniature adults’ (Steinberg, 2004: 53). Factors such as developmental differences, social and structural issues must be considered in order to work effectively *with* young people (see Chapter Two). Therefore, it is important to consider theoretical perspectives and empirical support for other prominent models of supervision such as the desistance model (see Andrews et al., 2011; Farrall et al., 2014; Maruna, 2001; McCulloch and McNeill, 2008; McNeill, 2003, 2006, 2008; 2009b; McNeill and Weaver, 2010; Ward and Marshall, 2004; Ward and Gannon, 2006; Ward et al., 2007a; Yates et al., 2010). This can help to identify commonality and differences in approaches to develop an integrated approach to reduce re-offending (see also Herzog-Evans, 2017). As such, Chapter Two expands the explanatory depth of the RNR model and highlights the need of an integrated RNR model that incorporates relevant approaches which are youth-specific (see also Herzog-Evans, 2017).

The CPAI-2010 has been used extensively in North America and is regarded by its creators as a universally applicable instrument for evaluating virtually all types of offender populations (Gendreau et al., 2010). Previous research conducted with the predecessor of the CPAI-2010 (the CPAI-2000) revealed interventions that score highly on the CPAI-2000 (possess high levels of practice integrity) have lower rates of recidivism than interventions that receive low CPAI-2000 scores (Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). However, to date, this thesis is the first study to use the CPAI-2010 within Wales and the UK to evaluate youth justice practices. The few studies that have examined the implementation of the RNR model have predominantly focused on a particular component of RNR or have been conducted in jurisdictions outside of Wales (see for example, Singh et al., 2014; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Rudes et al., 2017; Feilzer et al., 2004; Trotter, 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). Therefore, this study provides a unique insight into an under-researched area of front-line practices of YOSs and Secure Estates in Wales.

Stage three of this study attempted to evaluate the practice outcomes of the youth justice agencies. This would have entailed a quantitative analysis of the recidivism rates of the youth justice agencies and their CPAI-2010 scores. For the purpose of this study, recidivism relates to when a young person has received some form of criminal sanction (such as a Youth Rehabilitation Order) and then goes on to commit another proven offence within a set period of time. For this study, the available recidivism rates were collected 12 months after the initial CPAI-2010 evaluations. The purpose of this stage was to examine if a link existed between high CPAI-2010 scores and lower rates of recidivism or low CPAI-2010 and higher rates of recidivism. This would reinforce that adherence to the RNR model is associated with reductions in re-offending in the context of working with youth people. However, issues with accessing relevant information prevented a full analysis from being completed (this is discussed in greater detail in Chapter Five, see pages 208-213).

Stage one and three of this study fills a significant gap in the current knowledge base. To date, the precise processes through which frontline youth justice practitioners implement evidence-based approaches have received insufficient empirical attention. This is particularly the case for one-to-one supervision practices in Wales and in the UK more broadly. As Bonta et al. noted in 2008:

Unfortunately, there is very little research that examines case management within the context of the offender rehabilitation literature even though the importance of juxtaposing case management with the “what works” literature has been recognized ... Do probation and parole officers use offender risk assessments in assigning intensity of intervention and identifying criminogenic needs that should be addressed? Do probation and parole officers use cognitive-behavioural techniques during their supervision sessions? Answers to these questions are lacking and yet answers are sorely needed to improve supervision practices

(252- 253).

With limited empirical insight, this poses several implications. For instance, it is difficult to ascertain whether practitioners are aware of the principles of effective practice and whether they interpret and apply these principles both consistently and

effectively. Indeed, studies reveal practitioners face issues with implementing the theory of 'what works' into their front-line practice (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta et al., 2008; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Taxman 2008; Taxman and Belenko 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). As previously noted, this can result in a practice integrity gap (see Helmond et al., 2014a; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). The effective implementation of the theory of EBPs into front-line practice is crucial. Previous studies suggest that the effective implementation of supervision skills is linked with successful outcomes such as reduced recidivism rates (Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Raynor et al., 2014; Robinson et al., 2012; Trotter, 2013a; Trotter et al., 2015). Therefore, the CPAI-2010 can act as a means of knowledge transfer which can assist in bridging the gulf that exists between the theory of effective practice and front-line service delivery (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Taxman and Belenko, 2011).

To this end, this research provides a valuable insight into the extent to which frontline practices are aligned to EBPs. Additionally, at the forefront of this research is the potential impact it can have on practice. A key strength of this study is its practical utility. Findings from this study have the potential to develop and inform evidence-based policies and practices. Andrews and Bonta observe that: 'feedback from CPAI users has often been positive because just going through the exercise is a tremendous learning experience for agencies' (2010a: 458). This study has provided participating services and practitioners with the opportunity to identify and explore practices that are linked with positive outcomes such as reduced re-offending. For the youth justice agencies who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations, it can enable them to articulate and document the key strengths in their practice (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). Additionally, it can assist in highlighting key areas of practice that can be improved (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). Importantly this research can provide agencies with guidance to bridge the practice integrity gap.

Stage Two: Assessing the Suitability of the CPAI-2010 – Evaluation Responsivity

The CPAI-2010 was primarily designed to assess the ability of services to reduce the re-offending of people who are assessed as medium to high risk of re-offending in the North American context. This raises concerns about the suitability and transferability of the CPAI-2010 to evaluate youth justice practices in Wales. Due to its narrow focus on reducing re-offending, the CPAI-2010 may not adequately evaluate the broader work of YOSs in Wales. As noted, youth justice in Wales is underpinned by the CFOS ethos (see Haines and Drakeford, 1998; Haines, 2010; Haines and Case, 2015). There is a commitment to prioritise the rights and welfare needs of young people, as well as promoting their participation in decision-making processes (see WG/ YJB, 2014). However, the language used in the CPAI-2010 does not coincide with the CFOS ethos. For example, terms such as ‘correctional’ and ‘offender’ may be conceptualised by practitioners as stigmatising and punitive. Additionally, the CPAI-2010 assesses services/interventions against an ideal intervention and represents a certain theoretical perspective on what a ‘perfect’ service would like, which may not be entirely suitable for youth justice practices. Achieving the maximum score on the CPAI-2010 is also very difficult to obtain in the real-world. Smith and Schweitzer (2012) note that a 100% score on the CPAI-2010 has never been attained. Low scores have the potential to disengage services from the evaluation process, and it may also affect staff morale. The general findings from CPAI-2000 (predecessor of the CPAI-2010) evaluations reveal the majority of criminal justice agencies/interventions score poorly on the inventory (possess low levels of practice integrity) and require improvements (Gendreau and Goggin, 2000; Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; 2006b; Matthews, Hubbard and Latessa, 2001; Nesovic, 2003; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012).

In order to assess the evaluation responsivity of the CPAI-2010, semi-structured interviews were conducted with youth justice practitioners who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations. This stage of the study was undertaken in a participatory manner. Practitioners were viewed and engaged as key stakeholders. Whitmore (1998) defines stakeholders as people who are directly involved in and affected by

the practices that are being evaluated. Studies reveal that participatory evaluation can enhance stakeholders' sense of ownership, promote engagement and increase the likelihood that they will take on board the recommendations of the evaluation (Cousins 2003; Greene 2006). This phase of the study helped to promote a bottom-up approach to evaluation research and practice change as opposed to a top-down approach (see Oulton, 2003). The feedback from the practitioners is discussed in detail in Chapter Five (see pages 214-227). In summary, it appeared that the CPAI-2010 was not entirely suitable to evaluate youth justice practices in Wales. Findings from this stage were the catalyst for stages four of the study and the development of a more responsive evaluation inventory.

Stages Four and Five: Developing and Piloting an Evidence-Based Inventory to Evaluate Youth Justice Practices in Wales – The Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEI)

To respond to the evaluation responsivity issues associated with the CPAI-2010, stage four of the study focused on developing a more suitable evaluation inventory. Stage four utilised the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations and practitioner feedback in order to develop the YJEI. The YJEI incorporates an integrated RNR model and the CFOS policy and practice context of Wales. Like the CPAI-2010, the YJEI assesses a range of practice areas in order to evaluate practice integrity. Table 2 illustrates the domains that comprise the YJEI.

Table 2. YJEl Domains

PART A: PRACTICE CULTURE
1. Practice Ethos
2. Practice Principles
PART B: QUALITY ASSURANCE STRATEGIES
3. Professional Development Opportunities
4. Practice Evaluation Strategies
PART C: FRONTLINE PRACTICE
5. Assessment Practice and Interventions
6. The Child/Young Person's Voice
7. Practice Skills

As previously noted, the identification and evaluation of EBPs in the area of youth justice have received limited empirical insight in comparison to adult populations (Farrell et al., 2011; Brogan et al., 2015). Therefore, the YJEl represents a means of knowledge transfer that can further assist in bridging the practice integrity gap. The feedback from the practitioners helped to ensure that the design of the YJEl was user-friendly in order to promote self-evaluation (which can also help to improve practice) and to increase the likelihood that stakeholders would take on board recommendations from the evaluations (see also Cousins 2003; Greene 2006). This coincides with the need to develop responsive evaluation approaches that draw on the experience of key stakeholder, consider the policy and practice contexts and the wider theoretical and empirical evidence related to youth offending (Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017).

The final stage of the study piloted the YJEl in order to assess the practice integrity of one YOS in Wales. This phase of the study provided further insight into the extent to which frontline practices are aligned to the current evidence base and the CFOS ethos. It also provided the YOS with an opportunity to identify and explore practices that are linked with positive outcomes such as reducing re-offending. Further research is required to gain feedback from the practitioners in order to develop and

validate the YJEl. However, due to the time constraints of completing a PhD, this was not possible for this study.

1.4 Thesis Structure

The final section of this chapter provides an overview of the structure and focus of this thesis. It outlines the main points that are discussed in each chapter.

Chapter Two: Expanding the Explanatory Depth, Theoretical and Empirical Base of the RNR Model

Chapter Two explores the strengths and limitations of applying the RNR model to the Welsh youth justice system. This Chapter focuses on developing the explanatory depth of the RNR model and highlights the need to broaden its theoretical and empirical base. This chapter advocates for an integrated RNR model that is youth-specific (see also Herzog-Evans, 2017). Chapter Two emphasises the importance of understanding and implementing the principles of an integrated RNR model together rather than in isolation. Misunderstanding and misapplying the model in real-world settings limits its integrity and effectiveness to reduce re-offending and promote social inclusion.

Chapter Three: Bridging the Practice Integrity Gap

Chapter Three highlights the gulf between the theory of EBPs and its implementation into front-line supervision practices, which creates a practice integrity gap (see Helmond et al., 2014a; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). The CPAI-2010 is introduced as a tool that can help bridge the gap between theory and practice. This chapter also touches upon some of the contextual issues of using the CPAI-2010 to evaluate youth justice practices in Wales.

Chapter Four: The Methodological Approach of Stages One and Two - Piloting and Evaluating the CPAI-2010

Chapter Four describes the methodological approach employed in stages one and two of this study. It examines the strengths and limitations of the CPAI-2010 and the use of participatory evaluations. This chapter also discusses the nature of the sample group and the implications for generalisability, along with key ethical considerations.

Chapter Five: Results from Stages One to Three – The CPAI-2010 Evaluations and Practitioner Feedback

This chapter outlines the results from stages one to three of the study. It presents the results of the process analysis (the CPAI-2010 evaluations) and the qualitative feedback from practitioners. It highlights the key strengths in practice, areas that require improvements and the utility of the CPAI-2010 in the context of extant literature. It reveals where youth justice practices justifiability diverges from CPAI-2010 expectations and where areas of practice require closer alignment to its evidence base. This chapter highlights the issues of using the CPAI-2010 to evaluate youth justice practices in Wales and the need to develop a more responsive evaluation inventory. Additionally, it describes the issues of completing a comprehensive outcome analysis and presents the limited results from the available data.

Chapter Six: Stages Four and Five - Developing and Piloting the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory

Chapter Six builds on Chapter Five by discussing how the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations were used to develop a potentially more suitable inventory to evaluate youth justice practices in Wales; the YJEI. It outlines how the YJEI was developed and discusses the methodological approach used to pilot the YJEI. The results from the YJEI piloted are also presented. There is particular emphasis on comparing and contrasting the results from the CPAI-2010 evaluations and YJEI evaluation.

Chapter Seven – Overall Discussion and Conclusion

Chapter Seven reflects on the overall findings from this study and discusses the implications this has for policy and practice. It discusses the suitability of applying an integrated RNR model to youth justice practices in Wales. It outlines the strengths and limitations of the study and discusses the need for future research.

Chapter Two: Expanding the Explanatory Depth, Theoretical and Empirical Base of the RNR Model

The application of the RNR model is well established in adult probation research and practice (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Raynor et al., 2014). However, it is still developing with the realms of youth justice (Brogan et al., 2015; Farrell et al., 2011; Lipsey, 2009). Several criticisms have been levelled at the RNR model, which mainly pertain to its narrow focus on reducing risk (Laws and Ward, 2011; Ward and Maruna, 2007; Ward et al., 2007a; Ward and Steward, 2003; Ward et al., 2012). This raises particular concern when considering the CFOS context of Wales (Haines and Case, 2015). However, within England and Wales, there has been limited empirical insight into the potential application of the RNR model. Additionally, there has been little theoretical discussion on how the RNR model could be applied or adapted to youth justice. To date, there is no one theoretical or practical model that is universally regarded as the most effective approach to reduce youth offending. Of the different models of 'offender rehabilitation', the RNR model has the most robust empirical support and practical utility (Adler et al., 2016; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010; Polaschek, 2012). Therefore, this chapter will explore the evidence that underpins the principles of the RNR model, as well as its criticisms. Herzog-Evans notes that an 'academic feud has sadly persisted' (2017: 99) between the proponents of different models of supervision (primarily the RNR model, Good Lives Model (GLM) and desistance theorists). This has been somewhat of a fruitless dispute as there are several similarities between the models (see Herzog-Evans, 2017). Rather than competing with one another, these models can complement one another and mitigate each other's limitations (see Herzog-Evans, 2017 for an in-depth overview). In line with Herzog-Evans (2017), this chapter supports an integrated approach. What is essential when considering the suitability of the RNR model is the fact that young people are not mini-adults and developmental differences need to be considered (Brogan et al., 2015; Haines and Case, 2015). Therefore, this chapter considers a broader theoretical and empirical

base for working with young people who offend in order to develop an integrated model of RNR that is youth-specific. Brogan et al. (2015) advocate that:

Acknowledgment, discussion, and evaluation of the shortcomings of the RNR model should allow for refinement of its scientific reliability and validity, strengthen the humanistic approach to offender rehabilitation, and further the juvenile justice systems' rehabilitative mission to break the cycle of adolescent delinquency and adult criminal involvement

(2015: 293)

The RNR model is open to critical enquiry and development (Herzog-Evans, 2017). It is important to remember that the principles of RNR need to be understood and used together rather than in isolation. This chapter argues that the RNR principles require further explanation to better understand the potential of the model's for use in Wales. This chapter draws particular attention to the importance of the human service and specific responsivity principles. A more in-depth explanation of these principles can assist in addressing the concerns of applying risk/need informed approaches to youth justice, as well as, placing greater emphasis on non-criminogenic needs and strengths-based practices (see also Brogan et al., 2015).

2.1 An Integrated RNR Model

The RNR model is underpinned by the General Personality and Cognitive Social Learning (GPCSL) approach and more specifically the Personal Interpersonal and Community-Reinforcement perspective (PIC-R). This is essentially informed by a 'broad cognitive social learning perspective on human conduct' (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a: 141). It incorporates elements of motivational theories, and control theories and recognises the importance of social bonds in regard to explaining the onset and offset of offending (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a). As the name states, the risk, need, responsivity principles are pivotal to the theoretical and practical conceptualisation of the model. However, the 'overarching', 'organisational' and 'clinical' principles which comprise the RNR model are often overlooked, but are crucial to the understanding and implementing the model. Bonta and Andrews (2017: 176-177) outline the full RNR model as follows in Table 3:

Table 3: The RNR Model

Overarching Principles

1. **Respect for the Person and the Normative Context:** Services are delivered with respect for the person, including respect for personal autonomy, being humane, ethical, just, legal, decent, and being otherwise normative. Some norms may vary within the agencies or the particular settings within which services are delivered. For example, agencies working with young offenders may be expected to show exceptional attention to education issues and to child protection. Mental health agencies may attend to issues of personal well-being. Some agencies working with female offenders may place a premium on attending to trauma and/or to parenting concerns.
2. **Psychological Theory:** Base programs on an empirically solid psychological theory (e.g. General Personality and Cognitive Social Learning).
3. **General Enhancement of Crime Prevention Services:** The reduction of criminal victimization may be viewed as a legitimate objective of service agencies, including agencies within and outside of justice and corrections.

Core RNR Principles and Key Clinical Issues

4. **Introduce Human Service:** Introduce human service into the justice context. Do not rely on the sanction to bring about reduced offending. Do not rely on deterrence, restoration or other principles of justice.
5. **Risk:** Match intensity of service with risk level of cases. Work with moderate and higher risk cases. Generally, avoid creating interactions of low-risk cases with higher-risk cases.
6. **Need:** Target criminogenic needs predominantly. Move criminogenic needs in the direction of becoming strengths.
7. **General Responsivity:** Employ behavioral, social learning and cognitive behavioral influence and skill building strategies.
8. **Specific Responsivity:** Adapt the style and mode of service according to the setting of service and to relevant characteristics of individual offenders, such as their strengths, motivations, preferences, personality, age, gender, ethnicity, cultural identifications, and other factors. The evidence in regard to specific responsivity is generally favorable but very scattered, and it has yet to be subjected to a comprehensive meta-analysis. Some examples of specific responsivity considerations follow:
 - a) When working with the weakly motivated:
 - Build on strengths;
 - reduce personal and situational barriers to full participation in treatment;
 - establish high-quality relationships;

- deliver early and often on matters of personal interest
- b) Attend to the evidence in regard to age, gender, and culturally responsive services.
 - c) Attend to the evidence in regard to differential treatment according to interpersonal maturity, interpersonal anxiety, cognitive skill levels, and the responsivity aspects of psychopathy.
 - d) Consider the targeting of noncriminogenic needs for purposes of enhancing motivation, the reduction of distracting factors, and for reasons having to do with humanitarian and entitlement issues.
9. Breadth (or Multimodal): Target a number of criminogenic needs relative to noncriminogenic needs.
 10. Strength: Assess strengths to enhance prediction and specific responsivity effects.
 11. **Structured Assessment:**
 - a) Assessments of Strengths and Risk-Need-Specific Responsivity Factors: Employ structured and validated assessment instruments.
 - b) Integrated Assessment and Intervention: Every intervention and contact should be informed by the assessments.
 12. Professional Discretion: Deviate from recommendations only for very specific reasons. For example, functional analysis may suggest that emotional distress is a risk/need factor for *this* person.

Organizational Principles: Settings, Staffing, and Management

13. **Community-based:** Community-based services are preferred but the principles of RNR also apply within residential and institutional settings.
 14. GPCSL-based Staff Practices: Effectiveness of interventions is enhanced when delivered by therapists and staff with *high-quality relationship skills* in combination with *high-quality structuring skills*. Quality relationships are characterized as respectful, caring, enthusiastic, collaborative, and valuing of personal autonomy, and using motivational interviewing to engage the client in treatment. Structuring practices include prosocial modeling, effective reinforcement and disapproval, skill building, cognitive restructuring, problem-solving, effective use of authority, advocacy/brokerage.
 15. Management: Promote the selection, training and clinical supervision of staff according to RNR and introduce monitoring, feedback, and adjustment systems. Build systems and cultures supportive of effective practice and continuity of care. Some additional specific indicators of integrity include having program manuals available, monitoring of service process and intermediate changes, adequate dosage, and involving researchers in the design and delivery of service.
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Table 3 represents the most up to date conceptualisation of the RNR model from its creators. Since its introduction in 1990, the RNR model has been ‘under permanent reconstruction in light of new evidence’ and is open to criticism and modification (Herzog-Evans, 2017: 100). Polaschek notes that historically key criticism of the RNR model pertain to:

- a) difficulties with complexity, accessibility of language, and clarity in the model itself, (b) large-scale operationalization of a narrow range of RNR programmes, and (c) implementation of interventions that emphasize the core principles of risk and need at the expense of other, equally important principles such as responsivity and core staff practices
- (2012:11)

The use of complex and technicised language may be one of the key factors that has limited the model’s accessibility and transferability into practice (Polaschek, 2012). The most notable changes to the RNR model since its introduction pertain to the use of more accessible language and more precise presentation and explanation of the different principles (see also Polaschek, 2012). These changes can help to translate the framework more effectively into practice. However, as noted, these do need further explanation for application in youth justice. The RNR model has also been criticised for being perceived as ‘punitive’ and having a ‘deficit focus’ (Polaschek, 2012; Ward and Maruna, 2007). This is a misconception of the model as it is rooted in delivering support at a human-centred level (Andrews et al., 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Herzog-Evans, 2017). Due to these criticisms, the RNR authors appear to have placed greater emphasis on key elements of the model than before (see also Polaschek, 2012). For example, there is a greater emphasis placed on the need to pay attention to non-criminogenic needs, as well as building the ‘strengths’ of individuals (see Andrews et al., 2012). These are significant developments that are of particular importance for the model’s application in the Welsh youth justice system and are explored in greater detail on pages 82-84 and 84.

The incorporation of more positive and strengths-based language is an important improvement to the RNR model. The use of language is particularly important when

working with children, especially within the CFOS context (Haines and Case, 2015). From a desistance perspective, deficit focused practices and language can result in 'offender' identities being reinforced, which makes it more difficult for people to stop offending (Maruna, 2001; Maruna and LeBel, 2010; Maruna, 2011; McNeill, 2012). Desistance theorists advocate that there needs to be a shift in the language used when working with people who have offended. The use of language that promotes self-efficacy and beliefs about rehabilitation must be used in order to help foster pro-social self-identities (Maruna, 2001; McNeill et al., 2012). This is not at odds with the RNR model. Andrews et al. advocate that Maruna's (2001) workaround self-identity is 'a classic piece of cognitive social psychology' that is 'utterly consistent with RNR' (2011: 17). However, it is only recently that the language within RNR and aspects of the model has began to incorporate a more positive stance. Greater integration of this can help to make the model more accessible to youth justice practitioners and help to unify other approaches (Herzog-Evans, 2017).

Despite criticisms, there is a substantial body of evidence that supports the efficacy of the RNR model of supervision with a range of offending populations, including young people (Andrews et al. 1990; Andrews and Bonta 2010a; Aos et al. 2006; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Brogan et al., 2015; Hanson et al., 2009; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Koehler et al., 2013; Lipsey, 1992; 2009; 2014; Lipsey and Cullen 2007; Landenberger and Lipsey, 2005; Lipsey and Wilson, 1998; Lowenkamp et al., 2006b; Lösel 1995, 2012; Lösel and Schmucker 2005; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Ugwudike et al., 2017; McGuire 2002; MacKenzie, 2000; 2006; Tong and Farrington, 2006; Vieira et al., 2009). However, there are still issues with the conceptualisation and implementation of the RNR model (Luong and Wormith, 2011; McNeill, 2012; Polaschek, 2012; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Polaschek has further criticised the RNR model for not being 'fully developed' theoretically (2012: 5). This pertains to the level of theory the RNR model meets. Polaschek's (2012) evaluation of the RNR model utilised Ward and Hudson's (1998) meta-theoretical framework for assessing levels of theory regarding their depth, scope and comprehensiveness. In Ward and Hudson's (1998) framework, theories are ascribed to the following levels:

Theories in the top tier – Level I – are global and multi-factorial. They leave unspecified important details about the inner workings of the phenomenon they seek to explain. Level II theories instead deal with a single aetiological factor: specifying mechanisms, and describing how the factor interacts with other factors. Finally, Level III theories are local theories of the offence process itself

(Polaschek, 2012: 5).

Polaschek contends that the RNR model does not meet the level I theory. This is because it has not been developed enough to encompass theory and real-world application. The RNR has been criticised for having ‘limited explanatory depth’ (Polaschek, 2012: 8). The RNR model would not meet level II theory due to its lack of explanation, which inhibits its implementation into practice. Polaschek advocates that ‘unrealistic expectations and mistranslations of the model into practice are contributing to concerns about its validity and utility’ (2012: 2) (implementation issues are discussed in greater detail in Chapter Three). However, other models of supervision have not been coherently explained, subject to robust empirical enquiry, comprehensively translated into practice principles for criminal justice practitioners or implemented effectively (Andrews et al., 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Herzog-Evans, 2017). The empirical support of the other models of supervision pales in comparison to RNR (Andrews and Bonta, 2017; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Lipsey, 2009; Polaschek, 2012). Therefore, it would be illogical to disregard the RNR model entirely, and as the idiomatic saying goes ‘throw the baby out with the bathwater’. While this thesis does acknowledge the limited explanatory depth of the RNR model, it recognises its ‘empirical validity’, ‘practical utility’ and ‘unifying power and external consistency’ (Polaschek, 2012: 1, 6).

Essentially, the RNR model provides a framework that offers broad principles of EBPs. It would be unrealistic and unreasonable to expect the model to encompass every element of effective practice for a diverse range of offending populations and account for the aetiological understanding of offending for every individual. It is important to remember that the RNR model does recognise the importance of responding to the specific needs of individuals (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta

and Andrews, 2017). However, the expectations are on the criminal justice agencies and practitioners to adapt service delivery to the individual. In that sense, the RNR model can help to translate theory into a framework for service delivery. Due to its broad framework and continual reconstruction, the model can be applied and adapted to meet the needs of youth offending. The viability of its application in the youth justice system may partly depend on how the model is explained and how it can be translated into real-world practices. Further explanation of the RNR model can help to address its criticisms. Herzog-Evans contends that critics of the RNR model tend:

To focus mainly on one dimension or another (for example, desistance: social work), it follows that most of them miss important components, under theorise others, or become entangled in conceptual contradictions, whereas should they draw on one another, they would, to a degree, be able to complement their respective models

(2017: 100).

The academic dispute surrounding the varying models of offender supervision, including the CFOS approach, has only served to muddy the waters and cause confusion for practitioners. Herzog-Evans can be seen as a more neutral commentator in the RNR debate (criticisms of the models of supervisions often come from academics in competing camps) and has addressed the criticism and countercriticism comprehensively. As such, the criticisms and limitations of the RNR model can, to some extent, be bridged by utilising an integrated approach (Herzog-Evans, 2017). It is essential to acknowledge that theories of rehabilitation such as the RNR model 'are not aetiological or explanatory theories in the usual sense, but hybrids that bring together theoretical and other resources needed for treatment... their main purpose is application, rather than knowledge generation for its own sake' (Polaschek, 2012: 6). In line with an integrated approach, the theoretical and empirical base of the RNR model can be broadened to develop a youth-specific model. To concur with Herzog-Evans:

Until a radically different approach can revolutionise treatment, it is unreasonable to opt for homoeopathy or witchcraft, and it is preferable to try to gain additional effect by adding or adjusting components and by borrowing from other approaches and fields in order to improve fidelity with RNR-based structured treatment and offender compliance

(2017: 101).

The following sections examine the key criticisms and evidence of the core RNR principles. It discusses how the RNR model can be broadened to incorporate youth-specific evidence, which can help to explain the model more clearly and enhance its applicability for youth justice settings in Wales. The main points that arise are the need to: explain the RNR principles more profoundly and in the context of youth justice, understand the interconnectivity of the principles in order to ensure that they are used in unification, place greater emphasis on addressing non-criminogenic needs and not just criminogenic needs, incorporate strengths-based approaches and children's rights. Utilising an integrated approach is not without its difficulties as conceptual differences and tension arise from drawing on different theoretical perspectives and approaches. These are discussed throughout this chapter, but it is beyond the scope of this thesis to address all of these comprehensively. Rather than getting caught up in 'conceptual contradictions', there is an emphasis on taking a pragmatic approach to understand how RNR can be better explained and implemented into practice (see also Polaschek, 2012). As such, an integrated model can help to develop our understanding of effective supervision skills and practices with young people (Herzog-Evans, 2017).

2.1.1 The Human Service Principle

The human service principle is an important starting point for examining the suitability and applicability of the RNR model for youth justice. There is a commonality between key approaches to responding youth offending that pertain to the emphasis of supporting individuals to lead pro-social lives (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; McNeill et al., 2012; Haines and Case, 2015; Ward and Maruna, 2007). However, the RNR model is often criticised for being 'punitive', particularly for its support of the use of actuarial risk/need assessment tools (Herzog-Evans, 2017; Ward and Maruna, 2007). However, this is a misconception of the model, as it condemns punitive approaches (Andrews et al., 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Robinson and Crow, 2009; Polaschek, 2012). Essentially, the human service principle advocates that punitive interventions are ineffective; punishment alone will not effectively change offending behaviour (Andrews et al., 1990; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Bales and Piquero, 2012; Cochran et al., 2013;

Cullen et al., 2011; Dowden and Andrews, 1999a; 1999b; Lipsey, 1992; 2009; Lipsey and Wilson, 1998; Lowenkamp et al., 2010; Redondo et al., 2002). In order to effectively change behaviour, it is more efficient to intervene at a therapeutic, ethical and human-centred level (Bonta and Andrews, 2017).

Findings from Andrews et al.'s (1990) seminal meta-analysis revealed that programmes that only provided criminal justice sanctions increased recidivism by 2%. Programmes that provided some form of human-centred services were found to reduce recidivism by 13% (Andrews and Bonta, 1998). Lipsey's (1992) review of 443 youth justice-based studies revealed interventions based on punishment and/or deterrence or interventions that did not appropriately target criminogenic behaviours increased recidivism. In contrast, interventions that provided services to young people based on the human service principle demonstrated reductions in recidivism (Lipsey, 1992). However, these reductions were variable; similar interventions demonstrated reductions, increases or null effects. This indicates that perhaps there are other factors that can affect the outcomes of interventions (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). Therefore, it is essential to remember that the RNR model needs to be delivered as a unified approach. Applying individual principles limits its effectiveness and undermines the integrity of the model. Lipsey and Wilson's (1998) meta-analysis also revealed that programmes that did not deliver therapeutic services to 'serious' young offenders either had no effect or increased recidivism, whereas human service interventions reduced recidivism by 10-14%. Additionally, Dowden and Andrews (1999a) study also identified that programmes underpinned by the human service principles also yielded reductions in recidivism for young offenders. While programmes delivering punitive based interventions increased recidivism. A meta-analysis of European based programmes also demonstrate support for the human service principle in reducing recidivism (Redondo et al., 1999). Delivering interventions at a human-centred level can also help to foster positive relationships between practitioners and service users which can help to reduce re-offending (Raynor et al., 2014; Robinson et al., 2012; Trotter, 2013). The importance of developing positive relationship with young people is supported across different approaches to working with young people (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and

Andrews, 2017; Burnett and McNeill, 2005; Creaney, 2014a; 2014b; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Haines and Case, 2015; McNeill, 2006a; McNeill et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2018; Trotter, 2009; 2015; 2016). Developing positive relationships is also an integral aspect of the specific responsivity principle, which is explored in greater detail on pages 57-71.

It is also important to acknowledge that the RNR model (principle one, see Table 3) supports the respect for 'personal autonomy, being humane, [and] ethical' (Bonta and Andrews, 2017: 176). This also coincides with the GLM and desistance theories that recognise the importance of autonomy and respect of individuals (Farrall, 2002; Farrall et al., 2014; Herzog-Evans, 2017; King, 2014; Maruna, 2001; McNeill, 2006b; Ugwu-dike, 2016; Ward and Fortune 2013; Ward and Maruna, 2007). Engaging with individuals to ensure that they are able to contribute and participate in decision-making processes is key to reducing re-offending and also aligns with Article 12 of the UNCRC (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Haines and Case, 2015; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2015; Ward and Fortune 2013; Ugwu-dike, 2016). Engagement and participation are vital in order to provide individuals with meaningful opportunities to inform the terms and goals of their interventions (see Ugwu-dike, 2016). Participatory supervision can help to strengthen an individual's agency and engagement with service delivery (Farrall, 2002; Farrall et al., 2014; McMurrin and Ward, 2004, 2010; Maruna and LeBel, 201; Rudduck and McIntyre, 2007; Smith et al., 2012; Trotter, 2015; Ugwu-dike, 2016; Ward and Fortune, 2013; Williams et al., 2018). This approach is underpinned by working with offenders, and not on them (McCulloch, 2005; McNeill, 2006b; McNeill et al., 2012; Raynor, 2004; Trotter, 2015; Ugwu-dike, 2016). Raynor (2004) advocates, offender supervision should be a collaborative process between the 'offender' and supervisor; where pro-social change is facilitated and not coerced (see also Rex, 1999; Trotter, 2015). Collaborative supervision can help to improve adherence to the specific responsivity principle (Raynor, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2013b; 2016).

The human service principle complements the CFOS ethos rather than conflicts with it. As discussed in Chapter One (see pages 14-20), social policy and youth justice in Wales is underpinned by the tenets of the UNCRC (1989). A CFOS ethos resonates throughout to youth justice approaches (see WG/YJB, 2014; Haines and Case, 2015). The CFOS ethos places further emphasis on the 'child' status of young people who offend (see Haines and Case, 2015). The incorporation of children's rights into the human service principles can help to alleviate any misconceptions of the RNR model being incompatible with rights and welfare-based practices. The human service principle should and can support adherence to the UNCRC (1989). Articles 1, 2, 3 and 12 are of particular importance. Article 1 advocates that all children under 18 years-old are entitled to their rights as outlined by UNCRC (1989), Article 2 states that no child should be discriminated against on any basis, Article 3 states that the best interests of the child should inform all decisions that affect their lives and Article 12 states that children have a right to participate in decisions that affect their lives. Adherence to these articles can help to prevent punitive and stigmatising practices and can help to decrease the likelihood of future offending (McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; Haines and Case, 2015).

The interconnectivity of the principles are illustrated further with the RNR model also advocating for support to be provided in community-based settings as opposed to institutional settings (e.g. prison) (see Table 3, principle 13). This further coincides with the human service principles and also the CFOS policy and practice context of using custody as a last resort (WG/YJB, 2014). The focus on minimising the use of custody mainly stems from the criticism of the UK's historical zealous use of custody (UK Children's Commissioners, 2008; 2015; Bateman, 2011a; 2016; Goldson, 2015). The detrimental effect of unnecessary system contact and particularly the use of punitive approaches such as imprisonment are well documented (McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; Lipsey, 2009). As such, intervening at a human-centred level can reduce re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). The emphasis that the RNR model places on community-based interventions may offer further impetus to provide universal support services for young people instead of support that is contingent on

their 'offender' status. This can help to avoid stigmatisation (also in line with Article 2 and 3 of the UNCRC (1989)).

Initially, the purpose YOSs were to provide specialist and mainstream services to young people who had offended in order to facilitate the integration or re-integration of these marginalised young people into the community. However, Gray (2005a) notes that the unique structural differences of YOSs set young people apart from their 'law-abiding' peers. Indeed, it is the young person's status as an 'offender' which enables them to access these services. Many argue that this approach fails to address the social and structural issues that influence young peoples' offending behaviour and focuses on individual 'faults' or 'deficits' of young people (Case and Haines, 2009b; Haines and Case, 2015; Gray 2007; Smith, 2014a). Indeed, Yates (2010) notes that children who are dealt with by the youth justice system are 'disproportionately drawn from working-class backgrounds with biographies replete with examples of... vulnerability'. White and Cunneen (2015) argue that the youth justice system consists of a 'series of tiers' that tend to deal with the most disadvantaged children, whose circumstances are entrenched in 'economic adversity'. Children who are raised in poverty are at a greater risk of experiencing criminal activity as part of their 'normalised' everyday life and as such may be more likely to engage in criminal activity (White and Cunneen, 2015). Griggs and Walker (2008) highlight that neighbourhoods with low socio-economic statuses are also characterised by higher rates of anti-social behaviour, victimisation and crime. Pitts (2001a) terms this as the process of 'aetiological narrowing'. Children who have experienced socio-economic disadvantages are seen to be solely responsible for their behaviours (Haines and Case, 2015; Pitts, 2001a). The emphasis is placed on primarily addressing the offending behaviour of young people. As such, this diverts attention away from the adverse environments that young people experience, which is largely out of their control (Allen, 2007; Case and Haines, 2014; Pitts, 2007). This makes it challenging to build the social capital of young people, which can help to reduce re-offending (McNeill et al., 2012; Williams, 2018). Providing universal support services also coincides with Taylor's (2016) recommendations for more service integration (see also Case and Haines, 2018). In order for universal services

to become a reality in practice, there needs to be a significant shift in legislation and policy at central Government level (McNeill, 2012; Williams, 2018). This would require a commitment from the Government to develop evidence-based policies and adequately resource services. The implementation of this could be time-consuming and costly but could result in long term savings and positive outcomes. Indeed, Romain et al. (2012) reveal that adherence to the RNR principles can reduce financial costs for services.

2.1.2 The Responsivity Principle

In its simplest terms, the responsivity principle comprises two dimensions; general and specific. Underpinning the general responsivity principle is the notion that behavioural, cognitive and social learning approaches are the most effective mode of service delivery to reduce re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2007; Bonta et al., 2008; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010). Cognitive, behavioural, social learning modalities incorporate two fundamental principles; relationship (importance of the practitioner developing excellent working relationships with the young people) and structuring (using relevant skills and practices to help the young people to learn how best to develop pro-social attitudes and behaviours) (Andrews et al., 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 2004). The specific responsivity principle states that interventions should be individualised to match the style and mode of the offender's learning style and ability. Interventions should correspond with the individual's personality and bio-social characteristics including gender, ethnicity and age (see Andrews, 2006; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017).

The general responsivity principle is rooted in cognitive, behavioural, social learning theories (see Akers, 1998; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bandura, 1977; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Gendreau, 1996; Gendreau et al., 1996; Haynie, 2002; Pavlov, 1927; Skinner, 1953; 1966; Sutherland's, 1947; Sutherland and Cressey, 1970; Trotter, 2009; Trotter and Evans, 2012). It is widely acknowledged that social, cognitive behavioural approaches are valid approaches and are theoretically and

practically diverse, and empirically rich (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Youngs et al., 2003; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014). The basic premise of cognitive, behavioural and social learning theories is behaviour is learned (Jones, 2017; Newburn, 2017; Williams, 2012; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). As such, cognitive, behavioural, social learning approaches are recognised for being the most effective way to encourage people to learn new behaviours (Adler et al., 2016; Bonta and Andrews, 2007; 2017; Lipsey et al., 2007; Lipsey, 2009; Redondo et al., 1999). Wikstrom and Treiber note:

Cognitive behavioural interventions can affect many different areas of cognition and behaviour, as they target, for example, emotional characteristics of behaviour, decision-making processes or the application of cognitive activity to behaviour
(2008: 27).

Several studies highlight the efficacy of cognitive, behavioural, social learning approaches across a range of offending populations including violent offenders, female offenders, sex offenders and young offenders (Andrews et al., 1990; Dowden and Andrews, 1999a; 2000; Gallagher et al., 1999; Moster et al., 2008; Hollin et al., 2013; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey and Wilson, 1998; Lipsey et al., 2007; McGuire, 2002; 2008; McGuire et al., 2008; Willson et al., 2000). Wilson et al.'s (2000) study revealed that all but two of the cognitive behavioural programmes reviewed in their study demonstrated a reduction in offending behaviour. Additionally, Lipsey et al. (2001) found that only one of the cognitive-behavioural programmes reviewed in their study failed to reduce re-offending. Mayer et al.'s (1986) review of programmes solely based on social learning theory found that these programmes were able to reduce recidivism significantly. Findings from a meta-analysis study also revealed programmes based on cognitive-behavioural, social learning approaches are associated with a 23 percentage-point reduction in recidivism (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a). In contrast, non-adherence to the general responsivity principle yielded a four percentage-point reduction in recidivism (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a). Redondo et al.'s meta-analysis of UK and European based interventions revealed 'the most effective programmes are based on behavioural and cognitive-behavioural theoretical models' (1999: 273).

In relation to youth justice, meta-analytic reviews reveal interventions based on cognitive-behavioural approaches are cost-effective and can help to reduce rates of re-offending by up to 25% (Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al. 1999; Lipsey et al., 2010; McGlynn et al. 2013; Izzo and Ross 1990). Garrett (1985) review of 126 studies on interventions for young offenders highlighted that behavioural based programmes, compared to psychodynamic, life skills-based, and 'other' programmes were the most effective in reducing recidivism. More recently, Lipsey's (2009) meta-analyses of 548 youth-based interventions also revealed that cognitive-behavioural programmes were the most successful in reducing the recidivism. Additionally, behavioural based programmes were identified as the second most effective way to reduce recidivism. Lipsey (2009) also identified programmes that focused on therapeutic work; skills-building; maintained adequate levels of programme integrity produced more significant reductions in recidivism compared with those that focused on punitive and deterrent approaches. As previously noted, the latter tend to increase recidivism (Lipsey, 2009).

Koehler et al.'s (2013) meta-analyses of programmes for young offenders in Europe (two-thirds of the studies were British) found that behavioural and cognitive-behavioural methods were the most effective in reducing re-offending. Programmes that adhered to the RNR principles produced a 'reduction of 16% in re-offending against a baseline of 50%' (Koehler, 2013: 19). Indeed, programmes that were delivered with a 'high' level of practice integrity (close adherence to the RNR principles) revealed significant positive outcomes. Programmes with 'low' practice integrity yielded limited positive results. Additionally, programmes that were conducted in community settings significantly reduced recidivism (Koehler et al., 2013). In contrast, interventions purely underpinned by punitive and deterrent approaches demonstrated slightly negative outcomes. Within England and Wales, Cann et al.'s (2003) evaluation of cognitive skills programmes for young male offenders found that those who completed the programmes obtained lower rates of recidivism (31.4%) compared with those who did not undertake the programmes (35.5%). Although the results from this study are modest, they were statistically

significant, particularly for individuals who were assessed as high risk of re-offending. Those assessed as higher risk also achieved statistically significant reductions in their rates of re-offending (Cann et al., 2003).

Despite solid empirical support for the efficacy of cognitive, behavioural, social learning approaches, the RNR model is often criticised for representing a 'one size fits all' approach to offender rehabilitation (Ward and Maruna, 2007: 23, see also McNeill, 2012; Polaschek, 2012). Some have criticised the use of cognitive behavioural approaches as inappropriate interventions with young people (Creaney, 2014b; Haines and Case, 2015). However, their effectiveness is often dependent on how they are delivered (Helmond et al., 2014a; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Gannon and Ward (2014) note that cognitive-behavioural approaches need to be delivered by a well-trained psychologist with significant experience. The emerging ECM initiative in Wales recognises that cognitive-behavioural approaches are suitable modes of intervention but must be delivered in accordance with the child's developmental stage (Skuse and Matthews, 2015). Accommodating the developmental stage of young people coincides with the specific responsivity principle but perhaps has not been explained so explicitly. Essentially, the responsivity principle has been reduced to 'employ[ing] social learning and cognitive-behavioural strategies' (McNeill, 2012: 5). This misconception further heightens the criticisms that the RNR model does not allow for individualised interventions (Ward and Maruna, 2007). However, this is a complete contradiction of the responsivity principle. RNR proponents would vehemently refute using a one size fits all approach. The RNR model places emphasis on the importance of understanding and responding to individual differences (Andrews et al., 1990; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2007; 2017; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Looman and Abracen, 2013; Ogloff and Davis, 2004; Taxman, 2014). The specific responsivity principle addresses the very issue of how best to tailor and adapt practices to suit the individual characteristics and needs of service users (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Polaschek, 2012; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Taxman, 2014). Bonta and Andrews (2017) acknowledge that developmental issues need to be considered when working with young people, but they have not adequately

theorised or explained this (see Table 3). Understanding and integrating a broader theoretical and empirical base surrounding child development can help to ensure that the responsivity principle is applied appropriately in youth justice settings.

Of the three RNR principles, the responsivity principle has received insufficient theorisation and explication. This has resulted in the principle not being implemented as its creators intended (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Polaschek, 2012; McNeill, 2012). The specific responsivity principle is vital in addressing some of the conflicts between the RNR model and alternative approaches. As Polaschek advocates, the responsivity principle 'contains much of what makes the application of the model both humane and effective' (2012: 8). The responsivity principle recognises that individuals need to be appropriately engaged in interventions in order for them to be effective (Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). In order to expand the explanatory depth of the specific responsivity, it is crucial to examine it from two key perspectives: the service user's characteristics and the practitioners' skills. Bourgon and Bonta provide further explanatory depth and advocate that the responsivity principle requires two general considerations:

1. Know the client's attributes that limit and/or facilitate the client's learning style. These are bio/psycho/social factors. Examples of biological factors are race, age/interpersonal maturity and gender. Psychological factors may include intelligence, personality (e.g., impulsive; interpersonally insensitive), emotions (e.g., anxious) and poor motivation. Examples of social factors are poverty and culture. Some client attributes may be a mix of factors (e.g., a client from a racial minority has biological factors operating and perhaps social factors in the case of minorities living in poverty).
2. Create an optimal environment conducive to learning. Learning in this context is very broad; it is the acquisition of knowledge and skills. To create such an environment, the first requirement is for the service provider to understand what client characteristics can affect his/her ability to learn. Next, the service provider creates the environment through their skills, language, and intervention activities that encourages client engagement in the learning activities and promotes efficient and effective client learning of what is being taught

(2014: 5).

Herzog-Evans (2017) also recognises the need to examine these two distinct aspects of specific responsivity and refers to the focus on service user characteristics as 'intrinsic responsivity' and practitioner's skills and 'extrinsic responsivity'. When considering intrinsic responsivity (and responding to young people in general), it is vital to acknowledge that young people are children and not mini-adults (Haines and Case, 2015; Steinberg, 2004). There are stark developmental differences between children and adults and within children (Bateman, 2012; Erickson et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2009; Steinburg et al., 2015; Walsh, 2011). The developmental differences between children can be broadly understood as their level of maturity. The concept of maturity has been a 'remarkably elusive and ill-defined construct among legal scholars and social scientists' (Steinberg and Cauffman 1996: 251). However, put simply, maturity can be understood as a developmental concept, which includes physical, intellectual, emotional and social development. Emotional and social development are the two key concepts that provide greater insight into why young people offend and how the youth justice system should respond to key developmental factors that affect young people.

Neuroscientific studies have revealed that the human brain does not fully mature until around the age of twenty-five (Erickson et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2009; Spear, 2009). Studies reveal that the higher executive functions of the brain (i.e. planning, verbal memory and impulse control) are 'among the last areas of the brain to mature; they may not be fully developed until halfway through the third decade of life' (Johnson et al., 2009: 216). Essentially, this can affect a young person's ability to make rational decisions about engaging in offender behaviour/activities (see Spear, 2009; Monahan et al., 2015). Studies reveal that the physiological changes that take place within the brain during adolescence lead to a decrease in reasoned thinking (Bateman, 2012; Johnson et al., 2009; Sebastian et al., 2010; Sowell et al., 2002; Spear, 2009). These changes also increase impulsivity and risk-taking behaviour and are considered a 'normal' aspect of adolescence (Sebastian et al., 2010).

It is also important to acknowledge that adverse environments and experiences can also inhibit brain development and the child's general development (Johnson et al., 2009; Bellis et al., 2015). According to Bellis et al., ACEs are defined as 'chronic stressful experiences in childhood [that] can set individuals on a health-harming life course' (2015: 5). ACEs range from suffering verbal, mental, sexual, physical abuse, to being raised in a household where domestic violence, alcohol abuse, parental separation or drug abuse is present. Bellis et al. (2015) advocate that these detrimental experiences can have negative effects on individuals throughout their adult life. Children who experience greater exposure to ACEs are more likely to develop harmful behaviours such as smoking, binge drinking, drug use, which can lead to premature, ill-health. Bellis et al.'s (2015) study revealed that exposure to ACEs in early childhood can accelerate young people's involvement in the criminal justice system. Results from Bellis et al.'s study revealed adults who experienced four or more ACEs in childhood were '20 times more likely to have been incarcerated at any point in their lifetime' (2015: 5). The study also revealed that within Wales, one in every seven adults between the ages of 18 and 69 years old had experienced four or more ACEs and just under 50% had experienced at least one (Bellis et al., 2015). The presence of adverse environments further draws attention to the need to develop social capital for young people to address factors in their lives that are often out of their control (Barry, 2010; McNeill et al., 2012)

From a psychological perspective, most young people stop offending due to psychosocial maturation (Cauffman and Steinberg, 2000; Steinburg and Cauffman, 1996; Monahan et al., 2009; Steinburg et al., 2015). Cauffman and Steinburg (2000) advocate that psychological development differentiates young people from adults, and this is primarily linked to emotional and social development. Psychological research makes a clear distinction between cognitive maturity and psychosocial maturity. Cognitive maturity refers to an individual's 'capacity for thinking, reasoning, and understanding', and the latter refers to 'aspects of development and behaviour that involve personality traits, interpersonal relations and affective experience' (Steinberg and Cauffman 1996: 250). Cauffman and Steinburg (2000) argue that young people take longer to mature psychosocially than cognitively. As a result,

many psychologists also view youth offending as a normal consequence of 'growing up', which is associated with a lack of social, emotional and intellectual development or maturation (Steinburg et al., 2015). As Steinburg et al. note, 'psychological development is far from over at the age of 18' (2015: 8). Steinburg et al. (2015) advocate that cognitive, behavioural and social learning approaches are an effective way of helping young people to develop their psychological maturity, which coincides with the general responsivity principle.

Several differing theoretical perspectives concur that offending is a normal part of adolescence and this has further implications for legal responses and the conceptualisation of the risk principle which are discussed in greater detail on pages 71-84 (Cappi and Moffitt, 1995; Cauffman and Steinberg, 2000; Farrington and Ttofi, 2016; McVie, 2009; Newburn, 2017; Sampson and Laub, 2009; Smith, 2007; Steinburg et al., 2015; Walsh, 2011). In light of insight from a child development perspective, social learning and cognitive-behavioural approaches must be delivered in a manner that is appropriate to the individual (the specific responsivity principle). Criticisms of cognitive-behavioural approaches (the general responsivity principle) do not necessarily reflect deficits with the general responsivity principle but rather with the way these approaches are implemented in practice. For example, if a practitioner used a general anger management cognitive-behavioural programme with a young person, it is unlikely that the intervention would be effective as there is no understanding of the young person's developmental stage and motivation to engage. A vital aspect of the specific responsivity principle is the emphasis on addressing individual barriers to learning, motivation and engagement (Bonta and Andrews 2007; 2017; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014). Furthermore, employing cognitive, behavioural and social learning approaches does not merely mean that practitioners should use manualised cognitive-behavioural programmes. These approaches can be used in varied interactions with young people (Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015 Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). Cognitive, behavioural and social learning approaches underpin evidence-based supervision skills (core correctional practices) (see Tables 4 and 5). Supervision skills are the skills that practitioners should employ when working with

young people in order to increase their engagement, motivation and decrease their likelihood of future re-offending (Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 202; Trotter et al., 2015; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017). Utilising supervision skills can increase adherence to the responsivity principle (Raynor et al., 2014; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017).

The current age of criminal responsibility in England and Wales is a concern that needs to be addressed in light of the developmental changes that occur during adolescence. Legal reform coincides with Herzog-Evans (2017) conceptualisation of an extrinsic responsive legal system that includes 'good laws' (normative legitimacy with a focus on human rights and the prohibition of retrospective punitive laws) (see also Williams, 2018). An integrated approach may help to drive legal reform and limit punitive responses, which is consistent with the CFOS ethos in Wales. Presently, the age of criminal responsibility in England and Wales is one of the lowest in the western world (10 years old) (Goldson, 2013; Allen, 2006). Section 34 of the 1998 CDA saw the removal of *doli incapax*, which, as a result, deems children aged ten and above criminally responsible (Bateman, 2012). The Westminster Government presume that children as young as ten understand the implications and consequences of their actions and as such, should be responsible for them (Goldson, 2013). However, as the aforementioned studies highlight, this is not the case. Biologically, neurologically, emotionally, socially, and psychologically children have not fully matured (Bateman, 2012; Johnson et al., 2009; Steinburg et al., 2015; Walsh, 2011). The UN Committee recently revised their General Comment No.10 (now General Comment 24) to set out that the absolute minimum age of criminal responsibility should be 14 years old (UNCRC, 2018). The UNCRC (2018) have also commended States that have a higher minimum age of 15 or 16 years old. The age of criminal responsibility is unusually low in England and Wales when considering the legal age of other activities (buying and consuming alcohol and cigarettes (18 years old), sexual consent (16 years old), marriage (18 years old or 16 years old with consent from parents), joining the armed forces (16 years old)) (see also Bateman, 2012). As such, it would be reasonable to suggest that the age of criminal

responsibility should be increased to 16 or 18 in Wales, particularly given its CFOS context. Increasing the age of criminal responsibility would still make it possible to intervene and provide support to address the criminal behaviour of young people (Williams, 2018). The delivery of this support could be undertaken within a universal support approach (which also coincides with *Extending Entitlement* – see pages 18-19) and would help to minimise the effects of labelling.

Returning to the concept of intrinsic responsivity, desistance theories also recognise that interventions should be individualised to the characteristics of service users (Maruna, 2001; Weaver and McNeill, 2010; McNeill et al., 2012). A key aspect of matching interventions to the individual's characteristics and abilities involves assessments of such things as depression, anxiety, learning style, conceptual level, diversity issues, psychopathy and motivation (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014). An important responsivity factor, which has also become a practice priority in England and Wales, is the speech, language and communication needs (SLCN) of young people (YJB, 2015). Research suggests that at least 60% of the young people in the youth justice system have SLCN (within the general population between 5-14% of young people have SLCN (Larson and McKinley 1995; McLeod and McKinnon 2007)) (Bercow, 2008; Bryan et al., 2015; Bryan et al., 2007; Gregory and Bryan, 2011). However, the SLCN difficulties of young people in the youth justice system often go unrecognised (Bryan et al., 2015). The Bercow Report (2008) was fundamental in highlighting the difficulties that young with SLCN face. Bercow notes that SLCN 'encompasses a wide range of difficulties related to all aspects of communication in children and young people. These can include difficulties with fluency, forming sounds and words, formulating sentences, understanding what others say, and using language socially' (2008: 13). Essentially, young people in the criminal justice system with SLCN often have difficulties communicating effectively with youth justice practitioners and understanding practitioners (YJB, 2015; Bryan et al., 2015). This can result in young people confusing times and dates, not following instructions, becoming frustrated and angry when others do not understand them, and breaching their orders (The Communication Trust, 2015; Bryan et al., 2015; Hart, 2010). Hart's (2010) study

suggests that young people may breach their orders as they do not understand the requirements of compliance. The Bercow report highlights the difficulties for young people responding to interventions as being 'sufficient to affect their ability to communicate with staff on a day-to-day basis, to prevent them from benefiting from verbally mediated interventions such as education and offender behaviour work and, if not addressed, to contribute to reoffending' (Bercow, 2008:41). Therefore, practitioners must be able to identify and adapt their practices to accommodate the SLCN of young people to improve compliance and engagement (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; YJB, 2015; Bryan et al., 2015).

It is also important to point out that motivation is a key concept that has been under-theorised within the RNR framework (Herzog-Evans, 2017). Understanding what motivates young people to engage in interventions and change behaviour is a complex process (Williams et al., 2018). The therapeutic relationship between young people and practitioners is an essential element of motivating young people to engage in interventions (Mason and Prior, 2008; Williams et al., 2018; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014). Mason and Prior advocate that 'supportive, engaging relationships develop motivation for change in both compulsory and voluntary settings' (2008: 44). Therefore, addressing responsivity factors is often dependent on the skills of the practitioners (extrinsic responsivity) (Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Herzog-Evans, 2017). While the characteristic of young people provides context, the focus of the responsivity principle is about accommodating these characteristics (Bourgon and Bonta, 2014). Luong and Wormith's (2011) study revealed that responsivity factors were not assessed or identified for 80% of the participating young people in their study. The lack of identification of responsivity factors further draws attention to the issues with implementing theory into practice. Taxman (2014) highlights the importance of organisational structures for promoting adherence to the responsivity principle. McGuire (2004) also notes the importance of managers ensuring that adequate resources are in place, including appropriately selected and trained staff, who also receive clinical supervision to ensure that they adhere to the specific responsivity

principle. To this end, Taxman (2014) advocates that staff must be adequately resourced in order to be able to implement and adhere to the responsivity principle.

Responsivity and Practitioners' Skills

Historically, the skills of practitioners have been overlooked, in more recent years there has been burgeoning empirical insight into the area of core correctional practices (also known as supervision skills) (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Bonta et al., 2011; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor, 2014; Trotter, 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). Dowden and Andrews point out:

Despite these impressive findings regarding what program characteristics are most effective for offenders, very little research has focused upon the characteristics of effective staff practice to use in the delivery of these interventions

(2004: 204).

Part of providing individualised interventions depends on the practitioners' skills (extrinsic responsivity) (Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Raynor et al., 2014). There is commonality between varying models of intervention in that they concur that the relationship between the practitioner and service user is integral to reducing re-offending (see Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Burnett and McNeill, 2005; Creaney, 2014b; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Haines and Case, 2015; Johns et al., 2017; McNeill, 2006a; McNeill and Batchelor, 2002; McNeill et al., 2012; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 1996; 2013a; 2013b; 2015; Williams et al., 2018). Subsequent research on CCPs (supervisions skills), which stem from the RNR model, provide the most concrete guidance on what constitutes as good relationships skills and how these can be implemented in practice. Studies suggest that the use of supervision skills can facilitate adherence to the specific responsivity principle, reduce attrition and recidivism (Bonta et al. 2011; 2017; Chadwick et al. 2015; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2010; 2014; Robinson et al., 2011; Taxman 2008; 2014; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). Andrews and Bonta (2010a) outline two 'fundamental dimensions of interpersonal exchanges' that underpin responsivity practice: the relationship principle and the structuring principle. CCPs include the following skills:

- Effective use of authority
- Anti-criminal modelling and reinforcement (also known as pro-social modelling)
- Problem-solving
- Structured learning procedures for skill building
- Use of community resources
- Quality of interpersonal relationships

(See Andrews and Kiessling 1980; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2015; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; Vanstone and Raynor, 2012). Table 4 provides an overview of CCPs.

Table 4. Core Correctional Practices (Supervisions Skills)

Core Correctional Practices	Examples in Practice
Effective use of authority	Practitioners can demonstrate effective use of authority by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focusing their activities on the young person’s behaviour and not on the person exhibiting the behaviour; • Putting direct and specific demands to the young person and not using raised voices; • Providing effective role/rule clarification and clearly communicating to the young person the consequences of non- compliance with formal rules; • Rewarding good compliance with praise and other positive incentives; • Encouraging the young person; • Supporting their words with action; • Being ‘firm but fair’ by maintaining appropriate boundaries while attempting to develop good working relationships based on respect and a child-centred supervision approach.
Anti-criminal modelling and	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Involves modelling pro-social attitudes and behaviour,

<p>reinforcement (also known as pro-social modelling)</p>	<p>using structured procedures for skills building, using positive reinforcements such as praise and reward, and using negative reinforcements that help service users avoid criminogenic situations to ensure they continue to exhibit the desired behaviour, challenging by showing disapproval in a non-blaming way, and showing approval once the service user starts to demonstrate the desired behaviour.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Essentially, pro-social modelling refers to: ‘the way in which probation officers, or others who work with involuntary clients, model pro-social values and behaviours in their interactions with clients. The term is however often interpreted more broadly to include a group of skills which include supervisors modelling pro-social values, reinforcing client’s pro-social expressions and actions and negatively reinforcing or confronting pro-criminal actions and expressions of those clients. The term pro-social practice or pro-social model is also often used by practitioners to describe a still broader approach to the supervision of offenders which includes collaborative problem solving and role clarification’ (Trotter 2009: 142). Pro-social modelling involves the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Keeping appointments; ○ Being punctual, honest and reliable; ○ Following up on tasks; ○ Respecting other people's feelings; ○ Expressing views about the negative effects of criminal behaviour; ○ Expressing views about the value of social pursuits such as non-criminal friends; ○ Promoting good family relations and the value of work; ○ Interpreting people’s motives positively, e.g. ‘most police are people trying to do a job, and
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	<p>they have similar needs to most of us' rather than 'all police are pigs'. It involves being open about problems the worker may have had, which are similar to the young peoples', e.g. 'I spent a period of time unemployed at one time and I found it depressing'. It also involves being optimistic about the rewards which can be obtained by living within the law' (Trotter 2009:144).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effective reinforcement involves showing approval for the behaviour/speech exhibited by the young people, immediately informing the young people why the approval has been offered (why the practitioner likes the behaviour the person has just exhibited). The practitioner should provide specific reasons why he/she likes the behaviour or why the young person's behaviour/speech deserves approval. Practitioners should also ensure that the reward offered in response to the young person's behaviour is given greater emphasis to distinguish it from the support offered typically. Effective reinforcement can be demonstrated through body language: smiling; attentive listening and leaning forward. It can also be in the form of praise, attending court with the young people and giving positive evidence and other positive forms of support. These rewards should be linked to the behaviour being rewarded (Trotter, 2009; 2013a; 2013b). • Effective disapproval is the process through which practitioners challenge young people's anti-social behaviours/attitudes/speech by immediately informing the young person why he/she did not like the type of behaviour the young person exhibited; explaining why the behaviour is undesirable; modelling pro-social alternatives to the young person; encouraging the young person to reflect on why the behaviour/speech is undesirable and highlighting the consequences of that
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	<p>behaviour. Practitioners should show approval once the appropriate pro-social behaviour is exhibited (see Trotter et al., 2015).</p>
Problem-solving	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For effective problem solving, staff members should focus on the ABC model (Antecedents, Behaviour and Consequences) (see Gendreau et al., 2010). • The ABC model is a strategy for helping young people to learn the basic components of behaviour: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The first stage of the strategy involves helping the young people to carefully identify the events and conditions that occurred before or triggered the behaviour in question (the antecedents). ○ The next step is to identify and explore with the young people the results of the behaviour in question (the consequences). • Staff members should clarify goals for resolving or preventing future negative consequences (problem-solving should be goal-oriented). • Problem-solving should also involve generating alternative solutions, evaluating options and implementing a plan. • These processes should be collaborative – the young person should be actively involved.
Use of community resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Offering advocacy and brokerage services to help address socioeconomic problems.
Structured learning procedures for skill building	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This is a structured process that helps young people learn new pro-social skills. The structured learning process involves three key stages. First practitioners define the skill to be learned. Then practitioners model the skill for the young people and then staff members

	allow the young people to practice the skill in hypothetical situations (i.e. role-play), which become increasingly difficult to deal with. Practitioners also provide feedback on how well young people are doing.
Quality of interpersonal relationships between staff and client	This refers to the quality of the relationship practitioners build with the young people. Practitioners should be: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • warm, genuine, humorous, enthusiastic, self-confident, empathic, respectful, flexible, committed to helping the client, engaging, mature, or intelligent, being an excellent role player, directive, solution-focused, structured, non-blaming, or contingency-based.

Table 4 is an original compilation based on the evidence from the following studies and draws particularly on Trotter’s work with young people: Andrews and Kiessling 1980; Dowden and Andrews 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; Vanstone and Raynor, 2012. Studies also provide evidence for the effectiveness of two other supervision skills: motivational interviewing and cognitive restructuring (see Table 5 below for an overview):

Table 5. Additional Supervision Skills

Additional Supervision Skills	Examples in Practice
Cognitive Restructuring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This approach guides young people through the process of replacing anti-social thoughts and feelings with pro-social alternatives. It involves working with young people to identify risky thoughts (e.g. through a thinking report). The practitioners should encourage the young person to describe his/her thoughts and feelings and then generate discussions about problematic thoughts, views or beliefs. The objective is to help the young people to identify possible distortions in their thoughts, views or beliefs and

	<p>to encourage them to practice rational alternatives to these (Spiegler and Guevremont, 2010; Gendreau et al., 2010).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This is underpinned by cognitive-behavioural approaches and the idea that our thought patterns can affect our feelings and then our behaviour. Cognitive-behavioural approaches attempt to target and modify distorted thought processes that are linked to deficient problem-solving strategies that can contribute to offending behaviour. Attempts are made to help the individual to develop skills that will help them think differently and exhibit pro-social behaviour when confronted with problematic situations. It incorporates a range of techniques, and young people can be taught the techniques to foster cognitive and behavioural self-change.
<p>Motivational Interviewing</p>	<p>Motivational interviewing incorporates a range of techniques that can be used to elicit the intrinsic motivation of young people to change their behaviour and helps to develop the conceptualisation of motivation within the RNR model. The components of motivational interviewing include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Showing empathy-involves using comments that demonstrate genuine understanding. Comments such as ‘that must have been difficult for you’, demonstrate empathy; • Reflective listening - nodding, paraphrasing and attending to the young people also demonstrate empathy; • Developing discrepancies - involves highlighting the difference between the young person’s ‘current state and desired state’; • Rolling with resistance - entails avoiding arguments by using open questions and reflections - the latter may include making statements that encourage the young people to consider and overcome the distortions, barriers

	<p>and obstacles that impede change. For example, repeating a statement made by the young people can help to demonstrate to that young person the distortion or inconsistency inherent in their views on a particular issue;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing self-efficacy - involves reassuring the young people of their ability to accomplish the tasks necessary for effecting change.
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Table 5 is also an original compilation based on the information drawn from following: Dobson and Dobson, 2018; Ellis, 1962; Miller and Rollnick, 2012).

Supervision Skills in Practice

CCPs can enable staff to overcome barriers that can affect the individuals learning and engagement in interventions (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014). The effective use of CCPs can help prevent attrition and reduce re-offending (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a). Extrinsic responsivity places responsibility on the practitioner to create an 'optimal learning environment for the client; an environment that helps the client to engage and learn through observation, dialogue, interaction, and experience' (Bourgon and Bonta, 2014: 8). The use of relationship skills is important for engaging individuals in interventions. It is key that staff have the suitable personal qualities such as the ability to be 'warm, genuine, humorous, enthusiastic, self-confident, empathic, respectful, flexible, committed to helping the client, engaging, mature, or intelligent' (Dowden and Andrews, 2004: 208). The use of relationship skills also requires communication to be 'directive, solution-focused, structured, non-blaming, or contingency-based' (Dowden and Andrews, 2004: 208-209). Studies have also revealed that prosocial modelling can also contribute to positive outcomes (Trotter, 1996, 2009; 2013a; 2013b). Prosocial modelling is a component of the CCP 'appropriate modelling and reinforcement', which involves modelling pro-social behaviours and attitudes the offender can learn. Pro-social modelling should be implemented using 'structured learning procedures' (see Table 4). Pro-social modelling involves staff defining the prosocial skill to be learned,

modelling the skill, using role-play to demonstrate the skill, and providing feedback to the offender (Dowden and Andrews, 2004). Positive reinforcement is also an important supervision skill. This involves practitioners disapproving pro-criminal behaviours and attitudes and encouraging the service user to consider why the behaviour does not meet the approval of the practitioner, and showing approval once the service user starts to demonstrate prosocial behaviour (Dowden and Andrews 2004; Raynor et al., 2010). The use of prosocial modelling has been identified as an effective skill to improve engagement and compliance (see Gendreau et al., 2010; Ugwudike, 2010; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; 2013b).

The use of the CCP 'effective use of authority' has also been identified as an effective compliance strategy. The use of this skill requires staff to 'firm but fair'; in order to achieve this staff must ensure that there is adequate rule clarification (see Trotter, 1996). However, practitioners should ensure that their approach does not result in 'domination or abuse' (Dowden and Andrews 2004: 204). Studies reveal that supervision approaches that result in domination and abuse are likely to disengage individuals and result in non-compliance (Ugwudike, 2010; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). The CCP 'problem-solving skills' can also be utilised to address factors that are linked to attrition and re-offending. Problem-solving skills requires the practitioner to help the individual to learn how to use pro-social strategies to resolve personal/emotional problems. It also involves helping individuals to address financial problems, accommodation issues and other socioeconomic problems. Essentially, problem-solving skills should be used to help the individuals to address criminogenic factors present in their life such as unemployment, family related problems, poor educational attainment and the negative influence of criminogenic peers (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). However, services also need to address structural adversity (McNeill et al., 2012). The CCP 'use of community resources' is essential in order to ensure that individuals receive support that is catered to their specific needs and builds their social capital (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). This involves staff making appropriate referrals to internal and external service providers that can adequately address the individual's needs. For example, this may involve staff making referrals to housing providers, substance misuse specialists etc. Dowden and Andrews

(2004) note that the effective implementation of this CCP depends on the availability of appropriate services.

Supervision Skills and Recidivism

Studies have revealed that the use of supervision skills can engage service-users, diminish attrition rates and reduce recidivism across interventions for both adult and young offenders (Andrews and Kiessling, 1980; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Durnescu, 2012; Lipsey, 2009; Raynor et al, 2014; Trotter, 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al, 2015). Durnescu advocates that 'Trotter (1996) was probably one of the first researchers who put staff skills back on the agenda' (2012:202). Trotter's (1996) study focused on effective community-based supervision skills in New South Wales, Australia. Trotter (1996) highlighted the importance of staff skills in relation to adhering to the specific responsivity principle. These skills included 'pro-social modelling skills', problem-solving skills, role clarification, and showing empathy. As part of the study, Trotter developed a training programme which trained staff on how to use these skills. The findings revealed that young people who were supervised by probation officers that used a wider range of supervisions skills had lower rates of reconviction over four years than individuals supervised by probation officers who used fewer skills (Trotter, 1996). Dowden and Andrews' (2004) large scale meta-analyses of 273 studies also revealed that the use of CCPs are associated with reductions in recidivism.

Bonta et al. (2011) developed practitioner training underpinned by the RNR model, which was named Strategic Training Initiative in Community Supervision (STICS). Bonta et al. (2011) analysed the audiotapes of supervision session of staff trained in the STICS programme and staff not provided with STICS training. Findings revealed that staff who received STICS training adhered closely to the RNR principles. Additionally, service users who were supervised by STICS trained staff had reduced reconviction rates over two years compared with service users who were supervised by staff who did not receive STICS training (Bonta et al., 2011; 2017). Similar staff training programmes have also been developed to provide staff with the skills to

adhere to RNR principles during one to one supervision. For example, the Staff Training Aimed at Reducing Re-arrest (STARR) programme enabled staff to learn how to use CCPs and how to develop effective one to one supervision skills (Lowenkamp et al., 2012). An evaluation of the impact of STARR has echoed the findings from Bonta et al. (2011). The evaluation revealed that service users who were supervised by STARR trained staff, made better use of CCPs and had lower rates of reconviction (Robinson et al. 2012). Within the British Isles, Raynor et al. (2014) utilised CCPs to develop the Jersey Supervision Interview Checklist (JSIC). The JSIC is an evaluative tool used to assess practitioners' use of supervision skills. Raynor et al. (2014) used the JSIC to analyse 96 audio-visual recordings of one-to-one supervision sessions. Raynor et al. (2014) identified that staff using fewer skills had higher reconviction rates than the staff using more skills. Of the 36 individuals supervised by staff using fewer skills, 21 were reconvicted (58%) over a 2-year period. In comparison, only 29% (n=10) of the 39 individuals supervised by staff using more skills were reconvicted. Raynor et al.'s (2014) study provides further empirical support for the effectiveness of supervisions skills in helping to reduce re-offending (see Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Bourgon et al., 2010; Robinson et al., 2012; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter et al., 2015).

Studies have also revealed that effective disapproval techniques can produce positive outcomes (Trotter 2013a; 2017; Trotter et al., 2015). When used in combination with other CCPs, it has been linked to reductions in re-offending (Dowden and Andrews 2004; Chadwick et al., 2015; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter et al., 2015). Moreover, the use of effective disapproval in isolation of the other CCPs has been linked with improvements to service user engagement and a reduction in reconviction rates (Trotter et al. 2015). However, Dowden and Andrews' (2004) study found that supervision skills are 'rarely used', particularly the use of effective disapproval. Dowden and Andrews (2004) found that the use of effective disapproval was only present in 16% of studies in their meta-analyses. They concluded that 'the majority of the programs that incorporated elements of CCP were associated with substantially higher mean effect sizes than programs that did not' (Dowden and Andrews, 2004: 210). Programmes that used CCPs achieved

substantial reductions in recidivism compared with programmes that did not use the CCPs (Dowden and Andrews, 2004). Training practitioners in the theory and practical delivery of CCPs is a vital aspect of adhering to the RNR principles. Training encourages practitioners to employ evidence-based skills into their front-line service delivery (Alexander et al. 2013; Bonta et al. 2011; Landenberger and Lipsey, 2005; Raynor et al., 2014; Robinson et al. 2012; Sorsby et al. 2013). In summary, when applying the responsivity principle to youth justice, it is important to ensure that interventions are tailored to the individual's characteristics. Additionally, practitioners must be equipped with the appropriate skills and resources to address barriers to learning, engagement and motivation (Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Raynor et al., 2014; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018).

2.1.3 The Risk Principle

The specific responsivity principle holds significant importance when theorising and implementing the risk and need principles. The main criticisms of the RNR model being deficit focused stem from the risk and need principles (Andrews et al., 2011; Polaschek, 2012; Ward and Maruna, 2007). However, the risk principle must to be understood and utilised in combination with the other RNR principles. A nuanced understanding of risk is also required, it is important to remember that both the risk and need principles should be implemented in the context of the human service principle, and individualised interventions (specific responsivity). Assessing and responding to risk/needs can be enhanced by ensuring that that specific responsivity principle is effectively implemented (see also Brogan et al., 2015; Herzog-Evans, 2017). Practitioners must understand the person in front of them before any meaningful assessment and intervention can take place, which further highlights the importance of a unified approach. For example, trying to engage a young person who is high risk offending in interventions that do not address their criminogenic needs will not reduce their risk of re-offending. Interventions that target criminogenic needs but do not accommodate the characteristics of the individual are less effective in engaging young people in interventions. If practitioners do not tailor interventions to the individual and address barriers to engagement, it is improbable that any effective assessments or interventions will take place. In essence, the risk principle

stipulates the need to determine appropriate levels of intervention. High-risk individuals should receive more intensive interventions and support than individuals assessed as low risk of re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2017).

Several studies support the efficacy of the risk principle (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 1999a; Lipsey, 2009; 2014; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). In relation to youth justice, Dowden and Andrews' (1999a) meta-analysis of 229 studies also revealed interventions that adhered to the risk principle were more likely to reduce re-offending. Additionally, Lipsey and Wilson's (1998) meta-analysis of serious young offenders found that community-based interventions delivered to entirely high-risk young offenders were more effective than those delivered to mostly high-risk offenders. A more recent meta-analysis of 548 studies of youth justice programmes from 1958 to 2002 also revealed on average high-risk young people who received intensive interventions produced more significant reductions in recidivism than interventions applied to low-risk young offenders (Lipsey, 2009, see also Haerle, 2016).

However, when applying risk-based approaches to youth justice it is important to remember that offending is a normal aspect of adolescence and some young people will stop offending without any intervention (see Capsi and Moffitt, 1995; Cauffman and Steinberg, 2000; Farrington and Ttofi, 2017; McVie, 2009; Newburn, 2017; Sampson and Laub, 2009; Smith, 2007; Steinburg et al., 2015; Walsh, 2011). This pertains to the widely acknowledged concept of the 'age-crime curve' (Alder et al., 2016; Smith, 2007; McVie, 2009). This refers to a sharp increase in offending during early adolescence which peaks during mid to late teens and then begins to decline steeply into the mid-20s. Findings from the Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions revealed after controlling for variable factors, young people who were in contact with criminal justice system had more considerable difficulties in stopping their offending than those who were engaged in offending behaviours but were not known to criminal justice services (McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; 2013). Difficulties in ceasing to offend may be attributed to the effects of labelling young people as 'risks' of re-

offending. This can pre-emptively stigmatise young people based on the assumption of future risk of offending (Adler et al., 2016; McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; 2013). Being labelled at risk from a young age can impact the decisions made for young people by youth justice agencies. Children who enter the youth justice system at a young age are not necessarily serious or prolific offenders (Moffitt, 1993; Farrington, 2005; Farrington and Ttofi, 2016; Newburn, 2017; Thornberry and Khron, 2005). However, due to them being labelled as a 'risk', these children become the 'usual suspects' which can result in them becoming self-fulfilling prophecies (McVie and McAra, 2010: 167). McAra and McVie (2007; 2010; 2013) argue that this creates a revolving door syndrome, where system contact is repeated and amplified. Ultimately this can be seen as a barrier that prevents individuals from stopping their offending behaviour and can impede their transition into pro-social adult roles (McAra and McVie, 2005; 2007; 2010; 2013). A meta-analytical study revealed that the formal processing of young people, particularly in comparison to diversion to other services or 'doing nothing' increased the likelihood, severity and frequency of further offending (Petrosino et al., 2010). A more holistic approach is needed in order to support young people. Interventions should be appropriate to the needs of young people and wider structural issues must be addressed (McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; 2013; Barry 2009; 2010). In conjunction with our present understanding of brain development, this can further support diversionary approaches. As Walsh advocates:

Neuroscience could feasibly be conscripted in defence of a diversionary model of youth justice, one in which all but the most serious of young offenders are routed out of the system due to a belief that their offending is likely to be adolescence-limited... reconfiguring the bulk of youth crime as developmental in nature and thus—by definition—transient

(2011: 24).

Some may perceive this as undermining the risk principle, and there are apparent tensions between avoiding unnecessary system contact (and the effects of labelling) and preventing future offending (reducing risk). It is important to remember that not all young people will 'naturally group out of crime' (Moffitt, 1993; Newburn, 2017). Within Wales, there is a cohort of young people whose complex needs have not

been addressed (Carlie 2014; Williams et al., 2018). These young people cannot be diverted away from interventions. They require carefully designed support in order to address both their welfare and criminogenic needs (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Skuse and Matthews, 2015). Central to the risk principle is resource allocation. The RNR model is primarily concerned with addressing the needs of service users who are assessed as medium to high risk of re-offending, and who often have the most complex needs (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). Therefore, the risk principle of the RNR model is not at odds with diversionary approaches. The risk principle supports the notion that those of low risk of offending should receive minimal intervention and be diverted away from formal contact with the youth justice system (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Lipsey, 2009). The purpose of the risk principle is to ensure that resources are allocated appropriately. Services should focus their efforts on supporting young people with the most challenging needs as opposed to those who are unlikely to re-offend. Broadly, this corresponds with current practices in Wales. There is a distinct effort to divert young people from the youth justice system with initiatives such as the 'Bureau' and 'Triage' (see pages 19-20; Haines et al., 2013; Home Office, 2012; Rix et al., 2011; Smith, 2017; Soppitt and Irving, 2014). Additionally, the introduction of the ECM has focused resources on addressing the needs of young people who have a history of prolific offending (Cordis Bright, 2017).

International research reveals that identifying and addressing risk factors (criminogenic needs) can reduce re-offending (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010; Brogan et al., 2015). Bonta and Andrews (2017) advocate that there are eight key risk factors for offending (the 'big' eight). These include criminal history, anti-social personality patterns, anti-social attitudes and behaviours, the influence of pro-criminal peers, substance abuse, negative family/marital relationships, a lack of engagement in school/work and limited involvement in prosocial/recreational activities (see also Andrews and Bonta, 2006; 2010). Findings from Simourd and Andrews' (1994) meta-analysis of male and female young offenders also echo the latter. Simourd and Andrews (1994) examined eight risk factors: personal distress, minor personality variables, poor parent-child

relations, lower-class structure, educational difficulties, family structure or parental problems, temperament or conduct problems, and anti-social peers or attitudes. The study revealed that for both males and females, anti-social peers and pro-criminal attitudes had the strongest correlation to offending behaviour. However, as noted, the risk and need practices must to be applied appropriately and in unification with other principles. To reiterate, the risk principle must be applied within the context of the human service and specific responsivity principle. Practitioners should not view young people as 'risks' or deficits'. Risk/need assessments need to be a collaborative process between the practitioner and young person. Assessments must take place within the context of positive relationships (specific responsivity) (Trotter, 2015; 2016). These assessments must pay attention to structural adversity, welfare needs and the strengths and capabilities of children. The use of actuarial risk/need assessments in England and Wales has remained a contentious issue (see Case, 2007; Case and Haines, 2009b; Briggs, 2013; Haines and Case, 2015). Within England and Wales, risk/need practices have been poorly conceptualised and implemented, which may contribute to the resistance towards the RNR model (Andrews et al., 2011; Briggs, 2015; Polaschek, 2012; Sutherland, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018).

Over the past 30 years, the risk factors prevention paradigm (RFPP) for understanding and preventing youth offending has become the dominant discourse of youth justice policy and practice (see Bateman, 2011b; Case, 2007; Case and Haines, 2009b; 2012; Haines and Case, 2008; Gray, 2005b; O'Mahony, 2009). The RFPP is primarily underpinned by the seminal Cambridge Study of Delinquent Development, which has a distinct psychosocial focus (Farrington, 1996; Farrington et al., 2006). It appears that the RNR model and RFPP are often conflated and viewed as the same. However, this is not the case. While assessing the risk of future re-offending is a key aspect of the RNR model, it is not its sole focus, as evidenced by the other principles of the model. Whereas, the RFPP is primarily concerned with managing risk and does not incorporate vital human-centred aspects such as the human service and responsivity principles (see Table 3). As Kraemer et al. argue, 'terms such as risk, risk factors, and especially the term cause are inconsistently and

imprecisely used, fostering scientific miscommunication and misleading research and policy' (1997: 337; see also Briggs, 2013; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Issues with misunderstanding and misinterpretation can impede the effective implementation of EBPs (see Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018; Polaschek, 2012). Practitioners require training in order to identify and address criminogenic needs effectively (Baker, 2004; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a). Numerous studies have revealed that there is a failure to adhere to the risk principle in practice (see for example Hollin et al., 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006b; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Sadlier, 2010; Singh et al., 2014; Sutherland, 2009). For example, Hollin et al.'s (2004) evaluation of 'what works' programmes in probation identified that 46% of offenders did not have risk levels that matched the criteria for participation in the specified programmes. Additionally, Sadlier's (2010) evaluation of prison-based programmes found that 42% of participants on the Enhanced Thinking Skills (ETS) programme (underpinned by the RNR model) did not meet the risk threshold to participate in the programme. In relation to youth justice, Singh et al. (2014) examined how practitioners supervising young offenders implemented the RNR principles in practice. Findings revealed that the risk principle was not being adequately implemented; interventions did not match levels of assessed risk (Singh et al., 2014). Luong and Wormith's (2011) study revealed similar findings.

Given the prominence of the RFPP in youth justice, it is important to examine what impact this has had on practice and how risk-lead approaches have been ineffectively implemented. Farrington advocates:

The basic idea of risk-focused prevention is very simple: Identify the key risk factors for offending and implement prevention methods designed to counteract them. There is often a related attempt to identify key protective factors against offending and to implement prevention methods designed to enhance them

(2007: 606).

Several academics have argued that the RFPP responsabilises young people for their behaviour and fails to consider and address structural issues (Case and Haines,

2009b; France, 2008; O'Mahony, 2009). The RFPP has been criticised for being too narrow in its focus on identifying risk factors. Goldson and Muncie argue that a 'selective 'evidence' is privileged whilst a wider body of criminological 'evidence' – both theoretically and empirically derived, particularly in relation to structurally mediated processes of criminalization...– is peripheralized' (2006: 98). Methodological criticisms have also been levelled at the Cambridge Study of Delinquent Development that underpins the RFPP. Methodological criticisms primarily relate to the sample of the study only comprising white males. It has been argued that the RFPP does not adequately consider differences in risk factors for females and ethnic minorities (O'Mahony, 2009). While the RNR model does draw on a broader empirical base, the narrow focus on psychosocial risk factors can also be extended to the risk and need principles of the RNR model. The need to address socio-economic factors are an essential consideration when explaining and developing the risk and need principles. The responsabilisation of individuals is a key departure from the RNR model for proponents of alternative or integrated approaches (Herzog-Evans, 2017; McNeill, 2012). Therefore, greater emphasis needs to be placed on developing the social capital of young people rather than solely focusing on building human capital (Bellis et al., 2015; McNeill et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2018). Studies have highlighted the importance of practitioners addressing socio-economic issues in order to facilitate compliance and to reduce re-offending (Barry, 2010; Phillips, 2011; Ugwu-dike, 2010; Weaver and Barry, 2014).

Muncie also argues that the management of risk is an 'imprecise science' (2009: 299). McAra and McVie (2010) also question the plausibility of being able to predict future offending. A risk led approach has the potential to produce a high rate of false positives, and false negatives (see Bateman, 2011b). There is the potential for false positives to be caught in a (widening) net of unmerited and possibly criminalising interventions, while false negatives fail to receive potentially vital interventions and support (Bateman, 2011b). As previously discussed, several studies have highlighted the detrimental impact that being involved in the youth justice system can have on a young person, particularly if they are perceived as being stigmatising and

punitive (Tracy and Kempf-Leonard, 1996; Huizinga et al., 2003; McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010).

Assessing Risk/Need within England and Wales

Within England and Wales, risks/needs are primarily assessed by AssetPlus (see Baker, 2014). At the time of the fieldwork, services were using its predecessor Asset. Therefore, it is important to consider the implications of Asset in the context of assessing and responding to risk. Asset is an actuarial tool that assesses 'dynamic' psychosocial risk factors (Baker et al., 2005) in the following 12 domains:

1. Family and personal relationships
2. Education, training and employment
3. Neighbourhood
4. Lifestyle
5. Substance use
6. Physical health
7. Emotional and mental health
8. Perception of self and others
9. Thinking and behaviour
10. Attitudes to offending
11. Motivation to change
12. Indicators of serious harm to others

Practitioners must give a numerical rating on a scale from 0 to 4 (0 = not associated; 4 = very strongly associated) to indicate the extent to which a specific risk factor is associated with the likelihood of future offending (Baker et al., 2004). Based on these aggregated scores, the *Scaled Approach* provided a framework for the levels of intervention required for an individual. The *Scaled Approach* is a prime example of poor implementation. The idea behind the *Scaled Approach* was to help guide resource allocation, which on face value coincides with the risk principle. Under the *Scaled Approach*, young people assessed as high risk were to receive more intensive supervision. However, this arbitrary approach resulted in the escalation of young people in the youth justice system and was viewed as too rigid and onerous (Bateman, 2011b; Haines and Case, 2012; Sutherland, 2009). This approach did not

consider essential responsivity factors and demonstrated that implementing practices solely based on risk are limited in their effectiveness. It was also met with resistance from practitioners as they felt it impeded their professional judgement (Bateman, 2011b; Haines and Case, 2012; Sutherland, 2009). The implementation and failing of the *Scaled Approach* may also be partly attributed to the quality of Asset assessments. Sutherland's (2009) evaluation of the *Scaled Approach* in four YOSs in the South-East of England (two inner-London YOSs and two city-centre YOSs outside London) indicated that between YOSs and practitioners within each of the services there were differences in both the quality and quantity of standards in Asset recordings. Sutherland (2009) suggested that this lack of consistency may be linked to a lack of training provided to the practitioners. Sutherland's (2009) findings echo previous research which also identified inadequate levels of training as an issue (Baker et al., 2005). Adequate training is essential for implementing and maintaining EBPs (Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018; Ugwudike et al., 2017; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017).

Concerns have also been raised that practitioners do not have sufficient time to complete Asset assessment to a high quality. Practitioners are subject to bureaucratic processes, which can result in assessments and interventions plans being rushed in order to meet targets (Almond, 2012; Baker et al., 2011; Shepherd, 2012). Robert et al. (2001) also found that practitioners had concerns about the time it takes to complete an Asset assessment and the uncertainty of the scoring system. Baker et al.'s (2004) consultation with practitioners highlighted a degree of scepticism and resistance to Asset, which can be partly attributed to lack of engagement with the assessment process. This 'feeling of scepticism' towards Asset has also been identified by Phoenix (2009: 121). Phoenix's (2009) study revealed that YOS practitioners felt Asset marginalised their professionalism and capability to make decisions about risk. However, a two-year ethnographic study undertaken in an Oxfordshire YOS found that practitioners who were new to the YOS felt that Asset provided a helpful structure for assessment (Burnett and Appleton, 2004). In contrast, more experienced practitioners were less likely to view Asset as a valuable tool (Burnett and Appleton, 2004). Many academics assert that Asset has

'technicised' youth justice practice (Pitts, 2001b; Case and Haines, 2009b; Stephenson et al., 2007). Stephenson et al. (2007) advocate that the use of actuarial tools increases bureaucracy and an audit culture. Processes that are perceived as being bureaucratic can have a negative impact on organisational factors and undermine the implementation of EBPs (Farrell et al., 2011). However, the YJB (2002) asserts that practitioners require considerable knowledge and skills in order to complete comprehensive Asset assessments. Proponents concur that in order for Asset to be used effectively it requires extensive theoretical and practical skills (Baker, 2005). Additionally, it has been noted that Asset can result in greater consistency and accountability (Baker et al., 2011).

Critics have argued that Asset fails to allow young people to participate in decision-making processes (Case, 2007; Case and Haines, 2009b; Haines and Case, 2015). As Case (2007) illustrates, within Asset young people's judgment is limited to a small 'What do you think?' section which has no bearing on the practitioner's scoring of risk. Therefore, it would be reasonable to suggest that young people's qualitative perspectives about risks have been marginalised within Asset. Indeed, Annison (2005) notes how the 'What do you think?' section has sometimes been completely missed out by practitioners. Thus, Asset has been criticised for providing a 'prescription without a consultation' (Case, 2006: 174). This is problematic as supervision should be a collaborative process as it can help to encourage compliance and reduce re-offending (Rex, 1999; Raynor, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2013b; 2015; Ugwudike, 2016). Almond (2012) has also criticised the language used within Asset for being overly negative and criminalising. Almond (2012) argues that this labels young people as 'offenders' rather than viewing them as children. It has been argued that Asset has contributed to the stigmatisation, dehumanisation and criminalisation of young people (see Goldson, 2003; 2005). Bateman (2005) argues that concentrating on risk can reinforce the beliefs that have enabled the young person's offending (see also McAra and McVie, 2010). The strong criticism levelled at Asset influenced the development of AssetPlus. This was phased in by the YJB in 2015 (after the completion of the data collection for stage one this study). AssetPlus is said to take a more holistic approach to assessing the needs of young people, with a greater emphasis placed on their strengths (Baker, 2014, YJB,

2014). However, AssetPlus is not a validated risk/needs assessment tool. To date, there has not been a study conducted to examine the implementation and effectiveness of AssetPlus. It is yet to be seen what impact AssetPlus will have on practice and engagement with young people.

CFOS advocates have been particularly critical of actuarial risk/need assessments (Case, 2007; Case and Haines, 2009b; 2010; 2011; 2016; Haines and Case, 2008; 2011; 2012; 2015). However, critics have not provided clear guidance and explanation on how to identify and respond to the key needs of young people in real-world practice. Identifying and addressing criminogenic and non-criminogenic needs are of particular pertinence when responding to young people who are prolific offenders. If actuarial assessments are not used, how can the needs of young people be assessed and met? Herzog-Evans contends that the:

Use of non-evidenced-based assessment methods may actually be deemed just as unethical, because assessment nevertheless takes place every time, for instance, that a probation officer writes a report, and reliance on a protocol is, so far, the most effective way, albeit not entirely bias-proof, of limiting errors and discrimination

(2017: 102).

There is no solid evidence to suggest that professional judgment is the better option over actuarial assessments. Herzog-Evans also advocates that professional judgement 'includes prejudice and other biases and is, therefore, more likely to generate a far greater number of false positives or negatives' (2017: 102). Assessments based on professional judgement may lead to ineffective planning and implementation of interventions. It could actually result in excessive interventions and/or interventions that do not focus on addressing the key needs of young people (Andrews et al., 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Herzog-Evans, 2017). As previously noted, several studies reveal that practitioners have difficulties conceptualising risk, assessing risk and using risk/need outcomes to inform interventions (Briggs, 2015; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Sutherland, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Actuarial assessments provide a level of standardisation, transparency and accountability that professional judgment

does not provide (Andrews et al., 2011; Baker et al., 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). The criticisms of Asset do not necessarily mean that the risk and need principles of the RNR model are flawed. Instead, it suggests that there are issues with the implementation of the risk and need principles. As noted, studies have revealed that using appropriate risk/needs assessment tools can actually help to identify and address criminogenic needs, which can result in reductions in re-offending (Andrews and Bonta, 2010; Lowenkamp et al., 2006b; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010; Luong and Wormith, 2011).

Issues of implementation pertain to the following: current risk/need assessment tools are not fit for purpose; which can also contribute to practitioners resisting the use of assessment tools (see Phoenix, 2009; Sutherland, 2009; Trotter, 2016; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018); practitioners have difficulties conceptualising and interpreting risk (Briggs, 2013; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018); and practitioners do not receive adequate training in order to undertake comprehensive risk/need assessments (Baker, 2014, Sutherland, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). These factors can lead to disengagement in the assessment process and result in poor risk/need assessments and intervention planning (Briggs, 2013; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Phoenix, 2009; Singh et al., 2014; Sutherland, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Additionally, the onerous nature of Asset takes focus and time away from actual one-to-one time with the young people. Developing positive relationships with young people (specific responsivity), is an integral element of the helping young people to stop offending (Bonta et al., 2008; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Haines and Case; 2015; Johns et al., 2017; McNeill, 2006a; 2006b; Raynor et al., 2014; Bourgon and Guitierrez, 2013; Robinson et al., 2012; Trotter, 2013a). Essentially, a less taxing risk/need assessment tool needs to be developed for youth justice practitioners that examines both risk/need factors and protective/strength factors.

Risk/Need: Developing a Wider Theoretical Base

In regard to incorporating an integrated approach, the risk principle needs to draw on a broader theoretical and empirical base that provides a more comprehensive

perspective of the factors that contribute to the onset and offset of youth offending. There are a range of individual, social and structural factors that explain the onset and offset of youth offending (see Capsi and Moffitt, 1995; Cauffman and Steinberg, 2000; Farrington and Ttofi, 2016; Laub and Sampson, 2003; McVie and McAra, 2007; 2010; 2013; Moffitt, 1993; 1997; Monahan et al., 2009; Sampson and Laub, 2009; Steinburg and Cauffman, 1996; Steinburg et al., 2015; Thornberry and Krohn, 2005; Walsh, 2011; Williams et al., 2018). As discussed throughout this chapter, greater attention needs to be paid to the structural factors that affect young people's involvement in the youth justice system, rather than mainly focusing on individual psychological change (Herzog-Evans, 2017; McNeill, 2012). Barry (2009; 2010) advocates young people's ability to desist is severely limited by social constraints, which they are unable to overcome alone (see also Gray, 2013). Barry (2009; 2010) notes that YOSs should work to combat the complex welfare and social needs of young people (see also Gray, 2013). Addressing these needs also requires legal, moral, political and social rehabilitation (Williams 2018, see also McNeill, 2012; Herzog-Evans, 2017). The RNR model does recognise the importance of social interactions and social context. However, it does not address the need for legal, moral and social rehabilitation as these are seen as being outside the parameters of supervision (Herzog-Evans, 2017). While individuals may have the human capital that facilitates change, they also need to have access to opportunities and resources within social networks (social capital) (McNeill et al., 2012). Williams further notes the importance of social rehabilitation in terms of 'rebuilding a social ecology of family, friends and contacts who can help to sustain a positive life-style' (2018: 29).

What also needs to be drawn out is the importance of acknowledging the strengths of young people and not just their 'risks' (Ward Brown, 2004; Ward and Maruna, 2007; Willis and Ward, 2013). Practice should be future-oriented in terms of enabling the young people to achieve their entitlements and goals, rather than focusing on their deficits (Haines and Case, 2015; Creaney, 2014a; Robinson, 2015; Ward, 2010). It is essential to consider protective and resilience factors. Otherwise, this may result in opportunities being missed to form more effective forms of supervision that are underpinned by high-quality relationships (Creaney, 2014b). However, some

academics argue that protective factors are essentially inverted risk factors (see Harris and Rice, 2015; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Polaschek, 2016; Serin et al., 2016). Nevertheless, it is important to build on the strengths and resilience of young people (Ward and Maruna, 2007; Case and Haines, 2011; Haines and Case, 2015; Robinson, 2015). As Gilligan notes, it is more beneficial to help draw 'out the talent, the capacity and the resources that people may have and creating a space where good things may happen' (2006: 41). McNeill (2009a) also notes, risk should not be the only focus when working with children, but at the same time, it cannot be ignored. Other perspectives such as the GLM and desistance have been more explicit in placing greater importance on the need to build on the strengths and abilities of individuals (McNeill et al., 2012; Ward and Brown, 2004; Ward and Maruna, 2007; Willis and Ward, 2013).

The strengths-based approach of GLM advocates for practices that build on the agency and capabilities of the offenders. Supervision should be 'future-oriented, optimistic and approach goal focused' in order to support and develop the motivation of service users (Ward and Maruna, 2007: 127). This is also evident in the RNR model, although, it has not been explained explicitly and appears to have become lost in translation (see Table 3, points 6, 8, 10 and 11). From a desistance perspective, supporting and developing the strengths and resources of individuals can increase the likelihood of desistance (Maruna and LeBel, 2003; McNeill et al., 2012). Desistance models also recognise the importance of developing and maintaining the motivation of offenders. Motivating individuals can help them to build on their strengths (Ugwudike, 2016). As Polaschek advocates, 'strengths-based approaches can give service-users reasons to want to engage...and change [and] not just the capacities to do so' (2012: 8). Incorporating more strengths-based approaches may also help to address responsivity factors and enhance the engagement and motivation of young people (Ward and Maruna, 2007). Furthermore, this may also help to alleviate the perception that the RNR model is incompatible with youth justice practitioners' welfare and rights practice ethos, by taking a more holistic approach to youth offending.

2.1.4 The Need Principle

As noted, the risk and need principle are closely linked. In its simplest terms, the need principle stipulates that programmes/interventions should focus on targeting criminogenic needs or the needs of the offender that are functionally related to criminal behaviour (Andrews and Bonta, 2007; Andrews and Bonta, 2010). Interventions are more likely to produce positive outcomes if they focus on addressing the criminogenic needs of the individual (Andrews and Bonta, 2007; Andrews et al., 2011; Lipsey, 2009; Luong and Wormith, 2011). These are predominantly dynamic risk factors associated with offending (Andrews and Bonta, 2007; Andrews et al., 2011). Studies have revealed interventions that predominantly target non-criminogenic needs over criminogenic are ineffective in reducing recidivism (Dowden and Andrews, 1999a; 1999b; Andrews and Dowden, 2006; 2010; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Dowden 1998; Gendreau et al., 1996; Gendreau et al., 2002). Non-criminogenic needs are said to include: self-esteem, discipline, artistic and creative abilities, stress, anxiety, and other 'vague' emotional problems (Gendreau et al., 1996; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 1999b). Andrews and Dowden's (2006) meta-analysis further provides support for the need principle. Their study revealed non-adherence to the need principle (failing to mainly target criminogenic needs) resulted in a 1 percentage-point increase in recidivism, while adherence to the need principle resulted in a 19-percentage point reduction in recidivism (Andrews and Dowden, 2006; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a).

Dowden and Andrews' (1999a) meta-analysis of young offenders also provides empirical support for the need principle. Results from their study revealed programmes that did not adhere to the need principle were associated with a 1 percentage-point increase in recidivism, whilst interventions that adhered to the need principle demonstrated a 22 percentage-point reduction in recidivism (Dowden and Andrews, 1999a). Gendreau et al.'s (2002) study also highlighted that programmes which target more criminogenic needs than non-criminogenic are more effective in reducing recidivism. More specifically, Gendreau et al. (2002) found programmes/interventions that targeted 1 to 3 more criminogenic needs than non-criminogenic needs resulted in a slight increase in recidivism.

Programmes/interventions that targeted 4 to 6 more criminogenic needs than non-criminogenic needs yielded a 31-percentage point reduction in recidivism. McGuire et al.'s (2002) study of youth justice interventions in England and Wales also revealed interventions that only targeted non-criminogenic needs were associated with an increase in recidivism. However, it can be beneficial to address the non-criminogenic needs of individuals in order to develop and promote positive relationships. As noted, developing positive relationships can also help to motivate and engage individuals in interventions, and it can help to address their welfare needs (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a). When working with children their welfare needs cannot be ignored, these must be addressed (see Brogan et al., 2015; Haines and Case, 2015).

Luong and Wormith's (2011) study revealed interventions that were designed in accordance with the identified needs of the young people yielded a 37.9% reduction in the risk of re-offending. However, the study also found that failing to ensure that interventions targeted the identified needs of the young people correlated with an 81.7% increase in the risk of recidivism (Luong and Wormith, 2011). There appears to be a conceptual and implementation gap between identifying criminogenic needs and services having the resources to transform these into interventions. Singh et al. (2014) also found that young people's intervention plans did not focus on addressing the criminogenic needs that were identified during risk/need assessments. Issues with effectively translating the results of risk/needs assessments into practice have also been identified in other studies (see for example Bonta et al., 2008; Flores et al., 2004; Miller and Moloney, 2013; Phoenix, 2009; Sutherland, 2009; Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2018). Flores et al. (2004) found that although most practitioners conducted assessments effectively, many did not apply the outcomes to their practice. Additionally, Miller and Moloney's (2013) national survey of frontline practitioners revealed that while approximately half of the participating practitioners completed risk/need assessments, their decisions regarding service delivery were not always informed by the outcomes of these assessments. Furthermore, Bonta et al.'s (2008) study highlighted that many practitioners were able to identify the needs of individuals effectively, but less than half (39.4%) of these identified needs

informed intervention plans. The process of identifying the criminogenic needs of different offender groups can be a complex task (Hollin and Palmer, 2006; Palmer and Hollin, 2007; Trotter, 2016). Studies suggest that many practitioners are unable to identify and target criminogenic needs without adequate training (see Robinson et al. 2012; Sutherland, 2009; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Additionally, Trotter (2016) advocates that the presence or absence of quality relationships (specific responsivity) can affect a practitioner's ability to assess and address the criminogenic needs of individuals, further highlighting the importance of implementing the RNR model in unification.

Developing the Theoretical and Empirical Base: Non-Criminogenic Needs

The RNR model is criticised for predominately focusing its efforts on addressing criminogenic needs in order to reduce re-offending (Laws and Ward, 2011; Ward et al., 2007a; Ward et al., 2007b; Ward and Steward, 2003; Ward et al., 2012). As previously discussed (see pages 75-80), there is fierce debate surrounding the applicability of risk factors being predictive of future offending (see Bateman, 2011b; Case and Haines, 2009b; 2016). The RNR model would benefit from placing greater emphasis on the importance of responding to the non-criminogenic needs of young people (see Brogan et al., 2015; Trotter, 2015; Ward et al., 2007). The emphasis on criminogenic needs may lead to factors that undermine a young person's engagement in support services being overlooked (Ward et al., 2007). As discussed previously (see pages 14-20), within Wales, there is a policy focus on children's rights, which is underpinned by the UNCRC (WG/YJB, 2014). Key priorities also include safeguarding young peoples' wellbeing (WG/YJB, 2014). The RNR model would benefit from drawing on aspects of the GLM which suggest that addressing non-criminogenic needs such as low self-esteem may increase the young person's engagement with interventions, which can then lead to reductions in re-offending (Laws and Ward, 2011; Ward et al., 2007a; 2007b). Andrews and Dowden's (2007) study reveals that addressing the wellbeing needs of individuals within RNR based interventions are linked to reductions in recidivism. Addressing the non-criminogenic needs of individuals, links with the specific responsivity principle and may help to increase the engagement and motivation of young people. Again, drawing on

desistance theories, there needs to be greater emphasis placed on building the social capital of young people (particularly with their communities) as well as their human capital (Farrall, 2002, 2004; McNeill and Maruna, 2007; McNeill and Whyte, 2007; McNeill et al., 2012).

2.2 Concluding Thoughts

In conclusion this chapter has put forth the argument for an integrated RNR model. This is reflective of the notion that any approach of working with young people must be child responsive (Brogan et al., 2015; Haines and Case, 2015). Additionally, there is need to expand the explanatory depth of the RNR model in order to assist in its effective implementation in real-world practices (Polaschek, 2012). Importantly, this chapter has revealed that practitioners have difficulties in translating the theory of RNR into their front-line work, which can undermine the integrity of interventions. The following chapter explores implementation issues further and modes to bridge the gulf between theory and practice.

Chapter Three: Bridging the Practice Integrity Gap

To date, there has been a lack of empirical insight into front-line supervision practices in Wales (Adler et al., 2016; Mason and Prior, 2008; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). It is unclear if practitioners are implementing EBPs and whether there are barriers that impede their ability to deliver evidence-based interventions. Chapter Two highlighted that the RNR model has not been effectively implemented into practice. As such, the purpose of this chapter is to explore the issue of implementation further. Despite the evidence that supports effectiveness of the RNR model in reducing re-offending, several studies have revealed that very few interventions adhere to the model (Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Implementation issues have created a 'practice integrity gap' (see Helmond et al., 2014a; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). There is a void between the theory of effective practice and its transferral into real-world practices (Helmond et al., 2014a; Taxman and Belenko, 2011). The misapplication of the RNR model can undermine its effectiveness, which may have made it more susceptible to the criticisms discussed in Chapter Two (see also Polaschek, 2012). The success of an integrated RNR model may depend on the manner in which it is delivered (Polaschek, 2012; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018; Duwe and Clarke, 2015; Lipsey et al., 2010). As such, this chapter examines how the practice integrity gap can be bridged by using evaluation tools. The CPAI-2010 is one such tool that has been recognised for its ability to address the issue of real-world application of theory into practice in order to enhance practice integrity (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). As the CPAI-2010 was developed in a different jurisdiction and has been predominately used to evaluate adult services, this chapter also considers the transferability of the CPAI-2010 for the Welsh youth justice system.

3.1 Exploring the Gulf between Theory and Practice

Examining the implementation of theory into front-line practice is an essential development in research in order to deepen our understanding of ‘how things work’ or ‘why they do not work’ (Ugwudike et al., 2017). Gendreau et al. (2009) note how some criminal justice interventions are based on ‘common sense approaches’ rather than being informed by evidence-based theories and practices. The lack of implementation of EBPs results in what Gendreau et al. (2009) describe as ‘correctional quackery’. The following quote illustrates this pertinent point:

Reacting to the study (research on the lack of effectiveness of military boot camps), a spokesman for governor Zell Miller said that “we don’t care what the study thinks”— Georgia would continue to use its boot camps. Governor Miller is an ex-Marine, and says that the Marine boot camps he attended changed his life for the better: he believes that the boot camp experience can do the same for wayward Georgia youth... “Georgia’s Commissioner of Corrections”... also joined the chorus of condemnation, saying that academics were too quick to ignore the experiential knowledge of people “working in the system” and rely on research findings
(Vaughn, 1994: 2 cited in Gendreau et al., 2009).

Evidence has highlighted that punitive style boot camps are ineffective and can have detrimental effects on young people (Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010). Additionally, ‘quackery’ informed interventions are not only ineffective but are also financially expensive:

[Interventions] based on a vague, if not unstated theory of crime, and an absurd theory of behavioural change (‘offenders need to be broken down’ – through a good deal of humiliation and threats – and then ‘built back up’), boot camps could not possibly have ‘worked’. In fact, we know of no major psychological theory that would logically suggest that such humiliation or threats are components of effective therapeutic interventions. Even so, boot camps were put into place across the nation without a shred of empirical evidence as to their effectiveness, and only now has their appeal been tarnished after years of negative evaluation studies. How many millions of dollars have been squandered? How many opportunities to rehabilitate offenders have been forfeited?

(Latessa et al., 2002: 44).

Latessa et al. (2002) identify a range of the ‘quackery theories’ that criminal justice practitioners employ in their front-line supervision practices. These include:

- “Been there, done that” theory
- “Offenders lack creativity” theory
- “Offenders need to get back to nature” theory
- “It worked for me” theory
- “Offenders lack discipline” theory
- “Offenders lack organizational skills” theory
- “Offenders have low self-esteem” theory
- “We just want them to be happy” theory
- The “treat offenders as babies and dress them in diapers” theory
- “Offenders need to have a pet in prison” theory
- “Offenders need acupuncture” theory
- “Offenders need to have healing lodges” theory
- “Offenders need drama therapy” theory
- “Offenders need a better diet and haircut” theory
- “Offenders (male) need to learn how to put on makeup and dress better” theory
- “Offenders (male) need to get in touch with their feminine side” theory

(Latessa et al., 2002: 44).

The aforementioned ‘theories’ are ineffective in reducing re-offending and are primarily based on the personal beliefs and experiences of the individuals delivering interventions. In order to yield positive outcomes, it is important that services and practitioners use empirically informed theories and practices that are shown to reduce re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Gendreau et al., 2000; Taxman and Belenko, 2011). Issues with understanding and implementing theory into practice can be associated with a lack of appropriate training received by practitioners (see Robinson et al., 2012; Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). The effectiveness of an intervention can be dependent on how it is delivered. Its success may rely on the skills and experience of the practitioners delivering it, which further highlights the importance of adherence to the human service and specific responsivity principles of the RNR model (see pages 44-71). As Duwe and Clarke note:

Correctional practitioners can take an effective intervention and make it ineffective. Providing offenders with evidence-based interventions that lack therapeutic integrity not only promotes a false sense of effectiveness, but also it squanders the limited supply of programming resources available to correctional agencies

(2015: 301).

Having the 'right' practitioners with the 'right' skills can enhance the effectiveness of an intervention (Herzog-Evans, 2017; Raynor et al., 2014). Essentially, the success of an intervention can be 'hinged on whether it was delivered with integrity' (Duwe and Clarke, 2015: 311). Lipsey et al. (2010) note that implementation can affect recidivism rates. Findings from Lipsey's meta-analytic review of supervision practices in the context of youth justice identified:

In some analyses, the quality with which the intervention is implemented has been as strongly related to recidivism effects as the type of programme, so much so that a well-implemented intervention of an inherently less efficacious type can outperform a more efficacious one that is poorly implemented

(2009: 127).

Studies reveal that poor implementation or poor practice integrity is associated with attrition and increased recidivism rates (Andrews et al., 1990; Bonta et al., 2011; Hollin et al., 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a, Robinson et al., 2012; Sadlier, 2010). Essentially, it does not matter how well an intervention is designed; its effectiveness depends on the quality and manner in which it is delivered. However, studies suggest that many interventions lack adequate levels of integrity (Andrews et al., 1990; Bonta et al., 2011; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Robinson et al., 2012; Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2018). Koehler et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis of young offender programmes in Europe highlighted that only 7 out of the 25 evaluated programmes adhered closely to the RNR principles. Koehler et al.'s (2013) study also draws attention to the need for systematic evaluations of programmes/interventions and outcomes across different countries. Essentially, it is vital to distinguish between how the RNR model is intended to be delivered and how it is actually being delivered in practice.

Supervision Skills in the Welsh Youth Justice System: A Lack of Empirical Insight

Chapter Two highlighted that the majority of the RNR (particularly the youth-focused) literature and research have stemmed from outside of Wales (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Brogan et al., 2015; Farrell et al., 2011; Lipsey, 2009; Harper and Chitty, 2005

Rudes et al., 2017; Trotter, 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). Utilising research from different jurisdictions in order to inform practice may pose issues in terms of transferability for a variety of reasons. These include (but are not limited to): differences in criminal justice organisations; staff resources; legalisation; offender populations/characteristics and different cultural contexts (Koehler et al., 2013). Within England and Wales, issues surrounding the implementation of EBPs have remained largely unexplored (see also Bonta et al., 2008; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2018). There is a lack of empirical research into the processes through which practitioners implement EBPs into their front-line work. Consequently, the potential problems that may undermine practice integrity and subsequent outcomes may have been overlooked. Meta-analysis studies provide useful insight into effective practices that are associated with reductions in re-offending. However, it is vital to evaluate individual interventions/programmes/services in order to understand the barriers that prevent the successful implementation of EBPs.

Notably, there has been a distinct lack of empirical insight into the precise processes of supervision skills in Wales (Adler et al., 2016; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Mason and Prior, 2008; Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2017). Only a few studies have examined elements of supervisions skills (see for example Feilzer et al., 2004; Mason and Prior, 2008; Ipsos MORI, 2010). Mason and Prior's (2008) report revealed that there is a dearth of research on supervision skills that enhance the engagement of young people in interventions. A survey conducted by Ipsos MORI (2010) across 66 YOSs also highlighted the lack of research on youth justice supervision skills. The study also revealed that practitioners had difficulties in identifying and articulating how to engage young people effectively (see also Adler et al., 2016). Within Wales, there does not appear to have been any research that has examined whether supervisions skills are implemented effectively in one-to-one supervision. With limited empirical insight, this poses several implications (Bonta et al., 2008). For instance, it is difficult to ascertain whether practitioners are aware of the principles of effective practice and whether they interpret and apply these principles both consistently and effectively. This is important as previous studies suggest that effective

implementation of supervision skills are linked with successful outcomes including reduced recidivism rates (Andrews and Kiessling, 1980; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Lipsey, 2009; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). Exploring the use of supervisions skills can help to develop our understanding of factors that impede their effective implementation in practice, develop empirical insight into the specific responsivity principle and, help to bridge the practice integrity gap (see Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017).

3.2 Re-Conceptualising Programme Integrity to Practice Integrity

Over the past several decades, research into EBPs has developed from identifying what works in reducing re-offending, to the type of interventions that are most effective in reducing re-offending, to evaluating how things work (see Ugwudike et al., 2017). Implementation research has started to grow steadily in the past decade. There is now a greater focus on examining the 'programme integrity' of interventions and services. This is critical in terms of bridging the gulf between theory and its implementation in real-world practice. Programme integrity is conceptualised as implementing a programme or intervention in accordance to its design (Carroll et al., 2007; Dane and Schneider, 1998; Duwe and Clarke, 2015; Helmond et al., 2014a; 2014b). Programme integrity refers to the degree to which programmes or interventions adhere to the principles of effective practice, that, are linked to reductions in recidivism (Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Lowenkamp et al., 2010). McGuire notes that there should be a 'clear relationship between the clarity of objectives, theoretical base and methods employed within a programme and its overall effects' in order for there to be high levels of integrity (2002: 25). Services must also be adequately resourced in order to maintain high levels of programme integrity (Taxman and Belenko, 2011). Part of this relies on managers ensuring that practitioners are effectively selected, trained and, have access to clinical supervision (Gendreau et al., 2010; McGuire, 2004; Taxman and Belenko, 2011). The importance of high programme integrity in relation to reducing re-offending is widely acknowledged (Andrews and Dowden, 2005; Gendreau, Goggin, and Smith, 1999;

Helmond et al., 2014a; Landenberger and Lipsey, 2005; Lipsey, 2009; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Duwe and Clarke, 2015; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). However, the relationship between programme integrity and re-offending rates has received limited empirical attention, which has created a 'programme integrity gap' (Helmond et al., 2014a). Few studies have examined programme integrity and the majority of these have been conducted within the adult criminal justice system (see Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). As such, this thesis provides further insight into practice integrity and outcomes in the youth justice system.

For the purpose of this study, the concept of programme integrity was re-conceptualised and broadened to practice integrity (see also Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2018). The term programme integrity primarily stems from North American research (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). Within the context of North America, the term programme is interpreted more broadly as any replicable work with individuals, including one-to-one supervision (Gendreau et al., 2010; Raynor, 2004). However, within England and Wales, our understanding of the term programme integrity is not necessarily consistent with our North American counterparts. The implementation of the RNR model within England and Wales has been predominately pursued in probation with an emphasis on manualised programmes (Raynor and Robinson, 2009). As such, the term 'programme' has become synonymous with 'cognitive-behavioural group programmes' (Raynor, 2004). Morgan (2003) notes that the RNR agenda in England and Wales has been accompanied by a degree of 'programme fetishism'. Many of the RNR programmes introduced within England and Wales suffered from implementation issues and yielded limited results in reducing re-offending (Raynor, 2004; Raynor and Robinson, 2009). Evaluations of youth justice and adult interventions based on aspects of the RNR principles, have revealed evidence of poor programme integrity and limited application of supervision skills (Cann et al., 2003; Feilzer et al., 2004; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor and Robinson, 2009).

The limited success of the aforementioned programmes may have contributed to the resistance of RNR approaches and the misconception that the responsivity principle simply means employing cognitive-behavioural, social learning approaches (Andrews et al., 2011; Polaschek, 2012; Raynor and Robinson, 2009). The focus on manualised programmes also raises concerns about the lack of focus on individualised supervision and its processes and content. As Chapter Two revealed, the delivery of EBPs is certainly not confined to cognitive-behavioural practices; it entails a multitude of practices and skills that should be individualised to the young person (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Brogan et al., 2015; Skuse and Matthews, 2015). Within Wales, interventions with young people are not solely based on manualised programmes. There is a focus on addressing the wider welfare needs of young people with a rights-based framework through various modes of intervention (Haines and Case, 2015; WG/YJB, 2014). Therefore, the term 'programme integrity' may be perceived as limiting the scope of evaluation research as it fails to encompass the broader aspects of service delivery.

The re-conceptualisation of programme integrity is also an important step to help address the misconception that RNR based interventions relate solely to the use of group cognitive-behavioural programmes. Practice integrity involves applying EBPs to a range of front-line service delivery. This is reflective of the growing consensus that every interaction with a service user is an intervention (NOMS, 2014; Maguire and Raynor, 2017; Webster and Kenny 2015). The broader conceptualisation of practice integrity reflects the development of research and practice. In more recent times, there has been a shift away from evaluating the impact of structured RNR programmes to examining the processes of applying EBPs during all aspects of real-world service delivery (Bonta et al., 2017; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Raynor, 2014; Rudes et al., 2017; Trotter, 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). This is reflective of the fact that service delivery does not happen within the vacuum of structured programmes. The re-conceptualisation of practice integrity enables a more in-depth examination of broader areas of practice, which provides us with greater insight into the intricacies of supervision practices. Ultimately, this can help to uncover the practical difficulties of translating the theory

of EBPs into front-line service delivery. Without this insight, we are unable to develop effective practical solutions to bridge the practice integrity gap. Programme integrity has been primarily concerned with designing interventions based on the best available evidence, while practice integrity is about having the skills and capacity to implement EBPs effectively and correctly (Bonta et al., 2017; Raynor et al., 2014; Sorsby et al., 2017; Trotter, 2013b; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Essentially, practice integrity focuses on applying EBPs to the organisational context of the service, as well as, during assessments, intervention planning, one-to-one supervision or while delivering other interventions.

3.3 'Threats' that Undermine Practice Integrity

Organisation factors can play an important role in understanding barriers that impede the implementation of EBPs (Farrell et al., 2017; Rudes et al., 2017). Organisational factors such as inadequate resources; inadequate staff training; a lack of organisational harmony; staff shortages; inadequate administrative support; and constant policy changes can undermine practice integrity (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Clarke et al. 2004; Raynor 2004; Farrell et al., 2011; Rudes et al., 2017). As Taxman and Belenko (2011) note, organisations must be adequately resourced in order to enhance adherence to EBPs. It has been noted that youth justice organisations that have a bureaucratic, paper-oriented and unsupportive styles of management, high staff turnover rates, poor intra-agency communication, poorly paid front-line practitioners and inadequate training create a problematic environment for organisations to be able to implement EBPs and sustain positive practices and change (Almond, 2012; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Farrell et al., 2011; Rudes, et al., 2017; Sutherland, 2009). Organisational issues can be further exacerbated with changes to legislation and policy, particularly those of a punitive nature (see Raynor, 2004; Farrell et al., 2011; Rudes et al., 2017). The youth justice landscape in England and Wales is a continually changing and politicised environment. This has created a confusing and disjointed landscape for youth justice practitioners to navigate and deliver EBPs for young people (see also Morris, 2015). Smith notes, there is a 'body of committed practitioners geared towards promoting

the rights and best interests of children in trouble' (2014a: 116). However, this does not always translate into the delivering EBPs. Farrell et al. note that a 'greater understanding about organisational factors that influence the use of new practices in these tumultuous environments can benefit future change efforts' (2011: 771). Within England and Wales, there is a lack of empirical insight into organisational factors that impede evidence-based service delivery in YOSs. Research that has examined organisational factors and EBPs have predominantly focused on adult populations or have taken place in jurisdictions outside of the UK (see; Glisson and Green, 2006; Hemmelgarn, Glisson, and James, 2006; Henderson et al., 2009; Farrell et al., 2011; Rudes et al., 2017; Taxman et al., 2009). Further insight is required in order to understand to what extent organisational factors affect the delivery of EBPs in Wales.

Hollin (1995) also identifies three key threats to an intervention's/programme's integrity; programme drift, programme reversal and programme non-compliance. These threats mainly pertain to issues with staff and draw further attention to the importance of on-going staff training and clinical supervision in the context of the specific responsivity principle (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). Programme drift refers to a gradual shift in the aims and practice of a service/programme over a period of time (Hollin et al., 2013). Programme drift can be affected by staff turnover. For example, as staff leave a service/programme, the aims of the service/programme may change or not be as focused. Programme reversal refers to the active resistance of staff to undermine or oppose the approaches of a service/programme (Hollin et al., 2013; Rudes et al., 2017). Lastly, programme non-compliance relates to staff deciding to change the service/programme. Subsequently, the programme is not delivered in the intended manner (Hollin et al., 2013). These issues can have a negative effect on practice integrity. Hollin (1995) also notes that evaluations of practice such as independent observations, service user feedback and self-reports from practitioners can help to minimise these threats. This further brings into focus the importance of evaluating services/interventions in order to understand and prevent these factors that can undermine practice integrity.

The implications of organisational issues are highlighted further in the review of the 'pathfinders' programmes (underpinned by the 'what works' literature) in England and Wales. The evaluations of the 'pathfinders' programme produced varied results, highlighting the impact that poor practice integrity can have on outcomes (Raynor 2004; Harper and Chitty 2005). The evaluations of two prison-based programmes – Enhanced Thinking Skills (ETS) and Reasoning and Rehabilitation (R&R) found a statistically significant reduction in reconviction for participating offenders (Friendship et al., 2002). However, a subsequent evaluation found little or no statistical differences between participating offenders in the ETS and R&R programme and non-participants (Falshaw et al., 2003). Furthermore, a third evaluation found that individuals who completed the programmes tended to have lower recidivism rates than those who failed to start programmes and those who failed to complete programmes (Cann et al., 2003). These studies highlight further that implementation issues can undermine practice integrity and outcomes.

Similar findings have emerged from evaluations of youth justice interventions in England and Wales that were based on the 'what works' evidence. The YJB introduced a development fund to support 270 interventions introduced in YOSs across England and Wales (some of which were cognitive-behavioural in nature). Feilzer et al. (2004) conducted a national evaluation of the cognitive-behavioural interventions. The evaluation included 23 projects that were identified as being underpinned by cognitive-behavioural approaches (Feilzer et al., 2004). The evaluation found very limited evidence that staff were employing practices that could be described as 'structured "cognitive-behavioural" programmes' and despite there being programme manuals there was evidence of 'eclectic' individualised approaches (Feilzer et al., 2004: 5). Additionally, the evaluation revealed that for young offenders who participated in these programmes there were high rates of recidivism (80%) amongst those classed as persistent young offenders (potentially higher in risk) (Feilzer et al., 2004). As previously noted, there is a sound evidence base that supports the effectiveness of cognitive-behavioural interventions (general responsibility) (see Andrews and Bonta, 2010a). Therefore, findings suggest these

programmes lacked integrity as they were not being delivered in accordance with the principles of effective practice.

Singh et al.'s (2014) study also revealed evidence of inadequate implementation of the RNR principles. For example, interventions did not match levels of assessed risk (non-adherence to the risk principle), and intervention plans did not focus on addressing criminogenic needs that were identified during risk/need assessments (non-adherence to the need principle) (Singh et al., 2014). Similar findings were echoed by Luong and Wormith's (2011) study. Within England and Wales, studies have also drawn attention to the limited adherence to the RNR principles (see Vennard et al., 1997; Hollin et al., 2004; Sadler, 2010). Vennard et al. (1997) assessed the implementation of the 'what works' model. Their study involved an evaluation of 191 programmes. The study found that only 15 of the 191 programmes used cognitive-behavioural approaches. Another key finding was that most of the staff did not appear to be committed to the 'what works' principles (Vennard et al., 1997). As discussed in Chapter Two (see pages 69-70), providing practitioners with training in the delivery of EBPs can enhance adherence to the responsivity principle and encourage practitioners to use evidence-based supervision skills that are linked to reduction in re-offending (Alexander et al., 2013; Bonta et al., 2011; Landenberger and Lipsey, 2005; Raynor et al., 2014; Robinson et al., 2012; Sorsby et al., 2013).

3.4 Measuring Practice Integrity: The CPAI-2010

Evidently, there are issues with implementing the theory of RNR into practice. The CPAI-2010 is one of the several emerging modes of knowledge transfer which help to bridge the practice integrity gap (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Smith, 2013; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). The CPAI-2010 is an empirically validated inventory underpinned by meta-analytical research on the characteristics of effective offender interventions (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Gendreau et al., 2004; Gendreau et al., 2010). Designed by a small group of Canadian academics, its purpose is to assess the integrity of criminal justice practices. In other words, the CPAI-2010 assesses the

degree to which service delivery adheres to the RNR principles. The CPAI-2010 has been used extensively in Canada and the USA and is regarded as a universally applicable instrument for evaluating virtually all types of offender populations and types (Gendreau et al., 2010). Previous research involving the predecessor of the CPAI-2010 revealed services that obtain high CPAI scores have lower recidivism rates than services that receive low CPAI scores (Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). The CPAI-2010 comprises nine domains that evaluate a wide range of practice areas. Table 1 illustrates the domains of the CPAI-2010 and the number of items examined in each domain.

Table 1. CPAI-2010 Domains

Domain	Number of Items
A. Programme demographics	10 items (not scored)
B. Organisational culture	9 items
C. Programme implementation/maintenance	10 items
D. Management/staff characteristics	18 items
E. Client risk/need practices	13 items
F. Programme characteristics	25 items
G. Core correctional practice	45 items
H. Inter-agency communication	5 items
I. Evaluation	8 items

Domain A of CPAI-2010 does not contribute to the scoring of the evaluation. It is used to gather descriptive information that is used to provide context about the service being evaluated. For example, it generates information about the number of staff employed, how the service users are referred to the organisation and the physical appearance, location and set-up of the service (Gendreau et al., 2010). The eight assessed domains derive from the RNR model and Gendreau et al.’s (2004) conceptualisation of ‘principles of effective correctional treatment’ for real-world application. Gendreau et al. provide a summary of the key elements of the areas of practice examined in the CPAI-2010:

B. Organizational Culture

The organization has a culture that is receptive to implementing new ideas and has a well-articulated code of ethics. A history of responding to new initiatives and coping with problematic issues in a timely manner is evident, as is a proactive orientation to problem solving. Organizational harmony is reflected in low staff turnover, frequent in-service training, and within-house sharing of information.

C. Program Implementation/Maintenance

The implementation of the program is based upon individual level survey data on the need for the service and a thorough review of the relevant treatment literatures. Implementation occurs during a period when the organization does not face contentious issues (e.g., fiscal, staffing levels, stakeholder concerns) that might jeopardize the project.

D. Management/Staff Characteristics

The director of the program has a post-B.A.-level degree in the helping professions and has several years experience working in offender treatment programs. He/she trains and supervises staff and provides direct service to offenders. The majority of staff involved in direct service delivery have undergraduate degrees in the helping professions and clinical experience working with offenders. Staff are hired on relationship and skill factors that enhance the integrity of the therapeutic relationship; moreover, they have a belief in the value of rehabilitation and confidence in their ability (i.e., self efficacy) to deliver quality service. Staff are reassessed and retrained regularly with respect to their clinical skills.

E. Client Risk/Need Practices

Offenders are assessed on a risk instrument that not only has adequate predictive validities but also contains a wide range of criminogenic need factors. The assessment also takes into account the responsiveness of offenders to different styles and modes of service. Risk level is routinely assessed over time (e.g., every three to six months) in order to monitor changes in risk/need levels that will, in turn, have a significant impact on case management strategies.

F. Program Characteristics

The single most important characteristic of effective programs is that they are behaviorally oriented (general responsiveness) and target the criminogenic needs of higher risk offenders...The program has a manual that describes the theory and data justifying the program and a curriculum that details the discrete steps to be followed in presenting the manual...Offenders spend at least 40% of their program time in acquiring prosocial skills. The ratio of reinforcers to punishers is 4 to 1 or more, and completion criteria are explicit. Relapse prevention strategy methods are extended to offenders after completion of the initial treatment phase.

G. Core Correctional Practice

Program therapists engage in the following therapeutic practices:

- Anti-criminal modelling;
- Effective reinforcement and disapproval;
- Problem-solving techniques;
- Structured learning procedures for skill building;
- Effective use of authority;
- Cognitive self-change;
- Relationship practices; and
- Motivational interviewing.

H. Inter-Agency Communication

The agency aggressively makes referrals and advocates for offenders (i.e., advocacy brokerage) so that they receive high-quality services in the community.

I. Evaluation

The agency routinely conducts program audits, consumer satisfaction surveys, evaluations of changes in criminogenic need, and follow-ups of recidivism rates. The effectiveness of the program is evaluated by comparing the recidivism rates of the treatment group with a risk-control no-treatment comparison group or a risk-control comparison group that has undergone an alternate or minimal treatment.

(2004: 27-28).

In order to evaluate a service, data is gathered via interviews with practitioners and service users, observations of supervision sessions and the reviewing specific documents (risk/need assessments, intervention plans, strategic plans etc.). Based on the services adherence to the items contained in the CPAI-2010 they are scored and assessed as either 'unsatisfactory', 'satisfactory' or 'very satisfactory' (see pages 114-124 for a detailed account of the administration and scoring procedures of the CPAI-2010). The scoring system of the CPAI-2010 enables the researcher to ascertain the extent to which the service is aligned to the CPAI-2010 evidence-base (a measure of practice integrity). It also provides the researcher with the opportunity to examine the link between practice integrity and recidivism (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). Services that obtain a 'very satisfactory' score would be expected to have lower rates of recidivism than services who score 'unsatisfactory' on the CPAI-2010 (Gendreau et al., 2010; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). Examining the link between

CPAI-2010 scores and recidivism also serves to validate the CPAI-2010 (Gendreau et al., 2010; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). Several studies on both adult and youth intervention have validated the CPAI by correlating CPAI scores with recidivism data (Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Lowenkamp and Latessa, 2005; Nesovic, 2003; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012).

Previously, Gray (1997) used a shortened version of the CPAI that contained 20 items to evaluate the practice integrity of 67 published evaluations on community-based interventions (Gray did not conduct the evaluations firsthand). The study revealed a link between high practice integrity and lower rates of recidivism. Additionally, Holsinger's (1999) study examined the relationship between the practice integrity and practice outcome of 9 community-based youth justice agencies. The results indicated that CPAI scores are a significant predictor of recidivism outcomes. Nesovic (2003) study used a condensed version of the CPAI to evaluate criminal justice practices based on information contained in published outcome evaluations (Nesovic did not conduct the evaluations firsthand). The findings indicated that higher CPAI scores were associated with larger reductions in recidivism. An analysis of the CPAI scores conducted on 135 youth justice programmes in North America revealed that the average CPAI score fell into the 'unsatisfactory' category (35%) and only 10% of the programmes received a CPAI score or 'very satisfactory' (Hoge et al., 1993). Additionally, Matthews et al.'s (2001) evaluation of 86 criminal justice programmes again highlighted that a small percentage of the programmes received a 'very satisfactory' CPAI score (10%), 55% scored in the 'satisfactory' category and 35% scored in the 'unsatisfactory' category. Furthermore, Gendreau and Goggin (2000) have echoed similar findings. Of the 101 criminal justice programmes evaluated the mean CPAI score was 25% ('unsatisfactory').

To date, Lowenkamp (2004) and Lowenkamp et al. (2006a) have carried out the most comprehensive and extensive studies to link CPAI scores (practice integrity) to practice outcomes (recidivism rates). Lowenkamp et al. (2006a) used a condensed

version of the CPAI (Domain G was not included) to examine 53 community-based 'half-way houses' in Ohio, America. Lowenkamp et al. (2006a) matched more than 3,000 parolees released to half-way houses with a similar set of parolees not released to half-way houses. The finding revealed that interventions with higher practice integrity (higher CPAI scores) were associated with larger reductions in recidivism than interventions that received low CPAI scores (limited practices integrity). Additionally, higher practice integrity was associated with larger reductions in recidivism for offenders receiving interventions from the half-way houses relative to the comparison group (Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). Lowenkamp et al.'s (2006a) study provides further support that adherence to the RNR principles are associated with significant reductions in recidivism. A key finding from CPAI evaluations across all of the studies discussed revealed that the majority of criminal justice agencies/interventions require improvements (Gendreau and Goggin, 2000; Hoge et al., 1993; Matthews et al., 2001; Nesovic, 2003; Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). Smith and Schweitzer's (2012) data base of over 700 CPAI evaluations reveal that approximately 60% are scored as 'unsatisfactory'. In general, these studies highlight that criminal justice agencies in North America scored fairly poorly on the CPAI. However, some of the programmes scored better in certain domains of the CPAI and therefore have some integrity in specific areas of practice. As so many programmes fare poorly on the CPAI, it can be questioned whether the tool is calibrated appropriately? The CPAI does place high expectations on service, some which may be challenging to achieve due to policy and funding restraints (Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). However, some services have been able to achieve 'very satisfactory' scores (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). As noted, Lowenkamp et al.'s (2006) have also revealed that high CPAI scores are associated with lower rates of recidivism. As such, CPAI research further highlights the difficulties that services and practitioners face in terms of implementing the theory of EBPs into front-line service delivery.

3.5 Bridging the Practice Integrity Gap

The aforementioned CPAI evaluations further highlight that EBPs are not efficiently implemented into practice, creating a 'practice integrity gap' (Helmond et al., 2014a; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). The CPAI-2010 can assist in bridging the gulf that exists between the theory of effective practice or 'what works' and front-line practice. Indeed, the CPAI-2010 can help to implement the knowledge of EBPs into real-world settings (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Taxman and Belenko 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). By using the CPAI-2010, this study aims to provide greater insight into the extent to which youth justice services are aligned with the existing evidence base. The CPAI-2010 evaluation process can also enable agencies to identify and explore practices that are linked with positive outcomes such as reducing re-offending (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). The CPAI-2010 can enable YOSs to highlight key areas of practice that can be improved. Importantly, this research can help to provide agencies with the information on how they can align their practice more closely the principles of effective practice (see Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). While the CPAI has been used extensively in North America, there does not appear to have been any published studies that have used the CPAI-2010 to examine practice integrity in the Welsh youth justice system. To date, the CPAI-2000 (previous version of the CPAI-2010) has been used once in the UK. The CPAI-2000 was used to evaluate the practice integrity of one YOS in Wales (see Ugwudike and Raynor, 2012). Therefore, this study is the first of its kind to use the CPAI-2010 to evaluate the practice integrity of several youth justice agencies in Wales. This research seeks to provide insight into the under-researched area of supervision practices in the Welsh youth justice system and help to bridge the practice integrity gap outlined in the existing literature.

However, it is essential to acknowledge that the CPAI-2010 may not be entirely suitable for use in Wales. While the CPAI-2010 has been validated in North American, it cannot be assumed that it is completely transferrable to the Welsh context (Koehler et al., 2013; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). A full account of the issues associated with the CPAI-2010 are addressed on pages 219-227. In

summary, one initial concern pertains to the CPAI-2010 creators advocating that the tool is suitable for evaluating virtually all types of offender populations (Gendreau et al., 2010). As Chapter Two has discussed, the principles of effective practice must be broadened and adapted to include an integrated approach that is youth responsive. The CPAI-2010 does not fully encompass the most recent conceptualisation of the RNR model and other relevant approaches. Within the CPAI-2010, there is a distinct lack of focus on addressing the non-criminogenic needs of young people, as well as, the need to acknowledge their strengths and capabilities. The CPAI-2010 needs to include other promising approaches from desistance, children's rights, and child development in order to incorporate an integrated approach (as discussed in Chapter Two). Consideration must also be given to the CFOS policy and practice context of Wales (see pages 14-20). An evaluation inventory must be sensitive to the context it is evaluating (Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018; Ugwudike et al., 2018). The language contained within the CPAI-2010 is an initial concern for its transferability. The use of the term 'offender' within the CPAI-2010 does not fit with the CFOS ethos. In line with labelling and desistance theories, the term 'offender' is associated with negative connotations that can serve label young people and to reinforce 'offender' self-identities which can impede their ability to stop offending (Becker, 1963; Maruna, 2001; McNeill et al., 2012).

Furthermore, the terminology used within the CPAI-2010 may be perceived as culturally inappropriate or technicised due to its Canadian roots, where terms such as 'treatment modalities' and 'programme' are the norm. As discussed in Chapter Two (see pages 40-41), complex language can limit the accessibility and implementation of EBPs (Polaschek, 2012). Additionally, the use of positive, strengths-based and future-orientated language can help to promote self-efficacy and beliefs about rehabilitation (Maruna, 2001; McNeill et al., 2012; Ward and Maruna, 2007). A change in language may be an essential modification to the CPAI-2010, which can make it more accessible to practitioners and encourage the implementation of EBPs. However, it is essential to distinguish between aspects of the CPAI-2010 that are not accessible or understood by practitioners due to the use of complex terminology and aspects that are not understood due to a lack of

practitioner knowledge and skill set. Evaluation tools must remain evidence-based. Another concern is the financial cost of administering of the CPAI-2010. Each time a CPAI-2010 evaluation is conducted, 1,000 Canadian dollars must be paid to its creators. In order to administer the CPAI-2010, you must undertake training to become an accredited evaluator, which incurs further costs. Given the increased budget cuts to youth justice services, the use of the CPAI-2010 may not be financially viable (YJB, 2017; Children & Young People Now, 2013; Chakley, 2018). Due to these initial concerns of utilising the CPAI-2010, this thesis distinguishes between where youth justice practices justifiably depart from the requirements/expectations of the CPAI-2010 and where departures highlight deficits in practice. This study highlights that evaluations need to be responsive to the policy and practice context of agencies and incorporate all relevant approaches (e.g. RNR, desistance, CFOS, child development etc.). Practitioner feedback can play a crucial role in understanding the practical utility and transferability of the CPAI-2010. Practitioner involvement can help to develop a bottom-up approach to evaluation research as opposed with top-down approaches, which can be met with resistance (Oulton, 2003). In this sense, practitioners can assist in the co-production of knowledge, which can help develop a responsive and user-friendly evaluation tool (Ugwudike et al., 2018). Therefore, this thesis also examines the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for the Welsh context. It draws on practitioner feedback to identify how evaluation instruments can be developed to bridge the practice integrity gap. As such, the following chapter discusses the methodological approach of administering the CPAI-2010 to measure practice integrity and the process of assessing the CPAI-2010's suitability for the Welsh context.

Chapter Four: The Methodological Approach of Stages One and Two – Piloting and Evaluating the CPAI-2010

This study forms part of the broader research agenda of the Southampton Swansea Evaluation Team (SSET). The study is part of a research project led by Dr Pamela Ugwudike (Director of SSET) and was partly funded by the Youth Justice Board Cymru. Chapter Four outlines the methodological approach for stages one and two of the study. Stage one of the study involved a process evaluation of youth justice practices in Wales. The process evaluation utilised the CPAI-2010 in order to assess practice integrity; the degree to which youth justice practices are aligned to Gendreau et al.'s (2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model. The second stage of the research assessed the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for practice settings in Wales as it was developed within the North American context. This phase took a participatory approach where feedback was gained from the practitioners who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations. Stages one and two of the study were designed to address the following research questions:

1. What level of 'practice integrity' do youth justice agencies in Wales possess? (addressed by stage one of the study)
2. What are the barriers for youth justice agencies in Wales to implement the theory of evidence-based practices into front-line practice? (addressed by stage one of the study)
3. Is the CPAI-2010 a suitable evaluation inventory to use within the context of the Welsh youth justice system? (addressed by stage two of the study)

4.1 Utilising a Pragmatic Approach

In order to address the aforementioned research questions, this study employed a mixed methodology by combining qualitative and quantitative modes of data collection. This thesis also took an exploratory approach to the research. An exploratory approach is usually employed when the research area is new (Bryman, 2016). While the area of offender supervision is not 'new', there has been limited insight into the process of supervision in the context of the Welsh youth justice system. Additionally, it was the first time that CPAI-2010 had been used in the UK to evaluate youth justice practices. As such, this research explored the processes of supervision in order to gain greater insight into the approaches currently being used by practitioners and how this can be better aligned to EBPs. This research also explored the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for use in the context of Welsh youth justice. Therefore, a range of relevant methods needed to be utilised in order to meet the needs of the study.

The debate regarding the value of employing a quantitative or qualitative approach to research is well documented (see Bryman, 2016; Robson, 2011; Sarantakos, 2012; Kumar, 2010; Creswell, 2007). The criticisms attributed to combining quantitative and qualitative research approaches have primarily focused on the supposed incompatibility of the epistemological paradigms that underpin each of these approaches (Bryman, 2016; Feilzer, 2010; Scotland, 2012). The debate surrounding ontology and epistemology is largely polarised due to the perceived fundamentally different perspectives of reality and knowledge (see Bryman, 2016; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Feilzer, 2010; Morgan, 2007). Therefore, this study did not align itself to one paradigm and instead took a pragmatic approach to the research. This allowed the research process to be more flexible in its design. Feilzer (2010) notes that a pragmatic approach can assist the researcher in solving practical issues of the real world. This coincides with the purposes of this study which is to: identify areas of good practice, areas of practice that require improvements, provide recommendations that can help to better align the theory of EBPs into front-line work, and examine the suitability of the CPAI-2010. In line with a pragmatic approach, this research contributes 'to useful evaluation, practical problem solving, real-world

decision making, action research, policy analysis, and organisational or community development' (Patton, 2002: 145). As such, the pragmatic approach of this study placed importance on 'using appropriate methods to answer the[ir] research questions' (Noaks and Wincup, 2004: 10) (see also Feilzer, 2010). Berk and Rossi advocate that:

All social science fields have contributed to the development of evaluation research methods. It is not surprising, therefore, that the best evaluation research and the best evaluators draw on a number of disciplines, using an eclectic repertoire of concepts and methods

(1990: 12).

Essentially, what distinguishes evaluation research from other forms of social research is not the methods that evaluators employ but the purpose to which the methods are used (Babbie, 1995). As noted, the CPAI-2010 measures the practice integrity of criminal justice agencies. The CPAI-2010 employs qualitative methods which are used to quantify the level of practice integrity. The scoring of the CPAI-2010 enabled the researcher to make comparisons between YOSs in order to gain a better understanding of the strengths of practices and key areas that require improvements (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). The qualitative data collection methods of the CPAI-2010 also allowed the researcher to gain insight into the processes of front-line service delivery and factors that undermine the implementation of EBPs. Additionally, the use of semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to explore practitioners' experiences of participating in the CPAI-2010 evaluations in order to help ascertain the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for the Welsh context. For the purpose of this study, the mixed methodology enabled the researcher to 'fill the gaps' where important information would not have been accessible by using a single method (Bryman, 2016: 327). This approach coincides with Noaks and Wincup, who advocate that researchers should 'adopt a pragmatic and theoretically coherent approach to data collection' (2004: 10). In this study, the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches complemented each other rather than conflicted with one another and ensured that the most relevant information was gained in order to address the central research questions.

4.2 Stage One: The Methodological Approach of the CPAI-2010 Evaluations

Stage one of the study represented a form of programme evaluation. Patton describes this as the 'the systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics, and outcomes of programs, for use by people to reduce uncertainties, improve effectiveness, and make decisions' (2008: 39). The CPAI-2010 encompasses this with its emphasis on identifying strengths and limitation in service delivery, which can inform training to improve practice (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). Chelimsky (1985) advocates that programme evaluations should examine three broad areas described as descriptive, normative and cause-and-effect. These were important considerations when examining the implementation of EBPs. The descriptive element of programme evaluation is concerned with understanding who is involved with service delivery and what they do (Chelimsky, 1985). The CPAI-2010 facilitates this via its modes of data collection, which enabled the researcher to understand how practitioners deliver interventions to young people. This initial understanding is important in order to examine the normative element. The normative aspect considers whether a programme operates as it is intended to (Chelimsky, 1985). This is essentially concerned with whether an intervention is delivered with integrity. The quantitative scoring of the CPAI-2010 provides a measure of practice integrity and indicates the extent to which service delivery is aligned to the RNR model. Finally, the cause-and-effect element examines whether a programme is successful and if it has worked (produced positive outcomes) (Chelimsky, 1985). The way in which this can be achieved is via an outcome evaluation. This would involve an examination of the link between CPAI-2010 scores and recidivism data. To date, Lowenkamp et al.'s (2006a) study have been the most comprehensive research that has examined the link between CPAI-2010 and recidivism rates. As discussed in Chapter Three (see page 105), their study revealed that interventions with higher levels of practice integrity were more likely to reduce recidivism (Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). Within this thesis, particular attention is placed on understanding 'how things work'. As such, the descriptive and normative element of programme evaluations were of most importance. Understanding the processes of service delivery provides greater insight into the factors that undermine practice integrity. This can help to develop practical solutions

to alleviate issues associated with service delivery and also highlight good area of practice, which coincides with a pragmatic approach. As Stufflebeam and Shinkfield advocate, 'the most important purpose of an evaluation is not to prove but improve' (1985: 151). To concur with Clarke, evaluation research can generate knowledge about 'effective programme development and implementation' (1999: 9). Within this study, an emphasis was placed upon providing relevant feedback to youth justice services through the dissemination of evaluation reports. This feedback sought to highlight the strengths in practice, areas for improvement, and how areas of practice could be improved. Clarke (1999) also notes the importance of feedback in terms of improving practice. A participatory approach was also incorporated into stage one of the study and developed further in stage two. In stage one, stakeholders were involved in the CPAI-2010 evaluations. Participatory approaches are important as they can enhance stakeholders' sense of ownership, promote engagement and increase the likelihood that stakeholders will take on board the recommendations of the evaluation, which may help to produce positive outcomes for young people (Chouinard, 2013; Cousins 2003; Greene 2006; Cousins and Chouinard, 2012).

The CPAI-2010

As outlined in Chapter Three (see pages 100-103), the CPAI-2010 is an evidence-based assessment tool underpinned by meta-analytical research on the characteristics of effective offender interventions (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Gendreau et al., 2004; Gendreau et al., 2010; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). Its purpose is to assess the practice integrity of criminal justice interventions. Essentially, the CPAI-2010 indicates the extent to which a programme/service/intervention is aligned to Gendreau et al.'s (2004; 2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model. The CPAI-2010 has been used extensively in North America and is regarded as being widely applicable for evaluating virtually all types of offender populations and types (Gendreau et al., 2010). As discussed in Chapter Three (see pages 103-105), interventions that score highly on the CPAI have lower recidivism rates than interventions that receive low CPAI scores (Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). However, this is the first time that the CPAI-2010 has been used in the UK to evaluate youth justice services. This

raises concerns about the transportability and applicability of the instrument. Stage two of the study explored this issue further through feedback with practitioners (see pages 214-227).

The CPAI-2010 contains nine domains comprising a total of 143 items; 10 of these items are not scored (Domain A). Each item is scored either ‘yes’, ‘no’ or ‘not applicable’. The nine domains are illustrated in Table 6, along with the number of items scored within each domain.

Table 6: Domains and Number of Items Contained in the CPAI-2010

Domain	Number of Items
A. Programme demographics	10 items (not scored)
B. Organisational culture	9 items
C. Programme implementation/maintenance	10 items
D. Management/staff characteristics	18 items
E. Client risk/need practices	13 items
F. Programme characteristics	25 items
G. Core correctional practice	45 items
H. Inter-agency communication	5 items
I. Evaluation	8 items

Domain A of the CPAI-2010 is not scored but is used to gain demographic information about the organisation being evaluated. A summary of principles of effective practice which each domain evaluates are as follows (see also Chapter Three, pages 101-104):

- B. Organisational Culture - assesses a variety of indicators such as the organisation’s ability to respond to new initiatives; staff turnover; information sharing processes; self-evaluation; organisational harmony and documentation of the goals/vision of the organisations (Gendreau et al., 2010).
- C. Programme Implementation/Maintenance - examines items related to how the organisation was established and the need for the service. Additionally,

it examines how the organisation continues to be maintained (e.g. funding) and whether the organisation has conducted a review of relevant research literature in order to identify the most effective EBPs (Gendreau et al., 2010).

- D. Management/Staff Characteristics - examines the qualifications, experience, stability, training, supervision and involvement of the staff. Additionally, it evaluates how staff are selected to work within a particular role and with specific young people. Staff members considered in this section include all full-time, part-time, internal and external providers who deliver services and support directly to the young people (Gendreau et al., 2010).
- E. Client Risk/Need Practices - examines how the service assesses risk, need and responsivity factors (Gendreau et al., 2010).
- F. Programme Characteristics – examines whether or not interventions target criminogenic needs. It examines if the risk principle is effectively applied in practice. Additionally, it evaluates: the types of techniques (e.g. pro-social modelling, cognitive-behavioural therapy etc.) that are used to target criminogenic behaviours; the use of positive reinforcement and disapproval; the methods used to train the young people in new pro-social skills; the provision and quality of aftercare services; and the use of relapse prevention strategies designed to assist young people in anticipating and coping with problem situations (the responsivity principle) (Gendreau et al., 2010).
- G. Core Correctional Practices – is scored by direct observations. It evaluates whether practitioners employ the following CCPs: the effective use of authority, anti-criminal modelling and reinforcement (pro-social modelling), problem-solving, the use of community resources and the quality of interpersonal relationships (see Andrews and Kiessling, 1980; Dowden and Andrews, 2004, Trotter, 1996, 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015) (see also Table 4 for a description of these skills). Additionally, the use of motivational interviewing and cognitive restructuring are assessed (see also Table 5 for a description of these skills). As noted previously, the use of these skills have been linked to a reduction in attrition and recidivism in adult and youth justice settings (Andrews and Kiessling 1980; Dowden and Andrews 2004; Raynor et al. 2014; Lipsey 2009; Trotter 2013a; 2012b; Trotter and Evans 2012; Trotter et al. 2015).

- H. Inter-agency communication - examines the advocacy and brokerage services available to the young people and the service's inter-agency communication (Gendreau et al., 2010).
- I. Evaluation - assesses quality assurance and evaluation processes used to monitor how well the service is functioning. Specifically, this section examines the type of feedback, assessment, and evaluations used to monitor interventions for their effectiveness (Gendreau et al., 2010).

The CPAI-2010's Modes of Data Collection and Scoring Procedures

In order to conduct a CPAI-2010 evaluation, you must become an accredited assessor. To date, the researcher is one of only two accredited CPAI-2010 evaluators in the UK. The accreditation process involves undertaking rigorous training in RNR theory, research and practice in order to ensure that the CPAI-2010 is administered as intended. The CPAI-2010 is also subject to strict copyright laws and as such full details of the exact items contained in the inventory are not permitted to be shared publicly. The CPAI-2010 instrument predetermined the data collection methods for stage one of the study. In order to complete a CPAI-2010 evaluation, a number of data collection methods must be used. These include a review of relevant documentation associated with service delivery, structured interviews with practitioners and young people, and observations of supervision sessions and interactions between the young people and practitioners. A total of 50 sessions were observed across the five participating services, involving 27 practitioners and 44 young people. Additionally, 45 practitioners and 35 young people were interviewed as part of the CPAI-2010 evaluations (see page 124-129 for a full overview of the sample).

The CPAI-2010 requires the evaluator to ask specific questions during the structured interviews with participants, which are contained within the CPAI-2010 manual⁵. The

⁵ It was not possible to include a copy of the CPAI-2010 manual in an appendix due to copyright issues.

manual ensured that relevant information was collected in order to address the needs of the study (Bryman, 2016). The interviews with practitioners were conducted informally in order to make them feel at ease and build rapport (Robson, 2011). The interviews were also audio-recorded and detailed notes were also taken. These notes outlined key points from each interview and also assisted in the scoring of the relevant CPAI-2010 domains.

The CPAI-2010 also requires service users to be interviewed. The purpose of this was to verify the information provided by the practitioners and it helped to provide a more coherent picture of service delivery. The use of structured interviews with young people can be questioned in terms of their inflexibility, which can make it difficult to build rapport. While the use of alternative methods such as focus groups or even visual data collection may be a more engaging means of data collection for young people, these tend to veer off focus (Bryman, 2016; Glaw et al., 2017). Although rich and often unexpected data can be generated from these methods, the information needed to inform the evaluation may not have emerged. As such, the structured nature of the interviews ensured that the needs of the evaluation were addressed. A key benefit of the use of interviews was the face-to-face element. For example, if a young person had low literacy levels, they may not have been able to participate in the study if a self-administered questionnaire had been used. Self-administered questionnaires could have potentially excluded young people from the study, which is not in keeping with a participatory approach. As such, the face-to-face aspect enabled the researcher to build rapport and clarify any misunderstandings. In order to make the young people feel comfortable, the researcher firstly engaged in general conversation with the young person to make them feel more at ease. During the interviews, the researcher also used her discretion to re-phrase the questions to ensure that they were accessible to the young people. The questions were re-phrased in a manner that was closely aligned to the original CPAI-2010 questions in order to maintain the validity of the scoring. Often North American terminology was replaced with more accessible British terminology. For example, the CPAI-2010 refers to the YOS as a programme. Such terminology may have been confusing for the young people. As such, the term

'programme' was replaced by 'YOS' when interviewing the young people. Additionally, while the questions were structured, there was scope to probe for additional information. Gendreau et al. (2010) also advocate that the questions serve as a guide, and additional probing is welcomed. The structured interviews ensured that the data gathered was relevant and helped to inform the scoring of the CPAI-2010, as this was the primary focus of the interviews. However, there is limited capacity within the CPAI-2010 to fully express the views of the young people. The CPAI-2010 does not contain a domain that is solely scored by the interviews with young people. Given the CFOS policy and practice context of Wales, young peoples' voice should be given due regard in line with Article 12 of the UNCRC (1989) (see Chapter One, pages 14-20). As such, this limits the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for Wales. The implications of this are discussed in greater detail in Chapters Five and Six (see pages 214-227 and 244-248).

Observations formed an integral element of the CPAI-2010 evaluations. The scoring of Domain G relies on direct observations of supervision sessions and general interactions between the practitioners and young people. The evaluator used structured, non-participant observations to assess the practitioners' use of supervision skills (see Bryman, 2016). Andrews and Kiessling note, observations are a 'powerful method of assessing supervisory processes' (1979: 42). Observations enabled the researcher to capture naturally occurring data and they helped to provide greater insight into the precise processes of supervision (Bryman, 2016). To date, what occurs in supervision sessions with young people has remained largely unknown. The use of observations also helped to provide valuable insight into the factors that may undermine practice integrity. Research conducted by Raynor et al. (2014) also demonstrates the value of observations as a means of data collection. Via the use of observations, Raynor et al.'s (2014) provided insight into supervision processes and revealed that practitioners who used a range of supervision skills were more likely to reduce re-offending. Understanding how supervision skills are implemented or not implemented can also help to identify the training needs of the practitioners in order to enhance practice.

Prior to the CPAI-2010 evaluations taking place, the researcher discussed with the service managers the possibility of video recording supervision sessions. Raynor et al.'s (2014) study also used video recording to assess the skills of practitioners. This provides the researcher with several opportunities to review the skills of practitioners, which can help to improve the reliability of the scoring. Additionally, the recordings could have been used for subsequent research. For example, specific aspects of supervisions practices could have been examined, such as the practitioners' use of language to engage with young people, which is an important element of practice developments in Wales (YJB, 2015) (see pages 58-59). However, for this study, it was not possible to video record the session. As the participants were (often vulnerable) children, there were concerns over child protection issues and the storage of data. All of the service managers stated that the service would need approval from the local authority for the supervisions sessions to be recorded, and organisational risk assessments would need to be undertaken. Due to time limitations, it was not possible to pursue video recordings. The researcher was also mindful that the young people might feel uncomfortable for any video or audio recording of their supervision sessions to be obtained and stored, as they may disclose personal and sensitive information despite there being strict confidentiality and anonymity procedures in place. The prospect of being audio or video recorded may have potentially led to the young people declining to participate in the evaluation. A lack of participation from the young people would have adversely affected the evaluations. If Domain G of the CPAI-2010 is not completed, the entire evaluation is rendered invalid (Gendreau et al., 2010). Therefore, the priority was to ensure as many young people were willing to participate as possible. As such, it was decided that the session would not be audio/video recorded.

For the CPAI-2010 evaluations, all of the participants were aware that they were being observed. It is well documented that participants may change their behaviour as a result of being watched (Kumar, 2010). Participants may feel the effect of social desirability and may behave in a manner that they think the researcher wants to observe (Bryman, 2016). Additionally, as previously mentioned, the young people may also feel reluctant to engage in the session with their case manager as they

may feel uncomfortable to discuss personal and sensitive issues in essentially the presence of a stranger. As such, every attempt was made to ensure that the observations were as unobtrusive as possible. The researcher also took a neutral stance and was positioned out of the eye-line of the practitioners and young people. The researcher was not involved in any interactions between the young people and practitioners during the sessions in order to avoid altering the natural behaviour of the participants. This coincided with a non-participant approach and helped to make the participants feel more at ease (Bryman, 2016). Field notes were also taken and helped to score Domain G of the CPAI-2010.

The CPAI-2010 also requires the researcher to view specific documents. The following documents were reviewed in order to gather additional data about service delivery:

- Case files held in respect of young people subject to a statutory order
- Risk assessment information
- Intervention plans
- Intervention manuals
- Mission statements
- Operational guidance provided by the YJB
- Inspection Reports*
- Performance reports*
- Strategic Business Plans*
- Compliance framework*
- Code of conduct manuals
- Performance reports
- Information leaflets for service users

(*These were available in YOS 3, 4 and Secure Estate 1).

The reviewing of specific documents formed an important part of validating the information gathered from the interviews with the practitioners and young people.

For example, item D16 examines whether 'staff are assessed annually on their clinical skills related to service delivery and whether they have bi-monthly clinical supervision'. To score this item with confidence, the evaluator must view documentation to this effect; it would not be sufficient to score this item just on the responses from the practitioners. For example, if the practitioners stated that their skills are clinically assessed the evaluator would need to view the related assessments. Essentially, all three modes of data collection are important as they allowed for methodological triangulation. The use of multiple methodologies enabled the researcher to cross-check the findings and corroborate the information provided from multiple sources (Bryman, 2016). This helped to increase the confidence in the scoring and the validity of the results.

It is important to acknowledge that the CPAI-2010 does not specify a set number of interviews or observations that are required to complete an evaluation. As such, the concept of saturation derived from Grounded Theory was valuable for the researcher as it helped to shape the sample size and enhance the validity of the CPAI-2010 scoring. Saturation occurs when the researcher is confident that no additional or new information is going to be obtained from further data collection (Bryman, 2012; Sarantakos, 2012; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The concept of saturation was applied to each of the CPAI-2010 items and each of the participating services. For example, when examining items within Domain (e.g. G28 – staff give encouraging messages) it would not be sufficient to observe one supervision session where a member of staff displays this skill. The researcher must observe several sessions and with other practitioners until the researcher is satisfied that they can confidently score the item 'yes' or 'no'. The researcher must also be confident that they have consistently observed the skill being present or absent in practice. As such, interviews and observations were undertaken until no new themes or information emerged during the evaluation, thus reaching saturation point. Reaching saturation helped to ensure that the CPAI-2010 evaluations were reliable, and this shaped the sample size of the study.

To calculate how an organisation performed in each domain, the evaluator adds together the number of items that were scored ‘yes’ in that section. The evaluator then converts the total number of ‘yes’ scores into a percentage from the total number of applicable items in that Domain. For example, if 4 ‘yes’ scores were observed in Domain B from the applicable 8 items, the percentage score for that domain would be 50%. Based on the percentage score, each domain is then rated as either very satisfactory (70% or greater), satisfactory (50% to 69%), or unsatisfactory (49% or less) (see Table 7). Not all of the 8 domains are given equal weighting in relation to the scoring. The items scored within domains E, F and G are highly correlated with positive outcomes, such as reductions in re-offending (Gendreau et al., 2010; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). As a result, the evaluator also calculates the ‘treatment’ score, which is the combined score of Domains E and F. To calculate the overall CPAI-2010 score, the scores within each of the 8 domains are totalled to provide an overall raw score (e.g. 75/133), which is then converted into a percentage score of the total number of applicable items in all 8 sections (e.g. $75/133 = 56.4\%$). The overall percentage score (practice integrity) corresponds to a classification set out in Table 7. The scoring of the CPAI-2010 allows the progress and comparative performance of services to be tracked without undertaking (lengthy and costly) outcome evaluations prematurely (Gendreau et al., 2010).

Table 7: Classification of CPAI-2010 Scores (Measure of Practice Integrity)

Classification	Practice Integrity (%)
Very Satisfactory	70+
Satisfactory	50-69
Unsatisfactory	Below-50

A confidence rating (CR) for each item is also provided in order to enhance reliability and reduce subjective scoring. This reflects the evaluator’s level of confidence that the information they have been provided is accurate by either direct observations or

by other sources. A five-point scale is used to score the CR, 5 indicates strong confidence in the information provided to score the item, 3 indicates moderate confidence and 1 indicates that the evaluator is unsure of the reliability of their rating for that particular item. If the overall CR of the evaluation is less than 3, the findings of the evaluation should be viewed with a degree of caution. Additionally, if the average CR for domains E, F and G are less than 3, the overall rating of the CPAI-2010 evaluation is incomplete (Gendreau et al., 2010). In order to increase the reliability of the results, another evaluator conducted the CPAI-2010 evaluations with the researcher. The two evaluators who assisted in the CPAI-2010 evaluations also participated in the CPAI-2010 accreditation training⁶ and have extensive experience working within the youth justice system. One evaluator was a Youth Justice Practice Advisor for the YJB and former YOS practitioner and the other evaluator was a Service Manager of a YOS⁷. The involvement of a second evaluator helped to enhance the inter-rater reliability of the scoring. Consistencies and discrepancies in the data were discussed and resolved (Lietz, Langer and Furman, 2006; Gendreau et al., 2010). Additionally, the results were discussed with the researcher's supervisors. This again allowed for inter-rater reliability, where the information was analysed and reviewed. The accreditation process also helped to assist in addressing problems of subjectivity and bias, which can undermine the reliability of the scoring (Durlak and DuPre 2008). The training ensured that the CPAI-2010 was administered and scored as intended.

The results of the CPAI-2010 evaluation were disseminated to the service managers in the form of an in-depth report. The reports included: the scoring summary, overall classification, qualitative evidence and recommendations. Providing feedback to the services was important as it gives them information about the extent to which their practices are consistent with EBPs and how they can improve service delivery (Smith and Schewitzer, 2012; Gendreau et al., 2010). As noted in Chapter Three (see pages 106-108), the CPAI-2010 is one of several emerging modes of knowledge transfer

⁶ The supporting evaluators were unable to complete the CPAI-2010 accreditation process due to work commitments.

⁷ It should be noted that the Service Manager did not conduct an evaluation on their own YOS.

that can help bridge the gulf between theory and its implementation into real-world practices (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Previous research has highlighted the positive impact that CPAI-2010 evaluations have on practitioners in terms of developing their understanding and use of EBPs (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Smith, 2013). The usefulness of the reports is also reflected by the feedback gain from the managers and practitioners in this study (see page 215).

4.3 The Sample

As previously noted, this research formed part of a larger project funded by the YJB Cymru. Initially, the research was undertaken under the premise of evaluating YOSs who were engaged in the YJB's Enhanced ECM Project (see Matthews, 2018; Skuse and Matthews, 2015) (see Chapter One, pages 19-23 for an overview of the TRM and ECM). As such, the study employed a non-probability sampling technique of purposive sampling. This form of non-probability sampling is commonly used in exploratory research (Sarantakos, 2012). It is important to note that unlike probability sampling techniques, purposive sampling is not representative of the population and therefore, results are not generalisable (Bryman, 2012). However, to coincide with Alston and Bowles, this was 'not the point of the research' (2003: 87). Purposive sampling enabled the researcher 'to satisfy specific needs in a project' (Robson, 2011: 275). This form of sampling assisted the researcher in gaining access and selecting managers and practitioners who were most involved in the delivery of interventions to young people, as well as, the daily running and management of the service. This further enabled the collection of the most relevant data.

Access to participants can often be a complex and lengthy process, particularly within an institutional context (Rex, 1999). Surprisingly, for this study, access was relatively straightforward and required minimal negotiation. There was a clear willingness from the managers and practitioners to engage in the evaluation process. This may be partly attributed to them being engaged as key stakeholders. There was

an emphasis placed on the value of their feedback in order to understand the usefulness and limitations of the CPAI-2010. Access was also facilitated by the ongoing research link that SSET has with the YJB Cymru. In terms of access and establishing the sample, emails were sent to each YOS manager explaining the purpose of the research and meetings were arranged with each service to discuss in further detail what the CPAI-2010 evaluations entailed. After meeting with the YOS managers and the Statutory Orders Teams (SOT), practitioners were invited to participate in the study. Following this, young people were also invited to participate in the study. Information sheets were sent to each YOS and the practitioners distributed the relevant documents and information to the young people. The same procedures were also employed within Secure Estate 1 (see pages 134-140 for a detailed discussion of the ethical procedures that relate to the recruitment of participants).

Participant Criteria:

The participant criteria for the YOS workers are as follows:

- Participants must work within one of the YOSs involved in the ECM pilot.
- Participants must either be involved in providing direct service delivery to young people or be in a management role that involves the oversight of front-line service delivery.
- Participants must volunteer to participate in the study.

The participating practitioners informed the young people under their supervision about the research and sought permission for the researcher to talk to them about the study.

The participant criteria for the young people included:

- Participants must be serving a statutory court order in one of the YOSs involved in the ECM pilot.
- Participants must have at least three months left to serve on their order.
- Participants' case managers must have consented to participate in the study.
- Participants must volunteer to participate in the study.

- Participants must be capable of understanding what participation in study entails.

The Secure Estate was not involved in the ECM pilot but were included for further comparison between the practices of community-based and custodial-based services. The criteria for the Secure Estate workers included:

- Participants must either be involved in providing direct service delivery to the young people or be in a management role that primarily oversees service delivery.
- Participants must volunteer to participate in the study.

Again, the participating practitioners informed the young people under their supervision about the research. The practitioners then proceeded to seek permission for the researcher to talk to the young people about the research.

The participant criteria for the young people included:

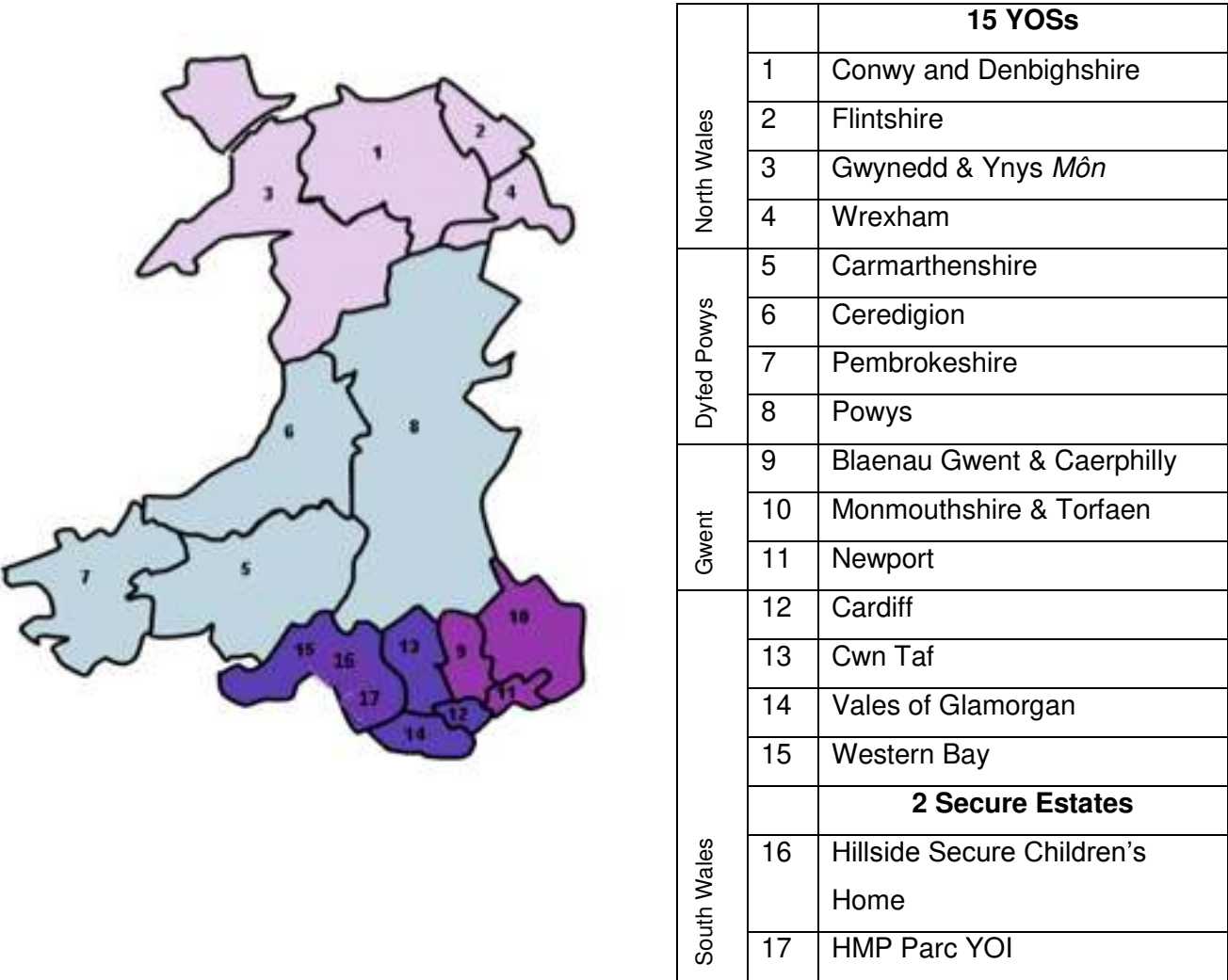
- Participants must be serving a statutory court order and must have at least three months left to serve on their order.
- Participants' case managers must have consented to participate in the study.
- Participants must volunteer to participate in the study.
- Participants must be capable of understanding their participation in this research.
- Participants must be capable of understanding what participation in study entails.

Sampling Size and Demographics

The sample for this study was selected from YOSs and Secure Estates in Wales. Within Wales, there are 15 YOSs, one Young Offenders Institution (YOI) and one Secure Children's Home (SCH). The YOSs are positioned throughout Wales, and

the YOI and SCH are located in the South Wales area. Figure 2. demonstrates the distribution of youth justice services in Wales.

Figure 2. Youth Justice Services in Wales



(Source adapted from: YJB Cymru, 2015).

Four YOSs and one Secure Estate participated in the evaluations. The CPAI-2010 evaluations primarily focused on the Statutory Orders Teams (SOTs). It was decided that SOTs would be the focus of the evaluations as they usually supervise the medium to high risk of re-offending young people, which coincides with the focus of the CPAI-2010 (Gendreau et al., 2010). SOTs supervise young people who are

servicing court-imposed statutory orders. Young people are referred to the SOT if they have received a referral order (RO), youth rehabilitation order (YRO), detention and training order (DTO) and intensive supervision and surveillance (ISS). At the time of the CPAI-2010 evaluations (November 2014 to May 2015), the SOTs were supervising a total of 265 young people. YOIs are essentially prisons for 15 to 17-year olds. YOIs are run in accordance to the Young Offender Institution Rules 2000, which are effectively the equivalent of the 1999 Prison Rules that apply to adult prisons in England and Wales. Young people who are sentenced to DTOs can be detained in YOIs from four months to two years. For young people who commit serious offences, the Crown Court is able to give longer sentences of a maximum of 14 years of imprisonment, under section 91 of the Powers and Criminal Courts Act 2000. Additionally, the Crown Court may also imprison a young person at the detention of Her Majesty's Pleasure. This is a mandatory life sentence imposed when a young person pleads guilty to murder. Section 21 of the Criminal Justice Act 2003 states that the minimum sentence for a young person under the age of 18 years old is 12 years. At the time of the study, Secure Estate 1 was at maximum capacity, supervising 64 young people.

Table 8 illustrates the number of participants involved in the study. This is broken down in terms of how many practitioners and young people participated in each element of the data collection. It should be noted that all of the young people involved in this study were assessed (via Asset see Chapters Two, pages 76-77) as being either medium or high risk of re-offending.

Table 8. Sample Size of Participants Involved in the CPAI-2010 Evaluations

	Number of staff interviewed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of staff observed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of sessions observed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of young people interviewed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of young people observed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of young people receiving a statutory order during the evaluation	Number of staff interviewed for CPAI-2010 feedback
YOS 1	8	4	7	5	5	79	6
YOS 2	10	5	8	6	6	28	8
YOS 3	10	5	11	5	6	67	7
YOS 4	10	6	12	8	7	27	6
SECURE ESTATE 1	7	7	12	11	20	64	0
Total	45	27	50	35	44	265	27

4.4 The Methodological Approach of Stage Two: Evaluation Responsivity

As discussed, stage one of the study examined adherence to the RNR model. Stage two explored the evaluation responsivity of the CPAI-2010 (Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017). In regard to evaluation responsivity, it is important to recognise that elements of an evaluation inventory developed in one jurisdiction might not be wholly relevant or responsive to the policy and practice context of another jurisdiction. Practitioners are more likely to engage in the evaluation process and implement recommendations if they can see the value and relevance of the evaluation (Chouinard, 2013; Cousins 2003; Greene 2006). Clarke also notes:

The evaluator needs to give some consideration to the situational factors in evaluation practice, that is the organisational conditions and political circumstances in which evaluations are conducted, as these will undoubtedly have a bearing on the dissemination and implementation of the findings

(1999: 17).

It is essential to acknowledge that there are limitations associated with utilising the CPAI-2010 in England and Wales. As noted in Chapter Three, the language used within the CPAI-2010 does not necessarily fit the CFOS context of Wales. Additionally, the CPAI-2010 fails to incorporate an integrated RNR model and also fails to recognise the broader roles of YOSs in regard to the CFOS policy and practice context. Additionally, as noted in Chapter One (see page 30), the CPAI-2010 assesses services/interventions against a fictional and ideal intervention. The CPAI-2010 comprises items of what is currently known about effective service delivery and represents a certain theoretical perspective on what a 'perfect' service would like. The CPAI-2010's conceptualisation of the 'perfect' service may not be entirely suitable for youth justice practices. It may also be unrealistic for services to achieve high CPAI-2010 scores, particularly in the context of sustained budget cuts to YOSs (YJB, 2017; Chalkley, 2018). Services need to be adequately resourced to be able to implement EBPs (Taxman and Belenko, 2011). In order for services to obtain a high CPAI-2010 score, the service would have to be as closely aligned to the effective evidence base, and few services have been able to achieve this (see

Lowenkamp et al., 2006b; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). Indeed, no service has received an overall 100% CPAI score (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). This was explained to services before evaluations took place in order to manage their expectations and staff morale. Additionally, as the CPAI-2010 assesses real-world practice, there is a lack of insight into how practitioners understand and interpret and make sense of the RNR principles (see Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Further limitations of the CPAI-2010 are discussed from the perspective of practitioners in Chapter Five (see pages 214-227). Due to these initial concerns, the suitability of the CPAI-2010 needed to be explored.

The aforementioned policy and practice context of Wales meant that the CPAI-2010 needed to be adapted to ensure that relevant and meaningful evaluations are conducted (Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017). In order to assess the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for the Welsh context, it was essential to gain feedback from practitioners who participated in CPAI-2010 evaluations. The practitioners involved in the CPAI-2010 evaluations were engaged as key stakeholders. This stage recognised that the practitioners could co-produce knowledge, which helped to identify issues with the CPAI-2010 (Cousins and Shulha 2006; Patton, 1982) As such, stage two facilitated the opportunity for practitioners to have a say in processes and activities that affect their front-line work and represented a bottom-up approach to evaluation research. This approach helped to engage practitioners in the research process (Barber 1984; Oulton, 2003). The practitioners provided valuable insight into the strengths and limitations of the CPAI-2010, which informed the design of the YJEI (see Chapter Six).

Practitioner Insight: Semi-Structured Interviews

In order to capture the views of the practitioners and assess evaluation responsiveness, semi-structured interviews were used. This enabled the researcher to gain in-depth, qualitative information (Kumar, 2010). Unlike the structured interviews of the CPAI-2010 evaluations, the semi-structured interviews did not follow a rigid structure. Neither was the wording fixed or asked in a pre-set order (Robson, 2011). An

advantage of this was that it allowed the practitioners to speak freely in their own words, resulting in a greater variety of information (Kumar, 2010; Bryman, 2012). Due to the flexible nature of semi-structured interviews, practitioners had considerable input into the direction and focus of the discussion. Practitioners were free to change the course of discussion surrounding the utility of the CPAI-2010 evaluations. This resulted in rich and deep data being collected and facilitated the production of knowledge, which helped to inform stage four of this study (Clarke, 1999) (see Chapters Five and Six).

Self-complete questionnaires were also considered as a means of data collection. However, questionnaires are notorious for low response rates and attrition. For example, Oppenheim notes how 'postal questionnaires may easily produce a response rate below 40 per cent' (1992: 50). This would have altered the sample size of the study and would have resulted in a smaller amount of data being collected. The researcher employed a conversational style of interviewing, and the face-to-face element of the interviews enabled the researcher to build rapport with the participants. This made the interview feel less formal, which helped to make the participants feel more at ease (Bryman, 2012; Robson, 2011). The face-to-face element also allowed for any misunderstandings in terms of the questions to be explained clearly to the participants. This enabled the practitioners to give informed responses, which in turn decreased the chance of obtaining ambiguous data. Additionally, the face-to-face aspect allowed for non-verbal cues to be picked up on (Robson, 2011). Although this was not an ethnographic study, from a pragmatic perspective, this helped to understand the participants' responses to the question and when it was appropriate to enquire further. One limitation of using semi-structured interviews pertains to their subjective nature. There is an increased chance of interviewer bias in the framing of the questions (Bryman, 2012). However, when devising the interview schedule, it was ensured that no leading questions were included (see Appendix 2). For example, practitioners were asked questions such as 'how did you find the CPAI-2010 evaluation process?' The use of open questions also enabled the participants to respond freely. Essentially, the interview schedule

served as a guide to ensure all relevant aspects of the central research questions were covered.

Semi-Structured Interviews: Data Analysis

The analysis of the data collected from the semi-structured interviews drew on Strauss and Corbin's (1998) Grounded Theory approach. The data analysis utilised open, axial and selective coding. The analysis of the semi-structured interviews was also facilitated by NViVO-10; a software package that assists in the qualitative analysis of transcripts. The transcripts of the semi-structured interviews were uploaded to NViVO as raw data. The initial process of data analysis involved open coding. Strauss and Corbin describe this as the 'process of breaking down, examining, comparing and categorising data' (1990: 61). In this process, provisional concepts were developed and were later grouped into categories (Bryman, 2016). The raw data was then transformed into concepts by attaching labels or 'codes' to keywords that interpret them. This enabled the researcher to identify them for further analysis. Memos (notes) were also used to ensure that there was a consistent understanding of the 'codes' throughout the analysis. Charmaz and Bryant advocate that memos:

Engages researchers with their data and emerging comparative analyses...helps them to identify analytic gaps... provides material for sections of papers and chapters... encourages researchers to record and develop their ideas at each stage of the research project

(2008: 375).

Open coding was a non-linear process. As more data was collected, new concepts emerged. Essentially, the data analysis was an iterative process (Benaquisto, 2008a). Central to this process was the microanalysis (line-by-line analysis) of the data (Benaquisto, 2008a). The concepts were used as 'building blocks' for further analysis and understanding of the data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). During open coding, comparisons were made across each transcript, which assisted in accounting for the different demographics of the participants. Once no new concepts were found during open coding, axial coding was then undertaken. Strauss and Corbin describe axial coding as a 'set of procedures whereby data are put back

together in new ways after open coding, by making connections between categories' (1990: 96). Axial coding is essentially the process of relating codes with one another. In this phase, categories were developed systematically by examining the relationship between codes and themes. This was achieved by linking codes to context, events (structure – relates to the where, when and why), actions, interactions (process – relates to the strategies and responses) and consequences (relations to the outcomes) (Benaquisto, 2008b; Böhm, 2004; Bryman, 2016). Essentially, this phase enabled the researcher to synthesise and organise the data into more coherent and structured categories. Selective coding was then undertaken when no new categories emerged. Strauss and Corbin describe selective coding as the 'procedure of selecting the core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships, and filling in categories that need further refinement and development' (1990: 116). This involved the integration of the categories found in the axial coding, which were used to develop a core category (Benaquisto, 2008c). The approach used to analyse the interviews provided a structured and coherent means of data analysis and also provided the researcher with a deeper understanding of the practitioners' views of the CPAI-2010 (Bryman, 2016). The results from the data analysis are discussed in detail in Chapter Five (see pages 214-227).

4.5 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations were essential during the planning, data collection and dissemination stages of this study. The research was guided by the British Society of Criminology (BSC) (2015) *Statement of Ethics*, which emphasises the importance of voluntary consent and a commitment to minimising harm. Before any fieldwork commenced ethical approval was granted by Swansea University's College of Law and Criminology Ethics Committee (see Appendix 3 for the application and Appendix 4 for the approval confirmation). When considering potential ethical dilemmas that might occur during the study, the researcher also drew on the core ethical principles of biomedicine put forth by Beauchamp and Childress (2009). In their simplest terms the four principles are: autonomy, which is concerned with respecting the decisions

and actions of individuals; nonmaleficence, is concerned with avoiding doing any harm to individuals; beneficence, is concerned with providing some form of benefit for individuals; and justice, is concerned with ensuring fairness and equity in the distributive of resources (Beauchamp and Childress, 2009). For this study, nonmaleficence and autonomy were of most relevance. While these ethical principles did not provide a framework for clear and straightforward solutions to ethical dilemmas, they did provide the researchers with the conceptual space to reflect on and explore ethical dilemmas more clearly and deeply in order to understand them (Alderson and Morrow, 2011). Each of the principles was taken at *prima facie* (face value), in which 'a principle is a duty on all occasions unless it is in conflict with equal or stronger duties' (Beauchamp and Childress, 2009: 15). Essentially, these principles were not binding. The researcher could override any of the principles in favour of another to provide a 'greater balance of right over wrong in circumstances when there is a conflict between these four principles' (Beauchamp and Childress, 2009: 15).

Robson and McCartan also provide useful examples of unethical practices that must be avoided. These include the following:

1. Involving people without their knowledge or consent
 2. Coercing them to participate
 3. Withholding information about the true nature of the research
 4. Otherwise deceiving the participant
 5. Inducing them to commit acts diminishing their self-esteem
 6. Violating rights of self-determination (e.g. in studies seeking to promote individual change)
 7. Exposing participants to physical or mental stress
 8. Invading their privacy
 9. Withholding benefits from some participants (e.g. in comparison groups).
 10. Not treating participants fairly, or with consideration, or with respect
- (2016: 211).

These examples also assisted the researcher in designing ethically compliant research. As this study involved children, ethical considerations became even more heightened (Alderson and Morrow, 2011; Tisdall et al., 2009). As Tisdall et al. (2009) advocate, issues surrounding confidentiality, anonymity and informed consent

become even more pertinent because of the participant's 'child' status, which is reflected in the ethical procedures throughout the study.

Obtaining voluntary and informed consent was integral to this study and corresponds with the principle of autonomy (Beauchamp and Childress, 2009). One key concern was the potential for the organisational context to place pressure on front-line practitioners and young people to participate in the study. Heath et al. (2007) have drawn attention to the difficulties of respecting individuals' autonomy when conducting research within child institutions. Often gatekeepers (YOS managers) are in charge of making decisions for children in their care, particularly in the sense of whether or not to grant access to researchers. For example, by a YOS Manager granting access for the researcher to conduct a CPAI-2010 evaluation, the young people may have felt obligated to participate in the study (Heath et al., 2007). This may be due to the YOS Manager being perceived as an authoritarian figure, which creates a power imbalance between them and the young people. Additionally, the young people may have felt that they are unable to withdraw from the study. This concern is also applicable to practitioners. As Heath et al. point out, 'it is invariably a very brave act to say 'no' in an institutional context' (2007: 413). As such, consent needed to be an on-going process. The young people were made aware verbally and via information sheets that they were not obliged to participate. Also, they were reminded that they were able to withdraw from the study without there being any negative consequences for them. This was important as within the context of statutory orders, compliance and engagement with interventions are often rewarded, and non-compliance often has negative repercussions for the young people. The right to withdraw was also emphasised to the practitioners, and they were informed that they would not be disadvantaged or advantaged professionally or personally by participating/not participating in the study

Part of the process of gaining informed consent required the potential participants to be made aware of what the study entailed in order for them to make a considered decision about whether or not to participate (BSC, 2015). Therefore, it was important

that clear aims and objectives, which were developed prior to any fieldwork taking place (see Chapter One, page 23). As part of the process of gaining informed consent, the researcher also delivered a presentation to members of staff and management of each of the services in order to provide them with information about the study. The presentation covered the CPAI-2010, what the evaluation would entail, how the data would be used and disseminated. During this presentation, it was emphasised that participation would be voluntary. Furthermore, each potential participant was provided with a written information sheet. This included: what participation involved, issues surrounding confidentiality, anonymity and information about how the research findings would be disseminated. Specific information sheets were designed for the young people and practitioners (see Appendix 5 and 6 for the information sheets). Information about the research was also provided verbally to the young people in order to accommodate those who may have low literacy levels. Information sheets and consent forms were also sent to the parents/guardians of the young people (see Appendix 7). Again, it was made clear to all of the participants that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any point and did not need to provide a reason for this. Additionally, withdrawing would not have any implications for them. No participants withdrew from the study. Consent was also obtained in order to record the structured and semi-structured interviews with participants (see Appendix 8 and 9 for consent forms). All participants agreed for the interviews to be recorded.

An important consideration was the young people's competence to provide informed consent (Heath et al., 2007). This pertains to their ability to understand the information provided about the research and what it entails in relation to both the research process and outcome (Beauchamp and Childress, 2009). There has been significant debate regarding the age that a young person is deemed competent enough to participate in research (see Hurley and Underwood, 2002). However, attributing competency to age is too simplistic; this broad-brush approach does not account for individual differences. As discussed in Chapter Two, young people develop and mature in different ways and at different rates. For example, there may have been a very mature 10-year-old and a very 'immature' 16-year-old. Therefore,

the researcher was very mindful of this when selecting potential participants. Rather than basing competency solely on age, the researcher applied 'Gillick competency'. This is based on the notion that a child can grant or withhold their consent based on the notion that they have 'sufficient understanding' of what is involved (Heath et al., 2007). Applying Gillick competency ensured that all of the young people included in this study were deemed competent to participate.

The mitigation of potential risk and harm was a paramount consideration for this research (as should be the case for all research) and coincided with the principle of nonmaleficence (Beauchamp and Childress, 2009; BSC, 2015; Bryman, 2016). Harm can occur in varying degrees and can include physical, psychological, emotional and financial harm (Bryman, 2016). In regard to minimising harm to the researcher, she was made aware of the risk and safety procedures of the service being evaluated. All of the fieldwork took place within the service that was being evaluated. The interviews with the young people were conducted in a supervision room, and a member of staff was stationed outside as a precautionary measure. As the CPAI-2010 were non-participatory, the practitioners were responsible for managing any risk or harm that may have occurred in that situation. No safety issues arose during the interviews and observations; all the procedures put in place remained precautionary.

Confidentiality and anonymity were important aspects of harm reduction and informed consent for this study. In certain situations, maintaining the confidentiality and anonymity of participants is crucial. For example, if practitioners had spoken critically/negatively about the service or service manager, identifying these individuals may result in negative consequences in regard to their working relationship with others and may affect their role within the service. Additionally, if a young person presented an unfavourable perspective of their supervisor, if identified, this may have further negative consequences for their working relationship. As discussed in Chapter Two, the therapeutic relationship between supervisors and young people can help to reduce re-offending (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Dowden

and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014). Further disruption to this relationship may limit the young person's ability to stop offending. As such, several measures were put in place to maintain the confidentiality and anonymity of participants. For instance, individual practitioners and young people were not made identifiable during any point of the research. No personal details (e.g. age, date of birth, place of residence) were collected, and no identifiable characteristics of the participants were detailed in the dissemination of the results. Each participant was designated a pseudonym (e.g. Practitioner 1), which was only known to the researcher and the researcher's supervisor. Additionally, no direct quotes from practitioners were used in the evaluation reports prepared for the services. Where direct quotes have been used in this thesis and other publications a pseudonym was used. Furthermore, each participating service was identified with a reference number (e.g. YOS 1), which is only known to the researcher and the researcher's supervisors. All documentation and data relating to this research used these reference numbers in order to maintain confidentiality and anonymity of the services. All paper-based documentation was stored securely in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's university office (which was also locked). All electronic documentation/files were encrypted and stored on a password-protected laptop. All case files of the young people were viewed in the premises of the service being evaluated. These files were not taken away from the premise and the viewing this data was subject to the services data protection procedures, which corresponded with the 1998 Data Protection Act.

In regard to harm, the limitations of confidentiality and anonymity were made explicitly clear to all participants. Part of obtaining informed consent is the premise that the researcher will guarantee the participants some degree of confidentiality and anonymity. However, in certain situations, this may be overridden in order to prevent harm (Beauchamp and Childress, 2009). This became particularly pertinent when considering the protection and welfare of the young people involved in the study. For example, if a young person disclosed that a carer was physically abusing them or if they disclosed plans to harm another person the researcher would have a duty of care towards the young person and general public. Fortunately, nothing of this nature was disclosed. However, there were producers put in place to deal with this, which

were agreed with the service managers. Before the interviews took place, the young people were made aware of the limitations of confidentiality and anonymity. If a young person disclosed any risk of harm, this would have been reported to the service manager. The service would then be obliged to follow its own vulnerability and risk procedures to ensure that the young person was adequately supported and protected.

4.6 Strengths and Limitations of Stages One and Two

A key purpose of this study was to identify and evaluate practices that can contribute to reduced levels of recidivism amongst young people who offend. Previous studies have highlighted that there is a gulf between the theory of EBPs and its implementation in front-line work (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). This has resulted in a practice integrity gap (see also Helmond et al., 2014a; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). There has been limited empirical insight into the implementation of EBPs in the Welsh youth justice system. As such, this study provides greater insight into this issue and fills a significant gap in the current knowledge base. Stage one of the study was concerned with understanding the organisational and front-line practices of youth justice services. The value of this research lies with its potential for practical application in the real-world. For services who participated in the study, it has enabled them to document and highlight their key strengths in practice. This can assist the services to demonstrate their value (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). Additionally, it enabled services to identify areas of practice that require improvements. This can help to enhance practice and provide services with directions on how they can achieve higher levels of practice integrity. It also provides an opportunity to explore practices that produce positive outcomes (see also Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). For individual practitioners, it can provide them with opportunities to reflect on their practices. Additionally, it can enable them to play an active part in the research process, which can help to generate knowledge (Cousins and Shulha, 2006). Stage two of the study gained valuable feedback from practitioners in order

to assess the evaluation responsiveness of the CPAI-2010. This was the catalyst for stages four and five of this study which informed the development of the YJEI as an attempt to better meet the evaluative needs of services in Wales (see Chapter Seven). The methodological approach of this study has produced a substantial amount of data. This data can help to provide greater insight into the processes of supervisions. The pragmatic approach of the methodology sought to ensure that the most appropriate methods were used in order to address the central research questions and identify issues with front-line service delivery (Noaks and Wincup, 2004).

There are several limitations of stages one and two of this study which should be taken into consideration when reviewing the results. As noted, qualitative methods of data collection have been employed. As such, a key limitation of this study pertains to the results not being generalisable to youth justice practices across Wales. Nevertheless, this study has collected rich data on a topic that has previously received very limited empirical insight. Another limitation of this study pertains to the use of the CPAI-2010 inventory. Some of the limitations of the CPAI-2010 have been discussed on pages 106-108). A key concern is the suitability of the CPAI-2010 in the context of youth justice settings as it was developed in a different jurisdictional setting (Canada). However, this has been addressed by gaining feedback from practitioners about the CPAI-2010 evaluation process. The data collected from the practitioners has helped to inform the creation of a youth responsive evaluation inventory (see Chapter Six). It is also important to point out that the CPAI-2010 is an empirically validated inventory and has been acknowledged as a mode of knowledge transfer that can help to bridge the practice integrity gap (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Smith, 2013). The CPAI-2010 has helped to provide a valuable insight into youth justice practice in Wales, which previously had received very limited empirical attention. Due to the small sample size of the study, this further limits to the generalisation of the results. However, it is important to note that this study did not seek to generalise the findings. The exploratory nature of the study has provided greater insight into the level of practice integrity within youth justice services. As noted previously, the concept of saturation was important to the

purposive sampling technique (see Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Data collection stopped when no new themes were generated. As such, the sample size for this study was appropriate. Essentially, this study has employed an appropriate methodological approach in order to address the central research questions. The methodological limitations are counteracted by the uniqueness of the data, which has provided important empirical insight into youth justice practices in Wales. The next chapter presents the findings from stages one to three of the study.

Chapter Five: Results from Stages One to Three – The CPAI-2010 Evaluations and Practitioner Feedback

This chapter discusses the findings from stages one to three of the study:

1. Stage One - completed a process evaluation of youth justice practices in Wales. The process evaluation utilised the CPAI-2010 in order to assess practice integrity; the degree to which youth justice practices are aligned to Gendreau et al.'s (2004; 2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model.
2. Stage Two - assessed the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for practice settings in Wales. North American academics developed the CPAI-2010, and the primary focus of the CPAI-2010 is to assess a service's ability to reduce the re-offending of service users who are medium to high risk of re-offending. As such, the CPAI-2010 does not necessarily recognise the wider role of YOSs in Wales and may not be completely suitable for use in the Welsh youth justice system. This phase of the study took a participatory approach where feedback was gained from the practitioners.
3. Stage Three – attempted to complete an outcome evaluation. This stage planned to analyse the CPAI-2010 scores of the individual services with their recidivism data. Previous research has revealed that high CPAI scores (high practice integrity) are associated with lower levels of recidivism (see Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). However, due to issues with accessing relevant and useable data, it was not possible to undertake a comprehensive outcome evaluation (see pages 208-213).

In summary, this chapter provides insight into the 'black box' of youth justice practices in Wales (see Bonta et al., 2008). It outlines the degree to which services are aligned to EBPs as defined by the CPAI-2010. This chapter examines the factors that undermine the practice integrity of the five participating youth justice services. It discusses the key recommendations to alleviate the practice integrity gap and outlines the limitations of the CPAI-2010 for assessing youth justice practices.

Finally, this chapter addresses the need to develop a more suitable evaluation inventory for policy and practice settings in Wales.

5.1 The Utility of the Results

Internationally there is a growing corpus of research that has examined the effectiveness of front-line practices (see Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Bourgon et al., 2010; Chadwick et al., 2015; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2010; 2014; Robinson et al., 2011; Taxman, 2008; Trotter, 1996, 2009; 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). However, as Lart et al. advocate, 'there is a lack of studies of community-based sentences and interventions. In the UK policy context this is a serious weakness' (2008: 146). Indeed, as Dowden and Andrews (2004) note, 'despite the enormous attention given to the question of 'what works' in offender programming, issues surrounding programme implementation and integrity are huge and barely explored' (2004:174). Within the realms of Welsh youth justice, there is a dearth of empirical insight into the processes through which practitioners implement EBPs (Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018; Mason and Prior, 2008; Ipsos MORI, 2010; HMI Probation, 2016). This has several implications. For instance, it is difficult to ascertain whether practitioners are aware of the principles of effective practice as outlined in the RNR model and whether they interpret and apply these principles both consistently and effectively. This is a key concern, previous studies suggest that effective implementation of evidence-based practices is linked with reductions in re-offending (Andrews and Kiessling, 1980; Bonta et al., 2011; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Lipsey, 2009; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). Additionally, any potential issues that may undermine the effective implementation of EBPs may have been overlooked. As noted in Chapters Two and Three, criminal justice agencies continue to have difficulties with implementing the theory of EBPs into their front-line practices (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta et al., 2008; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Taxman and Belenko 2011; Brogan et al., 2015). This results in a 'practice integrity gap' (see Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). In light of the extant literature, this study aimed to address the following research questions:

1. What level of 'practice integrity' do youth justice agencies in Wales possess?
2. What are the barriers for youth justice agencies in Wales to implement the theory of evidence-based practices in practice?
3. What is the relationship between 'practice integrity' and recidivism in Welsh youth justice agencies?
4. Is the CPAI-2010 a suitable evaluation inventory to use within the context of Welsh youth justice?

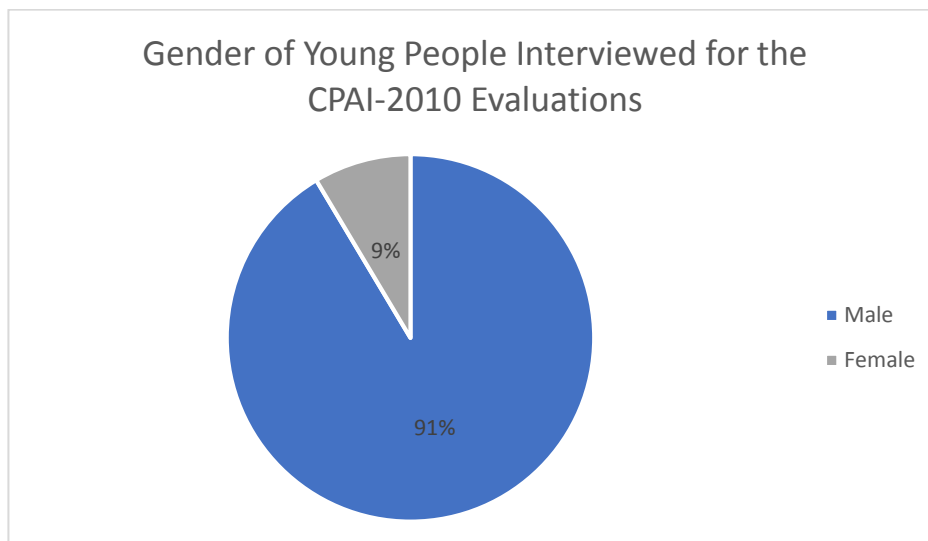
5.2 Overview of the Sample

The sample for this study was selected from the 15 YOSs and 2 Secure Estates in Wales. Within this study, there is representation from all regions in Wales (see Figure 2. in Chapter Four). A total of four YOSs and one Secure Estate participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations (see Chapter Four for an in-depth discussion about the sampling procedures). At the time of the evaluations, the participating services were supervising a total of 265 young people. A total of 44 young people participated in the evaluations (17% of the total available population). Table 8 provides an overview of the number of participants involved in the CPAI-2010 evaluations. Graph 1, 2, 3 and 4 provide a further breakdown of the demographics of the participants in relation to gender, as this is a key responsibility characteristic (Bonta and Andrews, 2017).

Table 8. Sample Size of Participants Involved in the CPAI-2010 Evaluations

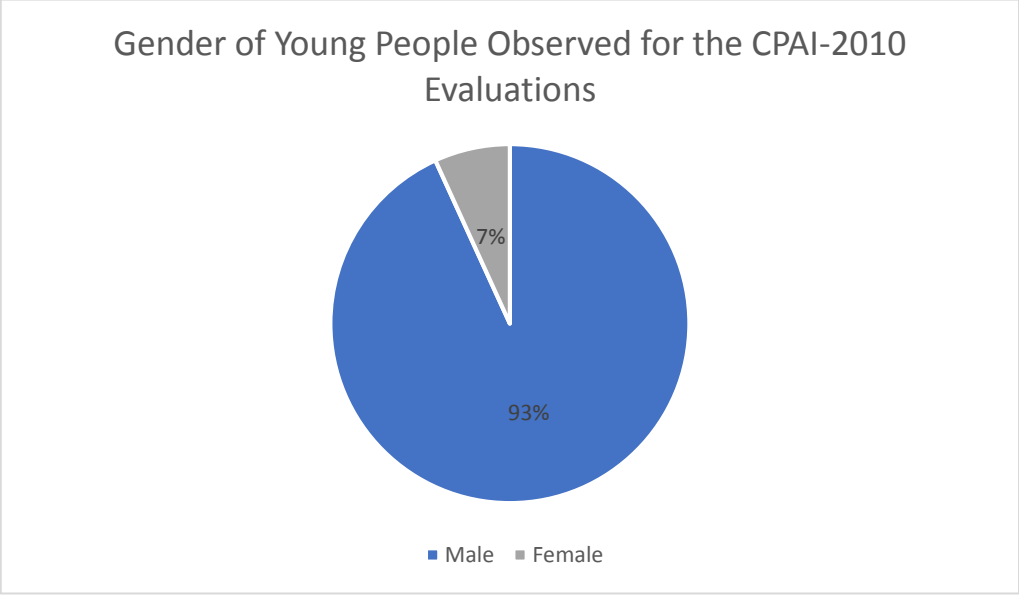
	Number of staff interviewed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of staff observed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of sessions observed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of young people interviewed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of young people observed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of young people receiving a statutory order during the evaluation	Number of staff interviewed for CPAI-2010 feedback
YOS 1	8	4	7	5	5	79	6
YOS 2	10	5	8	6	6	28	8
YOS 3	10	5	11	5	6	67	7
YOS 4	10	6	12	8	7	27	6
SECURE ESTATE 1	6	7	12	11	20	64	0
Total	45	27	50	35	44	265	27

Graph 1. Gender of Young People Interviewed for the CPAI-2010 Evaluations



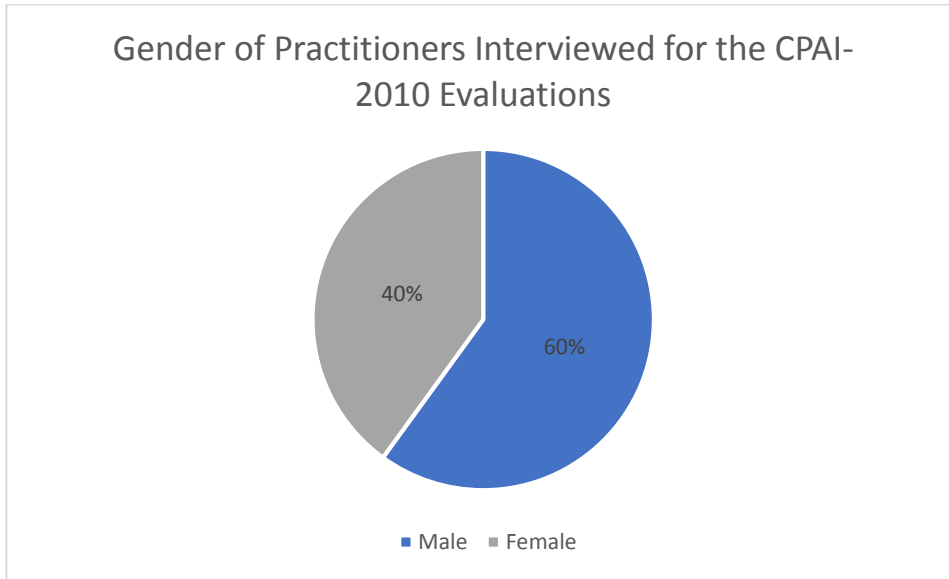
Graph 1 demonstrates that the majority of young people who participated in the CPAI-2010 interviews were male (n=32). A smaller number of females participated (n=3).

Graph 2. Gender of Young People Observed for the CPAI-2010 Evaluations



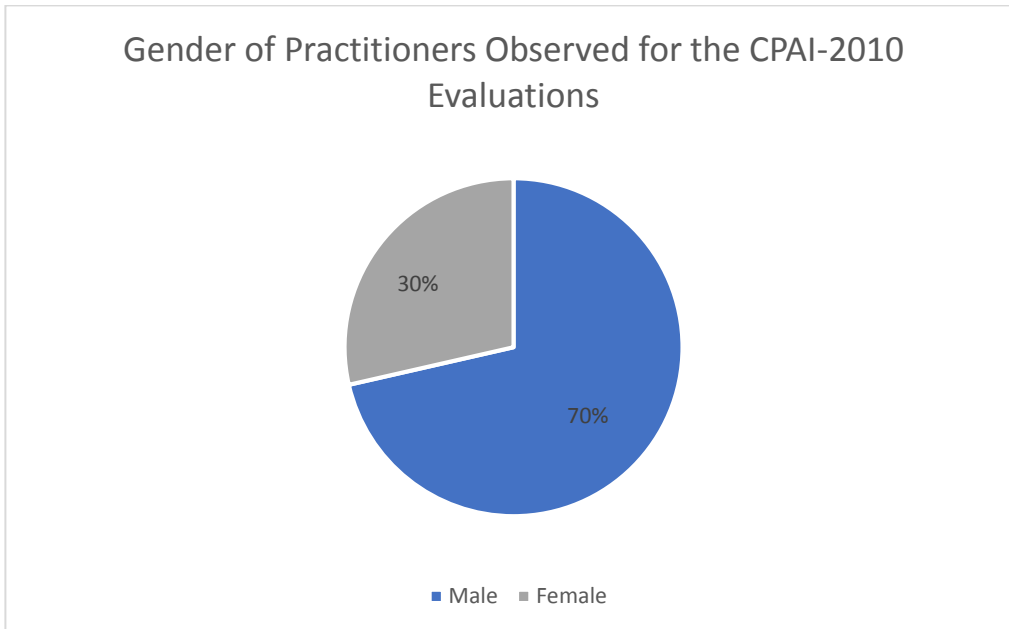
Graph 2 reveals that the majority of young people who participated in the CPAI-2010 observations were also males (n=41). A smaller number of females participated (n=3). This is largely due to the larger numbers of young people available in Secure Estate 1, as this facility is specifically for young males who have offended. This also reflects the wider demographics of young people in the Welsh young justice system. The majority of youth offending is attributed to males (YJB/MoJ, 2017).

Graph 3. Gender of Practitioners Interviewed for the CPAI-2010 Evaluations



Graph 3 illustrates the gender of the practitioners involved in the structured interviews of the CPAI-2010 evaluation. A total number of 18 female and 27 male practitioners participated.

Graph 4. Gender of Practitioners Observed for the CPAI-2010 Evaluations



Graph 4 demonstrates the percentage of female and males practitioners who participated in the CPAI-2010 observations, which informed the scoring of Domain

G. In total 19 male and 8 female practitioners participated in the observations. The sample is generally representative of the gender distributions of the services involved in the study. Overall, the majority of youth offending can be attributed to males (YJB/MoJ, 2017). The staff surveys from the CPAI also revealed an approximate 40/60% split of male to female staff.

5.3 Overview of the CPAI-2010 Domains and Scoring Procedures

The focus of each of the CPAI-2010 domains have been comprehensively discussed in Chapters Three and Four (see pages 101-104 and 114-116). In summary, the CPAI-2010 comprises nine domains (A-I) (see Table 6). Domain A is not scored; it is only used to gain demographic information. Domain B, C, D and I assesses organisational factors, and Domains E, F, G and H assesses front-line practice integrity factors.

Table 6: Domains and Number of Items Contained in the CPAI-2010

Domain	Number of Items
A. Programme demographics	10 items (not scored)
B. Organisational culture	9 items
C. Programme implementation/maintenance	10 items
D. Management/staff characteristics	18 items
E. Client risk/need practices	13 items
F. Programme characteristics	25 items
G. Core correctional practice	45 items
H. Inter-agency communication	5 items
I. Evaluation	8 items

A detailed overview of the scoring procedure and classification of the CPAI-2010 scoring can be found in Chapter Four (see pages 116-123). In order to calculate the overall CPAI-2010 score, each item scored 'yes' within the CPAI-2010 is totalled and converted into a percentage score based on the total number of applicable items.

The overall percentage score corresponds with an overall classification for the service. Table 7 illustrates the scoring classifications of the CPAI-2010.

Table 7. Classification of CPAI-2010 Scores

Classification	Practice Integrity (%)
Very Satisfactory	70+
Satisfactory	50-69
Unsatisfactory	Below-50

A confidence rating (CR) is also used to score each item and domain. This reflects the evaluators’ level of confidence that the information they have collected is accurate by either direct observations or by other sources. The purpose of this is to enhance the reliability of the evaluation and reduce subjective scoring. The CR is scored on a five-point scale (see Chapter Four, pages 122-122 for more detail).

5.4 Summary of the Key Findings from the CPAI-2010 Evaluations

The following sections outline the results from the CPAI-2010 evaluations. Firstly, it presents the overall CPAI-2010 scores for each of the participating organisations as well as the confidence rating score. This section then discusses the findings from each of the individual CPAI-2010 Domains. It outlines the key strengths and areas of practice that require improvements (as defined by the CPAI-2010). Graph 5 demonstrates the overall CPAI-2010 scores for each of the participating organisations and Table 9 illustrates the confidence rating scores.

Graph 5. Overall CPAI-2010 Scores

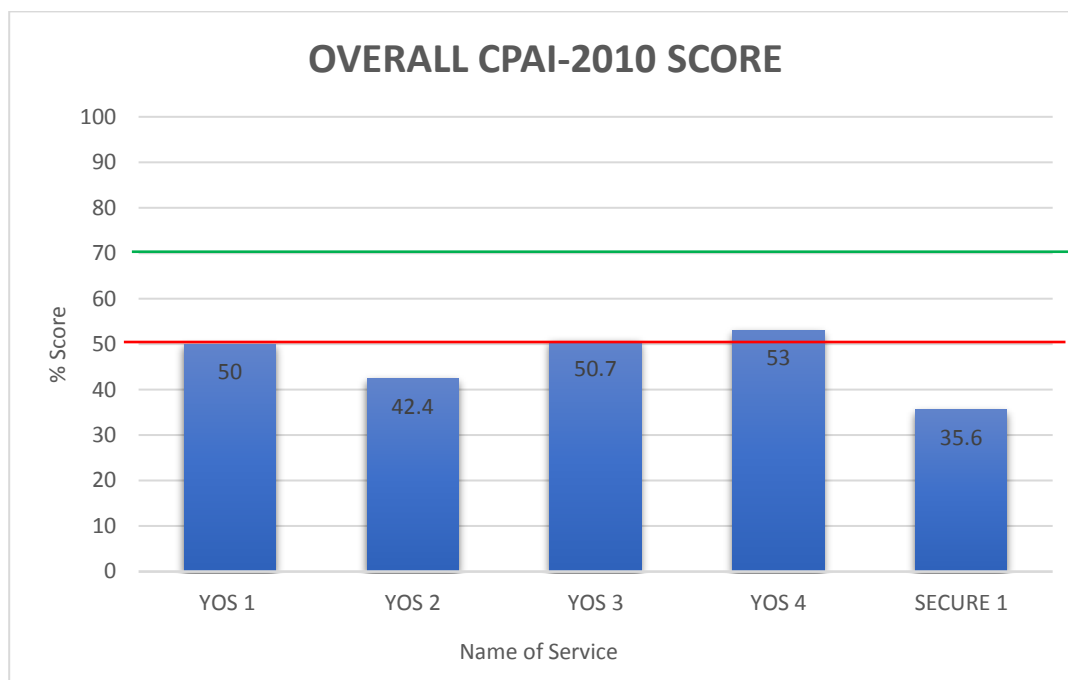


Table 9. Overall Confidence Rating

	YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Confidence Rating	4.5	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.2

It is widely acknowledged that high practice integrity is linked to reductions in re-offending (Andrews and Dowden, 2005; Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Lowenkamp and Latessa, 2005; Nesovic, 2003; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Helmond et al., 2014a; Landenberger and Lipsey, 2005; Lipsey, 2009; Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2018). As noted in Chapter Four, the CPAI-2010 examines a service’s adherence to the RNR model. There is limited empirical insight into the model’s efficacy within the context of Welsh youth justice. Previous studies that have examined the elements of effectiveness of the RNR model within the context of UK youth justice have revealed inconclusive evidence of the model’s effectiveness in reducing recidivism (Cann et al., 2003; Feilzer et al., 2004). However, these studies did not examine the precise processes of service delivery. There has been limited insight into whether the RNR model or other effective approaches are being

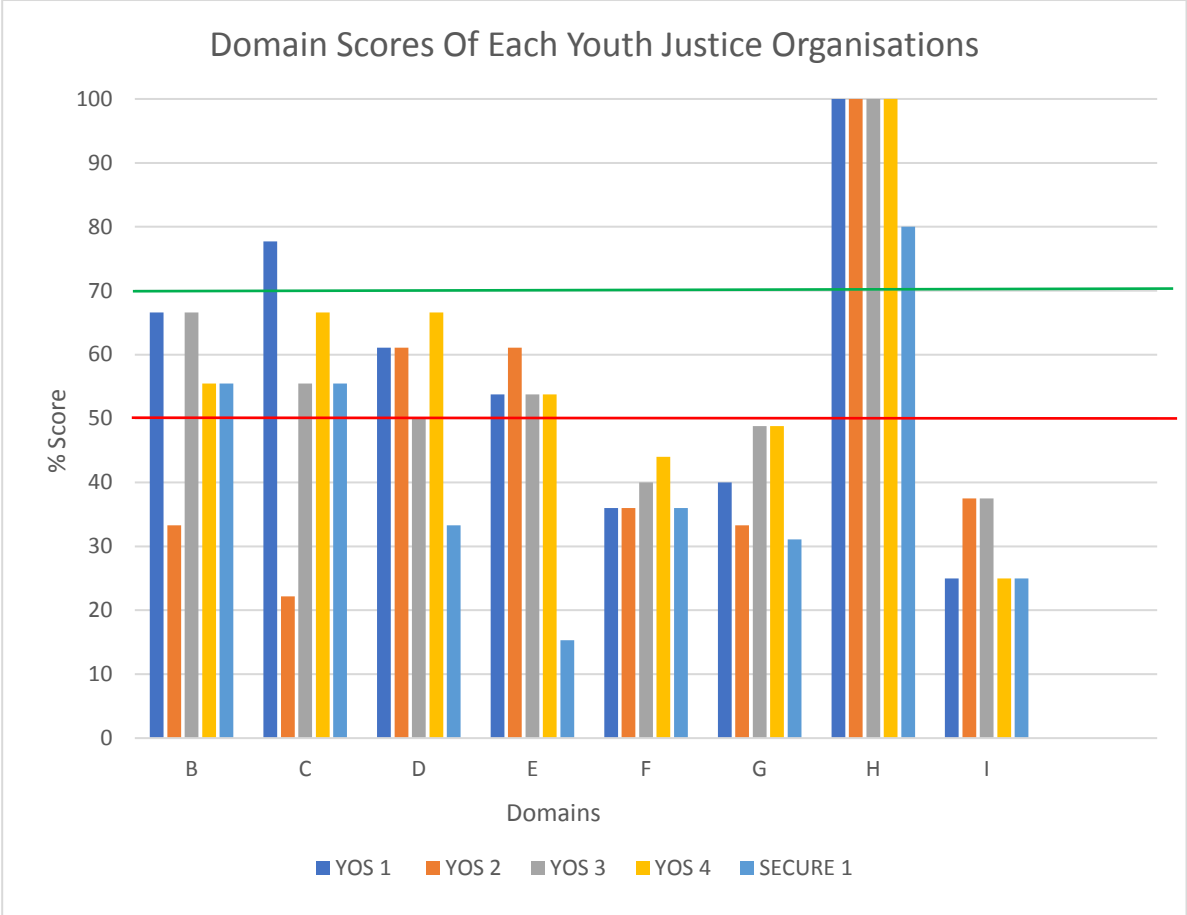
implemented effectively into practice. Until now, important issues surrounding practice integrity have been overlooked within the Welsh youth justice system (Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018).

In summary, this study revealed that to some extent that a practice integrity gap exists within the participating youth justice services. The results from the CPAI-2010 evaluations highlighted that none of the participating services received overall 'very satisfactory' scores (+70%). YOS 1 received an overall score of 50.0% (satisfactory), YOS 2 42.4% (unsatisfactory), YOS 3 scored 50.7% (satisfactory), YOS 4 53.0% (satisfactory) and Secure Estate 1 35.6% (unsatisfactory). Table 9 demonstrates that the overall confidence rating for each of the organisations was high, indicating that there was a high level of confidence in the reliability of the results. An overall CR score below 3 would have rendered the evaluation invalid. The findings from this study are consistent with studies conducted with the predecessor of the CPAI-2010 (CPAI) in other jurisdictions (see Gendreau and Goggin, 2000; Matthews et al., 2001; Nesovic, 2003; Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). As Smith and Schweitzer (2012) note, no intervention on record has received a 100% score and approximately 60% fall into the 'unsatisfactory' category (see pages 103-105). Matthews et al. (2001) evaluation of 86 criminal justice programmes highlighted that a small percentage of the programmes received a 'very satisfactory' CPAI score (10%), 55% scored in the 'satisfactory' category and 35% scored in the 'unsatisfactory' category. Furthermore, Gendreau and Goggin (2000) have echoed similar findings. Of the 101 criminal justice programmes evaluated, the mean CPAI score was 25% ('unsatisfactory'). Lowenkamp et al., (2006a) also revealed that the majority of criminal justice agencies/interventions within their study required improvements. As noted in Chapter Three, criminal justice practitioners continue to have difficulties in translating the theory of EBPs into their front-line practice (Duwe and Clarke, 2015; Lipsey, 2009; Helmond et al., 2014a; Taxman et al., 2004; Taxman and Belenko, 201; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018).

It is also well documented that poor implementation or poor practice integrity is associated with attrition and increased recidivism rates (Andrews et al., 1990; Bonta et al. 2011; Hollin et al. 2004; Lowenkamp et al. 2006a, Robinson et al. 2012; Sadlier 2010). As such, it is vital to identify means that can help to alleviate the practice integrity gap. The CPAI-2010 has been recognised as a validated tool for bridging the gulf that exists between the theory of effective practice and front-line practice. Indeed, the CPAI-2010 can help with knowledge transfer of EBPs to the real-world settings (Taxman and Belenko 2011). However, some of the low scores could also be attributed to issues with the suitability of the CPAI-2010. The findings from this study revealed that while there were issues with implementing EBPs into front-line practice, there were also areas of good practice. It is important not to take a broad-brush approach and categorise services as 'ineffective'. This thesis has moved away from merely identifying 'what works' to understanding 'how things work' and 'why they work'. Evaluating practices and gaining a deeper understanding of the various factors that can undermine practice integrity can help to address these issues and develop practical solutions to bridge the practice integrity gap. The findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that there were areas of good practice within each of the participating services. However, the findings also highlighted several factors impeded practice integrity. These stem from a range of policy and organisational factors that are discussed in greater detail within this chapter. The following sections discuss the findings of each of the CPAI-2010 domains. The overarching theme that emerged from the evaluations was the need to provide practitioners with appropriate training and resources in order to effectively implement EBPs.

Graph 6 illustrates the scores for each domain from the CPAI-2010 for each of the participating services.

Graph 6. CPAI-2010 Results



Graph 6 reveals that all of the services received their highest score for domain H. All of the participating services received a ‘very satisfactory’ score (+70%). The key areas of practice that required improved across all of the services pertained to Domains F, G and I. All of the participating services received ‘unsatisfactory’ scores in the aforementioned domains (>50%). In summary, the CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that:

- A practice integrity gaps existed within the participating youth justice services:
 - Services did not conduct responsivity assessments

- Services did not consistently implement the risk and need principles of the RNR model
- Practitioners hardly used the structuring skills of core correctional practices (CCPs) (see Tables 4 and 5 in Chapter Two)
- There was a lack of appropriate training available to practitioners
- There was a lack of adequate funding for youth justice services which exacerbated organisational constraints
- There was a lack of robust evaluation strategies
- Key strengths in practice include:
 - Good multi-agency working
 - Practitioners effectively employing relationship skills

The key findings from the CPAI-2010 will be discussed in the context of existing literature in the following sections.

5.5 Assessing Organisational Factors: Results from Domains B, C, D and I

Domains B, C, D and I of the CPAI-2010 assessed organisational factors linked to practice integrity. Empirical studies have highlighted the importance of organisational factors such as intra-agency characteristics (Farrell et al., 2011; Rudes et al., 2017; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Taxman et al., 2009). These include factors such as management style/approaches, agency climate, staff beliefs about rehabilitation and adequate training and resources (Aarons, 2006; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Farrell et al., 2011; Gendreau et al., 2010; Glisson and Green, 2006; Henderson and Taxman, 2009; Friedmann et al., 2007; Rudes et al., 2017; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Taxman et al., 2009). Organisational factors such as inadequate resources; inadequate staff training; lack of organisational harmony; staff shortages; inadequate administrative support; and constant policy changes are factors that can undermine practice integrity (Clarke et al. 2004; Raynor 2004; Farrell et al., 2014; Rudes et al., 2017; Taxman et al., 2009). Within Wales, there has been very limited insight into the organisational factors that can affect the implementation of EBPs

(Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Farrell et al. (2011) advocate that a better understanding of organisational factors that impact the delivery of EBPs in challenging environments can help to develop practical solutions to improve youth justice practices. The legislative and policy context can arguably affect organisational factors of youth justice agencies and undermine implementation of EBPs (Farrell et al., 2011; Taxman et al., 2009; Taxman and Belenko, 2011). This is a particularly pertinent issue in regard to the drastically changing climate of youth justice legislation, policy and practice (see Muncie, 2006; Morris, 2015).

In summary, the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that organisational factors affected all of the participating services, with some organisational issues being more prevalent in some services than others. YOS 2 demonstrated evidence of poor organisational harmony and stability. Within YOS 2, there was perceived job insecurity due to budget cuts. Funding cuts had also resulted in staff having high caseloads, which stemmed from staffing issues; staff that had retired or had left the service were not being replaced. These organisational constraints, along with concerns of redundancy, also appeared to have an adverse effect on staff morale. This is discussed in greater detail in the following sections. As such, organisational factors could have contributed to the low scores obtained in the CPAI-2010 domains that assessed front-line practice integrity (Domain, E, F, G and H). This study found that YOS 2 was the second-lowest scoring organisation in Domain G (Core Correctional Practice) (42.4% - 'unsatisfactory') and also attained the lowest score for organisational factors assessed in Domain B (Organisational Culture (33.3% - 'unsatisfactory') and Domain C (Programme Implementation) (22.2% - 'unsatisfactory'). The Secure Estate 1 was the lowest scoring organisation in Domain G (35.6% - 'unsatisfactory') and also attained the lowest score for organisational factors assessed in Domain D (Management/Staff Characteristics) (33.3% - 'unsatisfactory') and the second-lowest scores in Domains B and C (55.5% respectively), which fell just within the 'satisfactory' category. Concerns have previously been raised that processes in the youth justice system can undermine practitioners' ability to develop and maintain quality relationships with the young people that they are supervising (see Creaney, 2014b). Empirical studies have

highlighted that the use of evidence-based relationship skills is an integral component of supervision practices and when used in conjunction with structuring skills are linked to positive outcomes such as improved compliance, engagement and reductions in re-offending (Bonta et al. 2011; 2017; Bourgon et al. 2010; Chadwick et al. 2015; Raynor et al., 2014; Robinson et al. 2012; Taxman 2008; Trotter, 1996; 2013; Trotter et al. 2015; Trotter and Evans, 2012). The findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations suggest that there are several organisational constraints linked to the effective implementation of EBPs (this is discussed in greater detail on pages 155-171).

5.5.1 Results from Domain B: Organisational Culture

This section discusses the results from Domain B: Organisational Culture. This domain assessed a range factors such as the organisations’ ability to respond to new initiatives; staff turnover; information sharing; self-evaluation; organisational harmony; documentation of the goals/vision of the organisations. Graph 7 demonstrates the CPAI-2010 scores (%) for each of the participating services.

Graph 7. Domain B Results

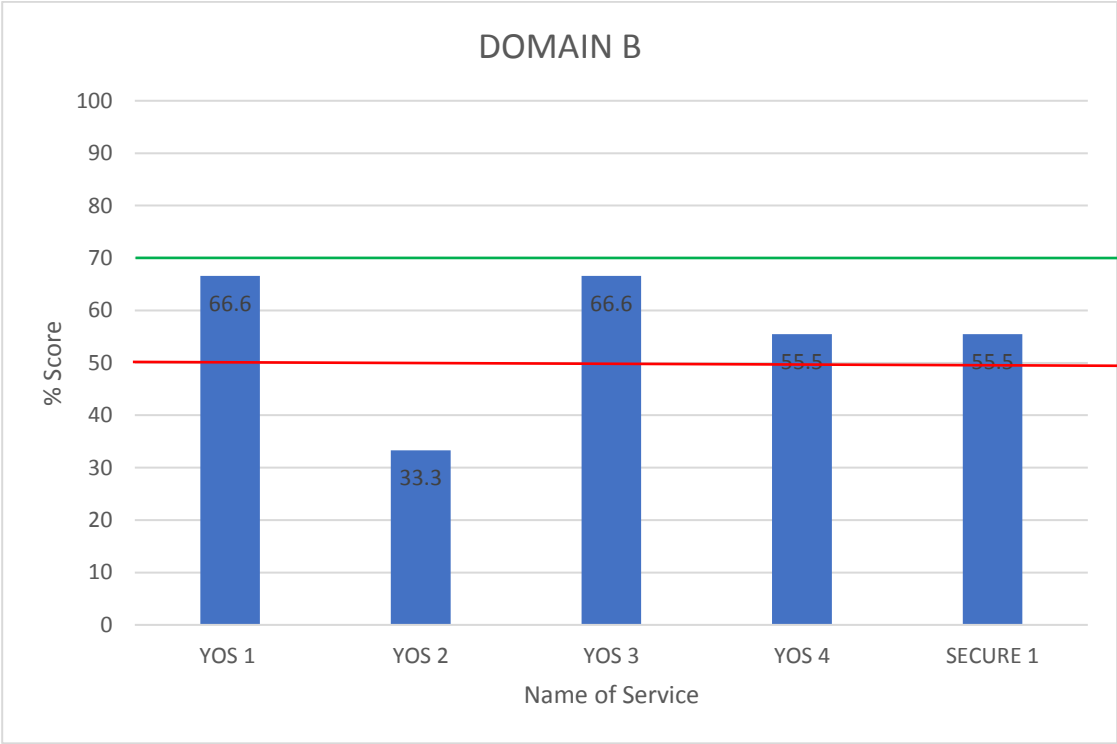


Table 10 demonstrates the confidence rating for Domain B for each of the organisations.

Table 10. Domain B Confidence Rating

	YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Confidence Rating	4.0	3.8	4.0	4.1	3.8

Graph 7 reveals that one of the community-based services received an ‘unsatisfactory’ score of 33.3% (YOS 2). The remaining organisations received ‘satisfactory’ scores of 66.6% (YOS 1 and YOS 3) and 55.5% (YOS 4 and Secure Estate 1).

All of the organisations were able to respond to new initiatives and deal with problematic issues in a timely and appropriate manner. It appeared that the managers within all of the participating services were open to developing and modifying service delivery in response to both the suggestions of the practitioners and the young people. For example, managers would consult with practitioners about developing service delivery. The managers still maintained their authority in relation to deciding how service delivery was developed and modified. It appeared that all of the services were adaptable and were able to alter their practices when needed. For example, recent legislation changes such as the Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders Act 2012 had affected how the YOSs operate. They had also implemented changes in relation to the Enhanced Case Management (ECM) pilot. All of the organisations had procedures in place for addressing problematic issues in a non-confrontational manner. For instance, to address any staff disputes, grievances, or to deal with disciplinary matters, the line manager ensured that problematic situations were referred to appropriate channels in order for them to be resolved.

Within each of the organisations, there were good levels of communication and information sharing between practitioners and managers. For example, the organisations would have regular staff meetings, correspondence via email and face-to-face conversations. Some of the services had open plan offices which also helped to facilitate face-to-face communication and information sharing. Within YOS 2 and Secure Estate 1, there were issues with organisational harmony in relation to the quality of relationships between the front-line practitioners and some members of the management team. In both organisations, practitioners reported that they did not feel fully supported by the management team. Within Secure Estate 1, many participants reported that not all of the staff on the unit performed their roles adequately. Some staff stated that certain staff members would leave the unit for long periods of time for no apparent reason. This appeared to cause some tension between staff. There was also a need for Secure Estate 1 to develop a code of ethics or practice. A code of practice should detail how staff should conduct themselves when working with young people and what is expected of them (Gendreau et al., 2010). Additionally, all staff should be aware of where they would locate the code of practice, and they should receive training on how to adhere to it. This is particularly important, as it would ensure that the staff always use appropriate language when communicating with young people. On several occasions during observations, staff would use profanity in casual conversations with the young people. This links with the findings in Domain G (see page 193-194) and is problematic as staff should model and reinforce pro-social behaviours at all times (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; 2013b). This is a key element of CCPs that have been shown to help to reduce re-offending (Dowden and Andrews 2004; Chadwick et al., 2015; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). However, a lack of adequate training surrounding CCPs is a contributing factor to the aforementioned issue.

Within YOS 2, several other organisational constraints affected the service. Many of the practitioners did not feel that they had job security. Funding cuts to the service resulted in staff members not being replaced by new practitioners when they left the YOS for a new job or retirement. Budget cuts also appeared to limit the training

opportunities and professional development of the practitioners. As discussed in Chapter Two, regular training in EBPs encourages practitioners to implement EBPs into their front-line work (Bonta et al., 2011; Bourgon et al., 2010; Chadwick et al., 2015; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2010; 2014; Robinson et al., 2011; Taxman, 2008; Trotter, 1996; 2013a; 2017; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). However, it should be noted that budget cuts were also a major concern for YOSs 1, 3 and 4. In recent years, the YJB has sustained significant reductions to their funding as part of the UK Government's bid to reduce public spending (YJB, 2017; Chalkley, 2018). Within central youth justice policymaking, there needs to be a commitment to resource YOSs adequately. Taxman (2004) advocates that organisations must be adequately resourced in order to enhance adherence to EBPs. Further budget cuts will adversely affect the resources of the services and the quality of service delivery. Additional cuts to YOSs' budgets may result in reductions to staffing levels, which could result in higher caseloads and lower staff morale; and can undermine practice integrity (see also Clarke et al., 2004; Raynor, 2004; Ipsos MORI, 2010). Therefore, from an organisational perspective, services must be adequately resourced in terms of time, training and staffing levels in order to effectively implement EBPs (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Farrell et al., 2011).

The CPAI-2010 evaluations also revealed that practitioners within all of the participating services did not have access to clinical supervision. Trotter (2017) advocates that clinical supervision can help to encourage the use of EBPs. Additionally, due to staffing issues, some practitioners reported that they had large caseloads. These organisational constraints, as defined by the CPAI-2010 combined with a fear of job insecurity, also affected staff morale. Additionally, YOS 2 and 4 had high staff turnover rates. In contrast, YOS 1, 3 and Secure Estate 1 had a very low staff turnover rates, and this appeared to create stable teams. In contrast to YOS 2 and Secure Estate 1, practitioners from YOS 1, 3 and 4 reported that there were good levels of organisational harmony. Participants stated that front-line staff had good working relationships with each other and with their managers. Practitioners from YOS 1, 3 and 4 reported that they were highly satisfied in their job and felt

supported by their managers. Within YOS 1, 3 and 4, there were also good lines of communication between the front-line staff and managers. There were higher levels of staff morale within YOS 1, 3 and 4, this was partly due to there being no concerns of redundancy or any perceived job insecurity. However, within all of the participating organisations, there was insufficient training available to practitioners, which may have contributed to the lower scores in Domain G.

For the community-based YOSs, their scores would have been enhanced if they had documented and understood the goals of their organisation clearly. Although the majority of the practitioners stated the main purpose of the YOS was to reduce re-offending, the mandate/goals of the SOT and YOS respectively were not clearly documented in a way that was readily available to the practitioners, young people and members of the public. The service had 'strategic business plans' in place, as well as, operational guidance published by the YJB and key performance indicators (KPIs) (which essentially form the basis of all YOS goals). However, not all staff were fully aware of these goals. It is important that practitioners are aware of the service's goals in order to ensure that it informs their delivery of interventions and approach to working with young people (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). Clear organisation goals also help to promote cohesion within the service (Gendreau et al., 2010). Hollin et al. (2013) advocate that when the service's aims go out of focus, it can undermine practice integrity. Another area of improvement from a CPAI-2010 perspective is the need for all of the services to conduct a quantitative evaluation of the service delivery. The focus of this should be on front-line service delivery, e.g. the interventions being delivered. This would give a good indication of the YOS's effectiveness in reducing re-offending. For example, the CPAI-2010 would require services to evaluate supervision practices like the study conducted by Raynor et al. (2014) in the Jersey Probation service. Raynor et al.'s (2014) study examined probation officers' use of supervision and the link between recidivism (see Chapter Two, page 70). However, this may be an unrealistic expectation to place on YOSs. Practitioners may not have the time and resources to conduct such evaluations, which are usually undertaken by academic researchers. The CPAI-2010 would also require all of the participating services to utilise external consultants who have extensive expertise in relation to EBPs (particularly in the RNR model and CCPs), in

order to advise on service delivering and provide clinical supervision. However, organisational constraints such as budget cuts and staff turnover may be one of the reasons that prevented the services from achieving this.

5.5.2 Results from Domain C: Programme Implementation/Maintenance

Domain C of the CPAI-2010 examined items relating to how the organisations were established and the need for the services. Additionally, it examined how the organisations continue to be maintained (e.g. funding) and whether the organisations have conducted a review of relevant research literature in order to identify the most effective EBPs. Graph 8 demonstrates the CPAI-2010 scores (%) for each of the participating services.

Graph 8. Domain C Results

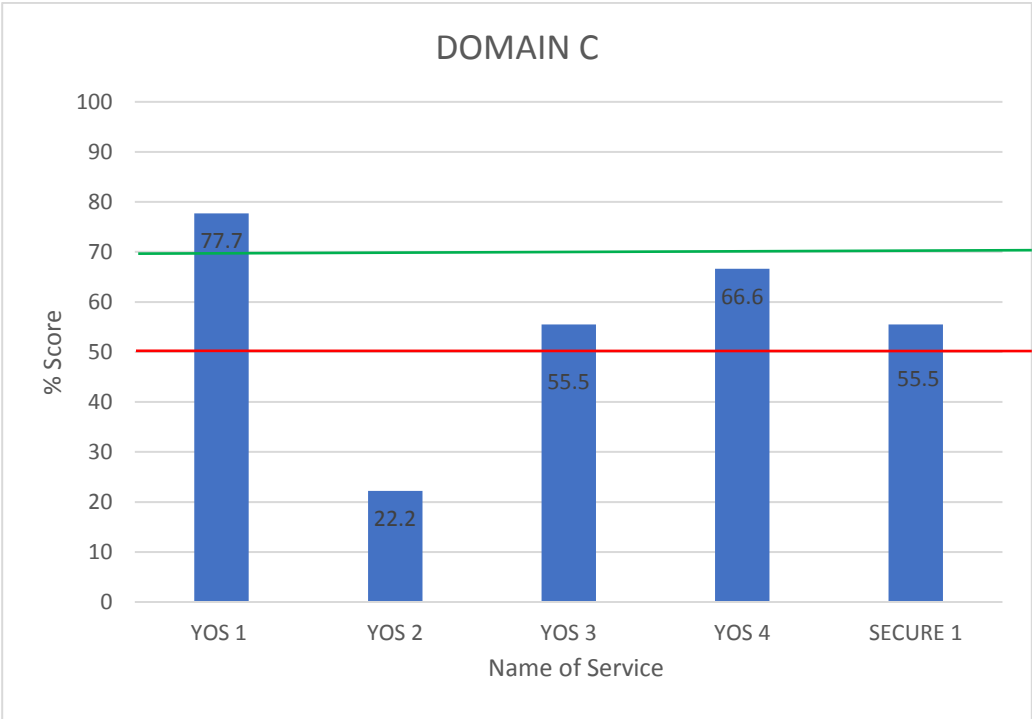


Table 11 demonstrates the confidence rating for Domain C for each of the organisations.

Table 11. Domain C Confidence Rating

	YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Confidence Rating	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.4	4.4

Graph 8 reveals that one of the community-based services received a 'very satisfactory' score of 77.7% (YOS 1). YOS 2 received an 'unsatisfactory' score of 22.2%. The remaining organisations received 'satisfactory' scores of 66.6% (YOS 4) and 55.5% (YOS 3 and Secure Estate 1).

For all of the participating organisations, it was evident that the values of stakeholders including the Youth Justice Board (YJB), local authorities, the Government and partnership agencies have been considered in developing and maintaining the organisations' purposes and practices. For examples, recent inspections led by HMI Probation highlighted the YOS's effectiveness in complying with set National Standards in several areas of practice. Additionally, the young people within the organisations were also viewed and engaged as major stakeholders. For example, as evidenced in Domain I, services would formally survey the young people to gain feedback on the support they have received and would use the information to inform service delivery. Additionally, on an informal basis, practitioners would seek the views of young people and use this to inform their practices. As required by the CPAI-2010, the organisations had been in operation for at least two years. However, the tumultuous nature of youth justice policy can be seen to exacerbate organisational constraints further. As noted in Chapter Three, the youth justice landscape in England and Wales is a constantly changing and politicised environment. As Muncie notes, since the introduction of the 1998 CDA, the 'pace of youth justice reform has been unprecedented' (2006: 770). This has created a confusing and disjointed landscape for youth justice practitioners to navigate and deliver evidence-based services for young people (Morris, 2015). Indeed, constant and conflicting policy change can undermine practice integrity (Farrall et al., 2011). As noted in domain B, budget cuts were a major concern for YOS 2, 3 and 4. However, this was completely beyond the control of the YOSs, and

all of the services had begun to explore possibilities to reduce their spending without it having an adverse effect on the quality and the scope of the services that they are able to provide. As noted, this does have the potential to have an adverse effect on staff morale and the quality of service delivery. The budget cuts reported by the services can also be seen as a contributing factor to the lack of adequate training available to the practitioners. However, funding for Secure Estate 1 appeared to be stable, and there were no concerns raised by staff regarding potential redundancies.

Within YOSs 1, 3 and Secure Estate 1, staffing levels had remained relatively stable for the past two years, which enhanced the stability of the teams. Staff stability is important as this can help to prevent practice drift, where the aims of the service may fall out of focus with changes in staff (Hollin et al., 2013). YOSs 1, 3 and 4 were able to provide staff with opportunities to enhance their credentials. For example, within these organisations, staff had been supported to study for degrees while working. In contrast, practitioners from YOS 2 and Secure Estate 1 were concerned about the lack of opportunities available to them to enhance their skills and knowledge. Practitioners within the Intervention Team and Substance Misuse Team of the Secure Estate 1 felt that they would benefit from having better quality structured programmes and resources, such as access to a laptop with the internet to enhance service delivery (however internet access may be seen as a security issue). The manager and practitioners of the Secure Estate 1 also noted that there were no provisions to address the offending behaviours and attitudes of young people who have committed sexual offences. No offending behaviour work was carried out with these young people. To add to this, staff did not feel that they had received adequate training to deal with this type of offending behaviour. It should also be noted that the Intervention Team were also taken away for their intervention work to perform operational duties, which prohibited them from carrying out important supervision sessions with the young people. As there were only two members of the Intervention Team, it did appear that they were overstretched. YOS 2 were also concerned about the lack of training and resources available to them to effectively work with young people who had committed sexual offences. Practitioners in YOS 2 also felt that they had not received adequate training to deal with sexual offending effectively.

Since being in operation, none of the organisations had conducted literature searches to identify appropriate materials and resources that are directly related to effective interventions (e.g. those that use cognitive, behavioural and social learning modalities). Conducting regular literature reviews can help services keep abreast of the latest research and help to align service delivery to EBPs (Gendreau et al., 2010). Additionally, no pilot studies had been conducted when new structured programmes/interventions were introduced or when changes were made to service delivering. To enhance practice, the CPAI-2010 advocates that decisions about developing new modes of service delivery should be evidence-based. Pilot studies are important in order to identify implementation issues and to also examine whether new initiatives can actually produce positive outcomes (Gendreau et al., 2010). It would be a waste of resources to roll out an initiative in a service or across several services if it had no or limited evidence that it improved service delivery and produced positive outcomes, such as reductions in re-offending.

5.5.3 Results from Domain D: Management/Staff Characteristics

Domain D assessed whether staff possessed adequate qualifications, experience and training. Additionally, it evaluated how staff are selected to work in particular roles and with specific young people (responsivity practices). Staff members considered in this section included: full-time, part-time, internal and external providers who deliver direct support to young people. Graph 9 illustrates the CPAI-2010 scores (%) for each of the participating services.

Graph 9. Domain D Results

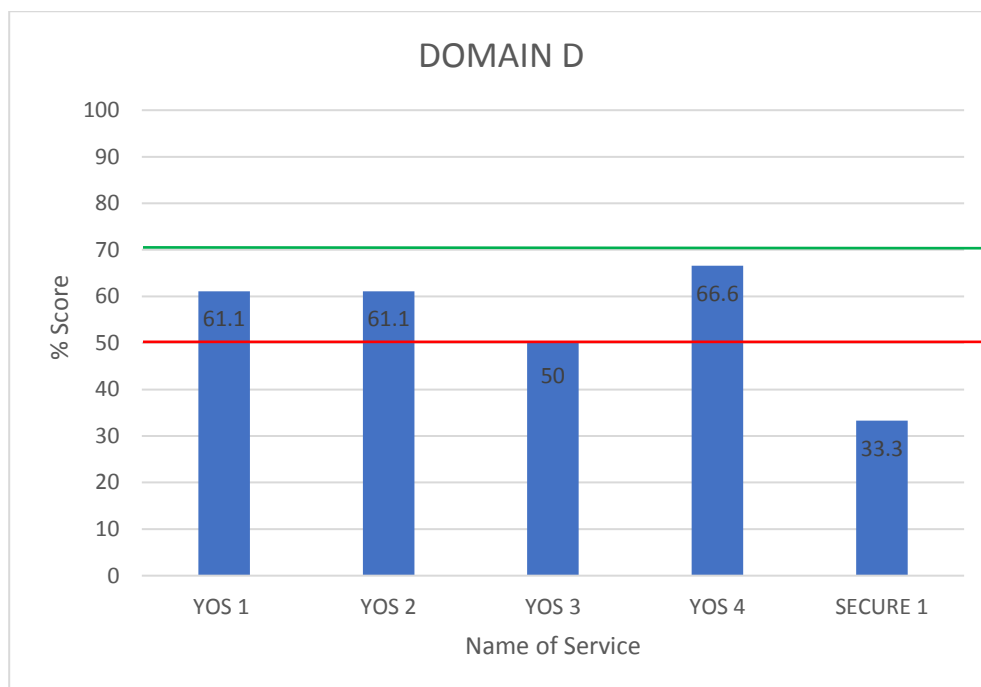


Table 12 demonstrates the confidence rating for Domain D for each of the organisations.

Table 12. Domain D Confidence Rating

	YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Confidence Rating	4.0	4.5	4.7	4.5	4.4

Graph 9 reveals that Secure Estate 1 received an 'unsatisfactory' score of 33.3%. All of the community-based services received 'satisfactory' scores of 61.1% (YOS 1 and YOS 2), 50.0% (YOS 3) and 66.6% (YOS 4).

Understanding Organisational Factors of EBP: Management Characteristics

The managers of all of participating services had extensive knowledge of the service and staff. The managers regularly attended meetings with senior managers from other agencies and also had good lines of communication with front-line staff. All of the managers were on the interviewing panel and played key roles during the hiring process of new practitioners. Within YOSs 1, 2, 3 and 4 practitioners viewed the manager as dynamic, approachable and supportive. Staff also reported that their perspectives were regularly sought by the manager and were considered during the development of new directions of service delivery. Within Secure Estate 1, practitioners felt that the manager was not aware of the difficulties of the day-to-day running of the unit. Staff perceived the manager as being removed from the realities front line-practice. Staff also felt that the manager did not consult with them about important changes to practice. The managers of YOS 1, 2 and 4 also possessed a Masters' degree in an area relevant to criminal justice. The managers from YOS 1, 2, 4 and Secure Estate 1 also had at least three years of experience of directly delivering services to a range of offending populations. However, none of the managers held cases or delivered interventions to young people. Additionally, the managers were involved in the training of new practitioners. The manager's involvement in training can help to ensure that the service's goals and practices remain in focus and that interventions are being delivered with integrity (Hollin et al., 2013).

Understanding Organisational Factors of EBPs: Practitioner Skills and Training - Responsivity Practices

Items in domain D also assessed responsivity practices. It examined whether supervision skills are considered in the hiring process and if practitioners are appropriately allocated to work in a specific role and with specific young people. The

scores for all of the organisations would have been higher if there had been evidence that new practitioners were selected based on them possessing a range of supervision skills (CCPs) (see Table 4 and 5). Within all of the participating organisations, the staff selection process did not include an assessment of the key relationship skills or an appraisal of structuring skills that can help to improve engagement with young people and address their needs (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Raynor et al., 2014). The CPAI-2010 requires services to have a formalised staff selection process. Practitioners should be selected according to a structured assessment of relationship skills (e.g. enthusiastic, non-blaming, intelligent, flexible, self-confident, humorous, engaging, mature, respectful, empathetic etc.) and structuring skills (e.g. the ability to use cognitive restructuring, pro-social modelling, effective reinforcement/disapproval/authority/ problem solving, being directive and solution-focused etc.). This can be accomplished by incorporating mock 'treatment' groups, vignettes and psychometric assessments into the hiring process (Gendreau et al., 2010). The practitioners' understanding of supervision skills are examined in domain F, and their actual use of these skill in front-line practice are examined in domain G.

As noted in Chapter Two, the specific responsivity principle has received the least exploration in comparison to the risk and need principles (Polaschek, 2012). Yet, it is crucial to the conceptualisation of an integrated RNR model (see pages 49-71). As such, this study has helped to unravel the responsivity principle within the youth justice system. It has provided insight into how it is being applied in practice and the issues associated with its implementation (these are explored further in the results of Domain E, F and G). Additionally, practitioners were not formally monitored for their effectiveness to deliver interventions and did not receive bi-monthly clinical supervision. As previously noted, there was a clear need for training in evidence-based modes of intervention (i.e. cognitive, behavioural and social learning approaches). While staff displayed positive views in regard to their self-efficacy, receiving training in the delivery of CCPs would enhance this. The findings also draw further attention to the organisational context and key organisational constraints of the services examined. The organisational constraints (particularly the lack of

adequate training) may further have contributed to the lower scores in domain G. Within all of the organisations it was clear that all of the practitioners had a strong belief in rehabilitation and were sincere about wanting to help the young people to lead pro-social lives. This was reinforced regularly during their interactions with the young people (Domain G provides examples of this, see pages 195-197).

Within all of the community-based organisations (YOS 1, 2, 3 and 4), there was evidence that the majority of front-line practitioners had appropriate educational qualifications (they either had a bachelor's degree or master's degree in a relevant subject). YOS practitioners are usually required to hold a social work or probation qualification in order to case manage young people. Additionally, the majority of front-line practitioners had previous experience (2 years or more) of working with various offending populations. Staff within Secure Estate 1 did not possess the relevant educational qualifications and knowledge as required by the CPAI-2010. As part of the hiring process, staff in Secure Estate 1 staff are not required to hold any educational qualifications or have any previous experience of offender supervision.

5.5.4 Results from Domain I: Evaluation

Domain I assessed the quality assurance and evaluation processes used to monitor how well a service is functioning. This section examined the type of feedback, assessments, and evaluations used to monitor interventions and their effectiveness. Graph 10 demonstrates the CPAI-2010 scores (%) for each of the participating services.

Graph 10. Domain I Results

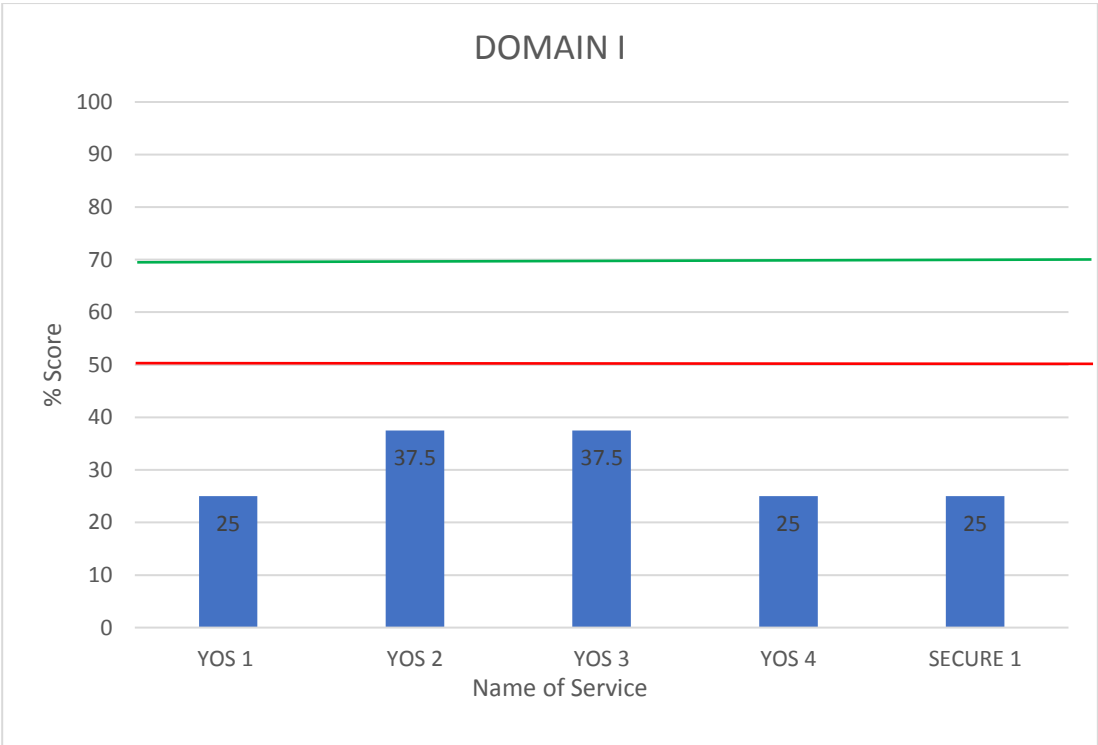


Table 13 illustrates the confidence rating for Domain I for each of the organisations.

Table 13. Domain I Confidence Rating

	YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Confidence Rating	5.0	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.7

Graph 10 reveals that all of the participating services received ‘unsatisfactory’ scores in domain I. YOS 1, 4 and Secure 1 received a score of 25.0%, YOS 2 and 3 received

a slightly higher score of 37.5%. Domain I was the lowest scoring section for all of the participating services. All of the services failed to adequately evaluate their practices, which further widened the practice integrity gap. A lack of evaluation strategies was also attributed to funding cuts, which had resulted in a lack of available staff and time to undertake evaluation exercises. This further highlights the need for adequate funding, as studies reveal that evaluations of services can help to improve the quality of service delivery and help bridge the practice integrity gap (Gendreau et al., 2010; Latessa et al., 2002; Taxman and Belenko 2011; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012).

The services did conduct surveys with the young people in order to ascertain whether they were satisfied with the quality of services that they received. The scores in this domain would have been enhanced if the services had procedures in place to evaluate areas of practice. The CPAI-2010 would require the organisations to conduct periodic evaluations, in which elements of service delivery and outcomes are compared with a risk control comparison group. There should be at least one evaluation every five years. From this evaluation, a document should be produced that details the effectiveness of the organisations. It is expected that the results from this evaluation are then published in a peer-reviewed journal. For example, this would require services to undertake a study such as the one conducted by Bonta et al. (2011). In their study, Bonta et al. (2011) examined the link between supervision skills and recidivism. Firstly, Bonta et al. (2011) trained a group of probation officers in the theory and practical application of supervision skills using the STICS training programme which is underpinned by the RNR model (see Chapter Two). Bonta et al. (2011) examined the link between the reconviction rates of offenders supervised by STICS trained staff with the reconviction rates of offenders supervised by practitioners who did not receive STICS training. The evaluation used matched groups of programme staff who were randomly allocated to experimental and control groups. The study revealed that offenders who were supervised by STICS trained staff had reduced reconviction rates over two years compared with the probationers whose officers used other supervision approaches (Bonta et al., 2011; 2017). Given the organisational constraints, this may not be viable for services to undertake.

5.6 Assessing Front-Line Practice Integrity: Results from Domains E, F, G and H

Domains E, F, G and H of the CPAI-2010 examine the quality of front-line practices. Overall, the services received relatively low scores in domains E, F and G and received extremely high scores in domain H. The low scores in domains E, F and G can be partly attributed to organisational constraints discussed in the findings of domains B, C, D and I. A key finding revealed there was a lack of adequate training available to practitioners, which limited their ability to effectively implement EBPs. As previously noted, not all of the eight domains of the CPAI-2010 are given equal weight in relation to the scoring. The items scored within domain E - client risk/need practices, domain F - programme characteristics and domain G – core correctional practices have been found to be highly correlated with reductions in re-offending (Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). As a result, the evaluator also calculates a ‘treatment’ score. This is the combined score of domains E and F. This is achieved by adding the number of items that were scored as ‘yes’ in both domains and converting this into a percentage based on the total number of applicable items. Graph 10 demonstrates the CPAI-2010 scores (%) for each of the participating services. Domains E and F of the CPAI-2010 examined the risk, need and responsivity practices of the participating services. As discussed in Chapter Two, the risk principle outlines that the intensity of intervention should be correlated with the service user’s risk of re-offending (Lipsey, 2009; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). High-risk service users should receive intensive interventions, and low-risk service users should receive minimum interventions (Lipsey, 2009). The need principle outlines that interventions should target the criminogenic needs of service users (Andrews and Bonta, 2007; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). Graph 11 revealed that all of the services received unsatisfactory scores for the ‘treatment domains’ (domains E and F).

Graph 11. Domain E and F ‘Treatment’ Results

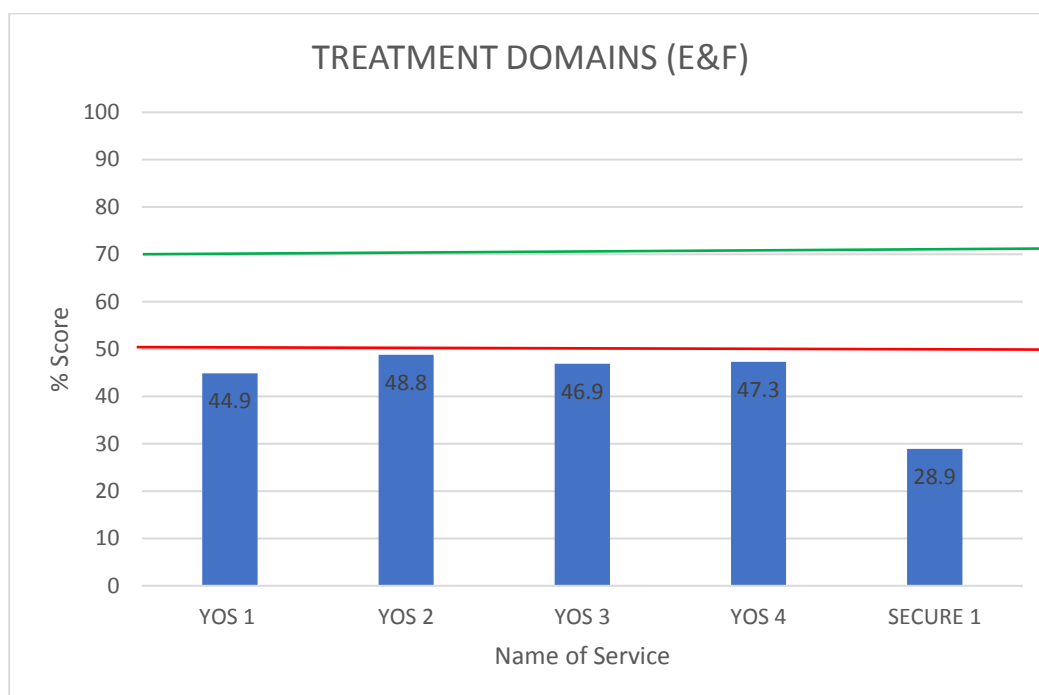


Table 14 illustrates the average confidence rating for the Treatment domains E and F for each of the organisations.

Table 14. Domain E and F Confidence Rating

	YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Confidence Rating	4.7	4.4	4.5	4.8	4.7

Graph 11 demonstrates that all of the services received ‘unsatisfactory’ scores. Secure Estate 1 received the lowest score of 28.9%. YOS 2 received the highest score of 48.8%. YOS 1 received a score of 44.9%, YOS 3 received a score of 46.9%, and YOS 4 received a score of 47.3%. Table 14 demonstrates that the overall confidence rating for each of the organisations was high, indicating that the results are reliable. There were several areas of practice that required improvement. These pertain to the need for practitioners to employ responsivity assessments and evidence-based modes of service delivery (i.e. cognitive, behavioural and social learning approaches). Findings from domain E and F are discussed in the following sections.

5.6.1 Results from Domain E: Client Risk/Need Practices

Domain E examined whether services adhered to the key dimensions of the risk, need and responsivity principles. This domain examined the quality of risk/need/responsivity assessments of the young people and whether the outcomes from the assessments are used to inform service delivery. Graph 12 demonstrates the CPAI-2010 scores (%) for each of the participating services.

Graph 12. Domain E Results

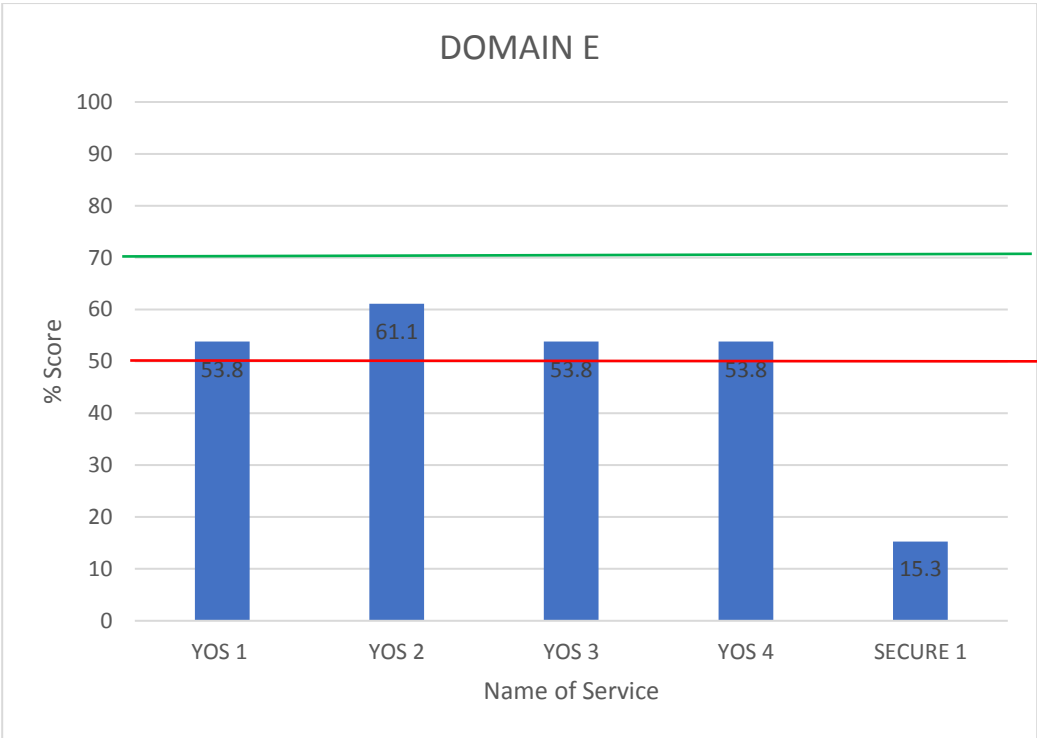


Table 15 demonstrates the confidence rating for domain E for each of the organisations.

Table 15. Domain E Confidence Rating

	YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Confidence Rating	4.6	4.5	4.5	5	5

Graph 12 demonstrates that all of the community-based YOSs received 'satisfactory' scores. YOS 1 (53.8%), YOS 2 (61.1%), YOS 3 (53.8%), YOS 4 (53.8%). The secure estate received an 'unsatisfactory' score of 15.3%.

Understanding Practice Integrity: Risk/need Assessment Practices - Identifying Intervention Targets

All of the young people who were supervised by YOSs 1, 2, 3 and 4 were assessed using Asset (see Chapter Two, pages 77-81 for an overview of Asset). Asset assessments were undertaken by a Case Manager prior to the young person beginning their interventions. The young person's characteristics are also summarised in relation to their assessed level of risk of re-offending (low, medium and high). The young peoples' risk and need levels are also re-assessed by a YOS Case Manager at least once every six months (in line with National Standards or every three months – in line with previous National Standards). Additionally, if something significant happened in the young person's life or if there was a sudden change in behaviour, this would also warrant a re-assessment. If changes are observed by the practitioner, this resulted in the re-classification of the young peoples' level of risk of re-offending. There was also a clear rationale for the young peoples' inclusion and exclusion with the YOS, which was ultimately determined by the Court. While National Standards require YOSs to undertake regular risk/need assessments, this was not the case for Secure Estate 1. The low score for Secure Estate 1 in domain E can be largely attributed to the fact that they did not assess the risk and needs of the young people at any stage of their supervision.

Understanding Practice Integrity: Responsivity Practices - Identifying Barriers to Participation and Engagement

All of the participating services also attained low scores for specific (intrinsic) responsivity practices.. According to the specific responsivity principle, the effectiveness of an intervention is dependent on the manner to which it is delivered (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). As discussed in Chapter Two, the specific responsivity principle stipulates that interventions should be delivered and tailored to the

individual characteristics and abilities of a person (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014). This principle emphasises the importance of addressing individual barriers to learning (Andrews and Bonta, 2007; Taxman, 2014; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Herzog-Evans, 2017). A person's ability to engage with interventions can be affected by factors such as gender, age, culture, learning styles, cognitive ability etc. (Andrews and Bonta, 2007; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). Interventions that are designed and delivered in a style that is congruent with an individual's characteristics can produce positive outcomes such as increased engagement and reductions in re-offending (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Redondo et al., 2002; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014).

The CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that none of the participating services assessed or effectively identified barriers that would affect young people's participation and engagement (responsivity factors) in interventions. Additionally, services did not adequately adapt interventions to meet the specific needs of young people. These findings coincide with previous studies that have found limited adherence to the specific responsivity principle. For example, Luong and Wormith's (2011) study revealed that responsivity factors were not assessed and identified for 80% of the young people in their study. The services would benefit from developing responsivity checklists that would not be too onerous to complete. A lack of adequate responsivity practices significantly affected all of the services scores in domain E. The CPAI-2010 advocates that actuarial measures should be used to assess the responsivity factors of young people. The CPAI-2010 suggests using the following assessment tools:

- General Aptitude Test Battery - Cognitive Ability;
- PCL-R factor 1 - Psychopathy;
- Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety - Anxiety;
- Beck Depression Inventory - Depression.

Assessing responsivity factors will enable the YOSs to adapt the mode and style of service delivery more effectively in response to key characteristics of the young

people. This will ensure that interventions are tailored to the specific needs of young people and will, therefore, be more effective in reducing their offending behaviour (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). However, the practitioners would require further training in order to conduct these assessments, and this may not be viable, given the organisational constraints related to budget cuts. The introduction of AssetPlus may help services to identify and respond to some responsivity factors that can affect young people's engagement in interventions. The inclusion of the SLCN screening tool within AssetPlus can help practitioners to identify barriers to engagement and participation that are associated with communication difficulties affecting the young person (Baker, 2014). Chapter Two (see pages 58-59) highlights the importance of responding to the SLCN of young people. However, during the time of the CPAI-2010 evaluations, Asset was still in use. Therefore, it is not possible to comment on the affect that AssetPlus has had on practice. According to the CPAI-2010, the allocation of staff to a specific role (e.g. YOS Case Manager) and to a specific young person should be a formalised process. This should be based on an assessment of the practitioner's personal characteristics, their supervision skills, and the characteristics of the young person (e.g. staff with a high conceptual level should be assigned to similar young people) (Gendreau et al., 2010). This will ensure that practitioners are suited to work within a particular role and that they possess the relevant characteristics and skills to work effectively with a specific young person. A lack of adequate training can be seen as a contributing factor to this practice integrity gap. As discussed in Chapter Two, McNeill (2012) argues that of the three RNR principles, the responsivity principle has not received sufficient theorisation or explication. Ward (2012) also notes that the responsivity principle has not been implemented as originally intended by its creators. Taxman (2014) advocates the importance of organisational structures in order to adhere to the responsivity principle. McGuire (2004) highlights the importance of managers ensuring that adequate resources are in place, including appropriately selected and trained staff, who also receive clinical supervision. Taxman (2014) also advocates that staff must be properly resourced in order to be able to adhere to the responsivity principle. This links with some of the issues observed in domains B, C, D and I and further strengthens the need for youth justice services to be adequately resourced.

5.6.2 Results from Domain F: Programme Characteristics

Domain F examined the degree to which assessment outcomes inform appropriate interventions and practices. It assessed whether interventions target the key criminogenic needs of young people (the implementation of the need principle). It examined whether supervision was a collaborative process. This domain also assessed practitioners' use of evidence-based modes of interventions such as: cognitive-behavioural approaches, positive reinforcement and disapproval, skills building, aftercare services, and relapse prevention strategies designed to assist the young people in anticipating and coping with problem situations (the implementation of the responsivity principle). Graph 13 demonstrates the CPAI-2010 scores (%) for each of the participating services.

Graph 13. Domain F Results

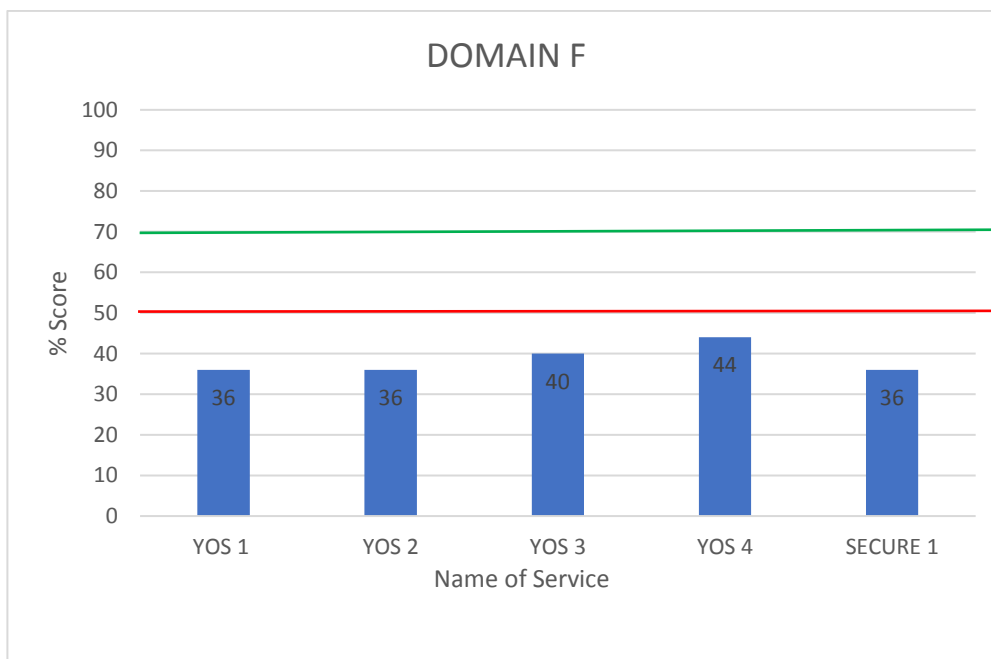


Table 16 highlights the confidence rating for domain F for each of the organisations.

Table 16. Domain F Confidence Rating

	YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Confidence Rating	4.8	4.2	4.5	4.6	4.3

Graph 13 demonstrates that all of the services received 'unsatisfactory' scores. YOS 1 (36.0%), YOS 2 (36.0%), YOS 3 (40.0%), YOS 4 (44.0%), Secure 1 (36.0%).

Understanding Practice Integrity: Risk and Responsivity Practices - Effective Allocation and Integration of Assessment Outcomes

Interviews with practitioners and reviews of case management notes revealed that four of the five services (YOS 2, 3, 4 and Secure 1) were predominantly supporting young people assessed as either medium or high risk of re-offending (70% or more in each service). Additionally, the CPAI-2010 suggests that the treatment dosage (the amount of time a young person spends receiving interventions) should vary by risk. High-risk young people should receive the highest intensity or duration of intervention. The CPAI-2010 suggests that those who are classified as medium risk should receive a minimum of 100 hours of intervention with a one-year period and those classified as high risk should receive at least double (minimum of 200 hours within one year) (Gendreau et al., 2010). However, dosage treatment for those receiving a Statutory Order was determined by pre-ordained, time-bound phases set out by National Standards via the Scaled Approach (now replaced with AssetPlus). Young people classified as medium risk received 'enhanced' supervision, where they were required to have a minimum of 4 supposedly 1-hour contact sessions for the first 3 months and then 2 contact sessions per month for the rest of their order. Those classed as high risk received 'intensive' supervision, which involved a minimum of 12 contact sessions for the first 3 months and 4 contact sessions for the rest of their order. This did not equate to the recommended dosage of treatment. The contact points were determined by the YJB and were, unfortunately, an in-built limitation and again a wider issue. This further reflects the impact that policy can have on the implementation of EBPs. The YOSs may have engaged with the young people more than what was required by National Standards. However, the services did not clearly document the contact time with young people, and it was not completely obvious how much time was actually spent on addressing the needs of the young people. Yet, assigning strict hours for interventions may be problematic and lead to excessive interference that could be detrimental to the young people (McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; 2013). Young people who are high-risk of re-

offending often have more complex needs, but an emphasis also needs to be placed on understanding them as a whole person. Young people need support that addresses their non-criminogenic and criminogenic needs appropriately and responsively, which is not dictated by rigid time-bound or potentially excessive interventions.

All of the YOSs did encourage and create opportunities for young people to be engaged in pro-social activities. For example, a practitioner in YOS 3 was effective in engaging a young person in a conversation about their hobbies and interests. The young person stated that they liked to keep fit and were interested in joining a gym but were reluctant to visit the gym on their own. The practitioner arranged a gym membership for the young person and took them to the gym for their induction/taster session. The practitioner also introduced them to the gym instructors in order to make them feel more relaxed and confident in this environment. This made the young person feel at ease and more likely to engage in the session. This also demonstrated good use of advocacy and brokerage skills, and the skill of supporting words with actions, which are also assessed in domains G and H of the CPAI-2010. The CPAI-2010 also required services to ensure that young people who are high-risk of re-offending are engaged in a minimum of 50 hours per week of pro-social activities, such as education and leisure activities. The premise of this is that the more time young people spend being engaged in pro-social activities, the less time they have to commit crimes (Gendreau et al., 2010). The CPAI-2010 does not require the activities to be provided directly by the YOS, but there is an expectation that the YOS uses their inter-agency links and advocacy and brokerage skills to refer young people to alternative provisions. For example, it would be expected that young people are engaged in education provisions during weekdays and leisure opportunities in the evenings and weekends (e.g. involvement in sports clubs). However, it is an unrealistic expectation for YOSs to ensure that young people are engaged in 50 hours of pro-social activity, and as such, they could not guarantee this. This may also be too great of an expectation to place on the young people. Additionally, for those who are low risk of re-offending, if the contact is predominately with the youth justice system, this may have a detrimental effect on the young person

(see McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; 2013). However, this requirement of the CPAI-2010 does place a responsibility on services to ensure that they provide young people with lots of opportunities to be engaged in pro-social activities within their community, which can help to build their social capital. Due to the nature of Secure Estate 1, young people were engaged in at least 50 hours of pro-social activities. Within Secure Estate 1, the majority of young people spent five days a week from 9 am to 4 pm engaged in educational and training provisions. Additionally, during the evenings, there were several opportunities to take part in recreational activities such as going to the gym. Leisure/recreational activities were also available over the weekend, along with other activities such as library visits. Young people would also spend time with the Interventions Team outside of educational hours where possible.

All of the participating services also ensured that young people were able to contribute to the development of their interventions. Supervision appeared to be collaborative within limits. Additionally, the young people had the opportunity to participate in various projects and activities in the community and work towards recognised educational qualifications. Lastly, there were clear completion criteria outlined for the young people within the YOSs. Additionally, if a Case Manager felt that the young person had engaged with their intervention and had made significant improvements, they could be returned to court and have their order revoked early.

In general, the Asset assessments for YOS 1, 2, 3 and 4 were of good quality. This was also reflected in the reports produced by HMI Probation. In all of the organisations, more measures could have been put in place to ensure that the outcomes of assessments were consistently used to inform intervention plans and the intensity of interventions. In all of the organisations, practitioners were mainly using clinical assessments based on their professional judgement to structure interventions. In the odd case, it appeared that a substantial amount of time had passed without any significant work taking place to support the non-criminogenic and criminogenic needs of the young person. Additionally, through viewing the 'contact notes' recorded by the practitioners, it was not completely clear how much

time they had spent addressing offending attitudes/behaviours with the young people. This was not to necessarily say that offending behaviour work was not being undertaken, but that notes of supervision sessions could have been recorded more comprehensively. This does not need to be an onerous, bureaucratic task, as it could have adverse effect on service delivery (see Farrell et al., 2011). However, practitioners could have developed more detailed and structured intervention plans that clearly set out how they planned to address the key criminogenic and non-criminogenic needs of the young people. The lack of information may be due to organisational constraints affecting practitioners. Although, during the interviews and observations, it was noted that the practitioners did not always explain the purpose and goals of the supervision sessions to the young people. This is important as it helps to set boundaries and helps to ensure that supervision is goal and solution-focused (Gendreau et al., 2010; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Trotter et al., 2009; 2013a; 2013b).

One key finding from this study which undermined practice integrity pertained to the very limited evidence that risk and need assessment outcomes were appropriately informing intervention plans and goals. Additionally, Secure Estate 1 did not undertake risk/need assessments. The CPAI-2010 requires the supervising service to conduct risk/need assessments (Gendreau et al., 2010). It is not sufficient for an organisation to use risk/need assessment from a service that does not have the primary responsibility for supervising the young people. Secure Estate 1, would receive Asset assessment from the YOS that previously supervised the young person, but they would not carry out the assessment first-hand. Secure Estate 1 also stated there were often issues with the Asset assessments. For example, they report that some sections were not completed adequately, or the Asset assessments were not always up to date. Additionally, by the time a young person enters Secure Estate 1, circumstances in their lives could have changed, which may affect their risk of re-offending. As such, the CPAI-2010 requires risk/need assessments to be complete within the first six weeks of a young person entering a new service in order to ensure that appropriate needs are being targeted (Gendreau et al., 2010; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). Previous studies have also found that intervention plans of young

people did not always focus on the criminogenic needs that were identified during risk/need assessments (Flores et al., 2004; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Miller and Moloney, 2013; Singh et al., 2014) (see Chapter Two). According to the RNR literature, interventions are far more likely to produce positive outcomes if they are tailored to addressing the criminogenic needs of service users (dynamic risk factors associated with offending) (Andrews and Bonta, 2007; Andrews et al., 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2010a; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010). For example, Luong and Wormith's (2011) study of risk and need practices in youth justice, revealed interventions that were designed around the identified needs of the young people yielded a 37.9% reduction in risk of re-offending. In addition, their study highlighted that failing to ensure that interventions target the identified needs of the young people correlated with an 81.7% increase in the risk of recidivism (Luong and Wormith, 2011).

Additionally, this thesis revealed that all of the services did not consistently use risk/need assessment outcomes to inform proportionate allocations to interventions. Appropriate allocation is a key element of EBPs (Andrews and Bonta, 2017; Hollin et al., 2013; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010). For example, Lipsey's (2009) meta-analysis of 548 studies of youth justice programmes found that on average, high-risk young people who received interventions produced larger reductions in recidivism than interventions applied to low risk young offenders. However, previous studies have also highlighted that appropriate allocation is not always achieved in practice (Luong and Wormith; Trotter, 2016; Singh et al., 2014; Sutherland, 2009). This is a key concern as several studies have highlighted the detrimental impact that unnecessary system contact with the youth justice system can have on a young person (Tracy and Kempf-Leonard, 1996; Huizinga et al., 2003; McAra and McVie, 2010).

The lack of integration of risk/need assessment outcomes into intervention plans can be attributed to a lack of adequate training, resistance and interpretational issues of the RNR principles. As discussed in Chapter Two, the RNR model is often

misinterpreted and misunderstood (Polaschek, 2012; Herzog-Evans, 2017). This can result in the model being incorrectly applied in practice, which can contribute to criticisms of it being ineffective (Andrews et al., 2011; Polaschek, 2012; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Robinson and Crow, 2009). Briggs's (2013) study revealed that youth practitioners found it difficult to define 'risk' as a concept. However, the CPAI-2010 focuses on what practitioners do in practice and not how they understand or interpret the RNR principles, as such interpretational issues are not addressed. This is a limitation of the evaluation inventory. However, practitioners who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations perceived risk-based policies and practices that are focused on criminogenic needs as being inconsistent with their welfare-based ethos (see also Briggs, 2013; Kemshall, 2008; Morris, 2015; Phoenix, 2009; Souhami, 2009). Phoenix's (2009) study revealed that practitioners perceived 'risk' as the level of vulnerability of young people. Subsequently, practitioners tended to award higher scores to non-criminogenic needs linked to the young person's vulnerability rather than their offending behaviour. This resulted in young people being unnecessarily exposed to intensive interventions (Phoenix, 2009; see also Childs et al., 2014). The study revealed that 'punishment and increased criminalisation were seen as a form of welfarism' (2009: 128). Unnecessary system contact undermines practice integrity and can increase the likelihood of future re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Lipsey, 2009; McAra and McVie, 2010).

Findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations coincide with Phoenix (2009) who also notes there was a feeling of scepticism towards Asset. Briggs (2013) advocates that practitioners prefer to use clinical assessments based on their professional judgement to inform interventions (see also Childs et al., 2014). The CPAI-2010 evaluations also revealed that practitioners in all of the participating services were mainly using their professional judgement to inform interventions rather than the outcomes from the Asset assessments. As discussed in Chapter Two, it has been well documented that the introduction of Asset was met with resistance from practitioners and academics (Almond, 2012; Armstrong, 2006; Bateman, 2005; 2011; Briggs, 2013; Case, 2006; 2007; Case and Haines, 2012; 2015; 2016; Creaney, 2014a; Goldson and Muncie, 2008; O'Mahony, 2009; Morris, 2015;

Phoenix, 2009; Pitts, 2001b; Robert et al., 2001; Shepherd, 2012; Stephenson et al., 2007; Sutherland, 2009). This further highlights that policies are not instinctively implemented into practice (Kemshall, 2008).

This coincides with Hollin et al., (2013) who suggests that practitioners can actively resist or decide to change certain approaches, which can undermine practice integrity. The resistance levelled towards Asset can be partly attributed to a top-down approach to practice change where there was a lack of consultation and training provided for practitioners, along with Asset being too onerous to complete (Almond, 2012; Baker et al., 2005; O'Mahony, 2009; Phoenix, 2009; Shephard, 2012; Sutherland, 2009). Developing validated risk/need assessment tools with practitioner consultation and providing adequate training can help to minimise threats that undermine practice integrity. As discussed in Chapter Two, the process of establishing the criminogenic needs of different offender groups can be a complex task (Hollin and Palmer, 2006; Palmer and Hollin, 2007; Trotter, 2016). Studies suggest that many practitioners are unable to identify and target criminogenic needs without adequate training (see Robinson et al. 2012). Indeed, previous studies also suggest that the lack of consistency of Asset assessments and the effective implementation of outcomes into intervention plans can be attributed to a lack of training (Baker et al., 2005; Sutherland, 2009). It is also worth noting that the identification of criminogenic needs should be a collaborative process between the practitioner and young person and carried out within the context of a positive relationship (Trotter, 2015; 2016). Asset is criticised for marginalising the young person's voice (Annison, 2005; Case 2006; 2007). Additionally, it is important to consider protective and resilience factors when assessing the risk/need of young people, this is something that was missing within Asset and the CPAI-2010 (Case, 2006; 2007; Schoon and Bynner, 2003; Rennie and Dolan, 2010). It is important to acknowledge that domain E and F failed to incorporate items that focus on strengths-based practices and the need to also address non-criminogenic needs. As part of an integrated RNR model, practitioners should build on the strengths, capabilities and protective factors in a young person's life and not just focus on addressing criminogenic risk factors (Haines and Case, 2015; Ward and Maruna, 2007;

Polaschek, 2016; Trotter, 2016) (see pages 82-84 and 86-88). The CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that there were issues with assessment practices. Several studies within youth justice demonstrate that assessing and responding to criminogenic needs is associated with reductions in re-offending (Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Adler et al., 2016; Brogan et al., 2015). In order to bridge the practice integrity gap, practitioners require training to develop their understanding and skills to identify criminogenic and non-criminogenic and how to effectively transform assessment outcomes into front-line service delivery (see also Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Baker, 2004; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018).

Understanding Practice Integrity: Responsivity Practices - Employing Evidence-Based Modes of Intervention

This study revealed that general responsivity (examined in domain F) was another low scoring area for all of the service. Underpinning the general responsivity principles is the notion that cognitive, behavioural and social learning approaches are the most effective mode of service delivery to reduce re-offending (Andrews and Bonta 2010; Dowden and Andrews 2004; Izzo and Ross, 1990; Koehler et al., 2013; Lipsey, 1999; 2009; Lipsey et al, 2010; McGlynn et al., 2013; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter et al., 2015). For example, meta-analytical reviews of youth justice programmes revealed that those based on cognitive-behavioural approaches are cost-effective and can help reduce rates of re-offending by up to 25% (Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 1999; 2010; McGlynn et al. 2013; Izzo and Ross 1990).

All of the organisations were delivering structured programmes that had elements of cognitive behaviourism. However, interviews with practitioners and observations of practice revealed that there was limited evidence that the practitioners applied these approaches or understood their underpinning theories. This was also evident when practitioners were delivering interventions that were not structured programmes. For example, during observations, a practitioner was using a worksheet from a structured programme, which required the practitioner to employ the antecedent-

behaviour-consequences (ABC) model (see Table 4). In this session, the ABC model was actually incorrectly implemented. The session was supposed to focus on identifying the triggers that led to a young person responding aggressively in a particular situation. The practitioner should have used open questions (also a skill of motivational interviewing) to generate discussions about how the young person felt before the event. However, the practitioner primarily told the young person the reasons why they should not get angry. There was a lack of involvement on the young person's behalf. Additionally, the practitioner did not explain to the young person the purpose of the session.

Most of the participating practitioners stated that training on how to employ evidence-based modes of intervention, such as cognitive-behavioural approaches would be beneficial. Secure Estate 1 primarily used structured programmes, which varied significantly in their quality. As with all of the participating organisations, practitioners within Secure Estate 1 did not know what evidence (if any) underpinned the structured programmes they were using. It was also noted that a lot of the intervention sessions often involved quite a lot of written tasks for the young people (this was also observed in the community-based YOSs). For example, in Secure Estate 1, a 16-year-old boy was required to read a fictional letter sent to agony aunt that was written by a 13-year-old girl. The letter described how a boy in the girl's school did not reciprocate her affection. The young person was then tasked with writing a response to the girl that was focused on giving her advice about how she should deal with the situation. It was not clear why this was relevant to the young person or how it addressed any of their needs. Additionally, written tasks may not necessarily be the most appropriate way to work with young people considering that a significant proportion of young people in the youth justice system have SLCN (Bercow, 2008; Bryan et al., 2015; Bryan et al., 2007; Gregory and Bryan, 2011). Indeed, the manager of Secure Estate 1 stated 53% of the young people had additional learning needs. Findings from this thesis coincide with findings from Feilzer et al.'s (2004) study of youth justice programmes in England and Wales. Feilzer et al.'s (2004) found very limited evidence that staff were employing practices that could be described as 'structured cognitive-behavioural programmes'. Failing to

use cognitive-behavioural approaches further undermines practice integrity (Gendreau et al., 2010). The aforementioned example also highlights the need for services to pay more attention to the learning styles (also a specific responsivity factor) young people to ensure that interventions are engaging and accessible (Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). As previously noted, the CPAI-2010 would require organisations to provide practitioners with appropriate training to address these issues, along with clinical supervision in order to increase the self-efficacy of staff (Gendreau et al., 2010). The need for training is a reoccurring theme that emerges throughout this chapter and is discussed in greater detail in the results of domain G.

Practitioners from all of the participating organisations did verbally praise the young people when they displayed pro-social behaviour/attitudes. This was also observed and recorded in domain G. For example, when a young person expressed the following: 'I went to all of my lessons this week (in school) and didn't get kicked out of classes'. The practitioners would often respond with praise such as: 'Well done. That is really good. That is a massive improvement from last week'. One YOS also had a 'Review and Congratulate Panel', where the young people who were engaging well with their intervention were praised by the YOS, their parents/guardian, Magistrates and were also presented with a certificate. However, within YOS 1, 2, 3 and 4, there were no formalised systems in place to reward/praise the young people for displaying pro-social behaviour. Neither was there a formalised system that disapproved of anti-social behaviour. There were policies and procedures in place when a young person breached the terms of their order. However, this did not constitute an effective method of effective disapproval in relation to one-to-one supervision. The YOSs would have achieved higher scores in domain F if there were formalised systems in place, along with a written protocol to ensure that positive reinforcers are administered immediately, consistently, and are made contingent on pro-social behaviours (Gendreau et al., 2010). Secure Estate 1 did have procedures in place that enabled the young people to progress up the levels of the 'regime' within the unit. This entitled the young people to more privileges if they did not break the rules of the unit. From this perspective, it appeared that there was a greater focus

on monitoring the young people for non-compliance rather than rewarding them for pro-social behaviours. Also, interviews with the staff and young people revealed that the rules of the unit were not always consistently applied, which may undermine the legitimacy of the regime. By incorporating positive reinforcers that are specific to the young people and also contingent on pro-social behaviours, this can enhance the effectiveness of the regime and the process of which young people learning pro-social behaviours. If the services develop clear policies and procedures (written protocol) in regard to how staff should effectively approve and reward the young people, this can ensure that reinforcers are applied consistently and effectively (Gendreau et al., 2010; Spiegler and Government, 2010).

In order to motivate change effectively, the CPAI-2010 suggests that organisations should develop a menu of reinforcers (e.g. leisure activities, recreational equipment, social reinforcers such as praise etc.) and punishers (e.g. withdrawal of privileges, expressions of disapproval etc.). The rewards offered for pro-social behaviour should outnumber the disapproval imposed for antisocial behaviour by at least 4:1 (four rewards to one punisher) (Gendreau et al., 2010). One way to increase the number of reinforcers is to develop a structured reinforcement system so that daily pro-social behaviour exhibited by young people can be identified and reinforced by the staff. The young person should be able to nominate some of the reinforcers that will be used. This was non-existent in all of the services. A token economy may be an effective reward and disapproval system that could work well for the organisations (see Spiegler and Government, 2010). Cognitive-behavioural strategy training for the services would also further assist them in responding effectively to antisocial behaviour, beliefs and attitudes.

All of the participating organisations did discuss 'risky' situations with young people where they are more likely to engage in pro-criminal behaviours, and possible options to avoid this. For example, a practitioner in YOS 1 discussed with a young person how they were more likely to engage in anti-social behaviour when they were under the influence of alcohol while with their friends. The practitioners discussed

with the young person why they consumed alcohol with their friends and how this made them feel. However, the practitioner did not explore how they could avoid or minimise these risky situations. The practitioner could have helped the young person to plan or rehearse pro-social alternatives to problem situations. Also, the scores for domain F would have been enhanced if the services had developed relapse prevention plans for young people. These should have a clear and easy to understand summary of strategies to effectively deal with high-risk situations. This can help young people to monitor and cope with difficult situations more effectively (Gendreau et al., 2010). Practitioners also require training to identify the negative consequences of disapproval (e.g. emotional reactions, avoidance, aggression etc.) in order to ensure that unintended consequences are minimised (Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015; Dowden and Andrews, 2004). Additionally, there was very limited evidence that practitioners incorporated problem-solving approaches into their supervision practices. This would require practitioners to support the young people in anticipating problem situations, rehearsing alternative pro-social responses and practising new pro-social behaviours in increasingly difficult situations. Improvements made by young people should also be rewarded. Techniques like role-play should be used (see Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2013a). For example, there were many instances where practitioners would discuss with young people times when they felt angry, and how this made them more likely to react to a situation or person in an aggressive manner. The practitioners could have helped the young person to develop alternative strategies and practised these via role play. This would help the young person to learn new behaviours in more concrete and vivid ways (Gendreau et al., 2010; Vanstone and Raynor, 2012; Raynor et al., 2014). The majority of practitioners who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations noted that training was required to equip them with relevant skills to deliver interventions underpinned by cognitive-behavioural approaches. Essentially, practitioners did not feel that they had received adequate training in order to employ cognitive behavioural techniques effectively and were unable to identify and describe such approaches. Again, training is vital. Robinson et al. (2012) advocate that when practitioners are trained to use cognitive behavioural approaches, it enables them to employ these approaches in practice effectively.

5.6.3 Results from Domain G: Core Correctional Practices

Domain G essentially evaluated the specific (extrinsic) responsivity principle of the RNR model. It assessed the practitioners' use of supervision skills (CCPs) (see Tables 4 and 5 for a detailed overview of CCPs). This element of the CPAI-2010 was scored via direct observations of supervision sessions. During the evaluations the researcher observed one-to-one supervision sessions that took place within the YOSs, within community settings (e.g. gym), during home visits and meetings with other organisations, and during car journeys when the practitioners would be taking the young people to other support providers or to leisure activities. This allowed the researcher to assess the practitioners' skills in a range of settings and environments. Observing varied supervisions sessions helped to provide a more comprehensive picture of the practitioners' use of supervisions skills as every interaction with a young person can be an intervention (NOMS, 2014; Maguire and Raynor, 2017; Webster and Kenny 2015). This also coincides with the thesis' conceptualisation of practice integrity, which advocates that evidence-based practices can be applied to all relevant aspects of service delivery (see pages 94-97). Several studies suggest that the use of supervision skills can contribute to adherence to the specific responsivity principle and reduce attrition and re-offending (Andrews and Kiessling 1980; Bonta et al. 2011; 2017; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Bourgon et al. 2010; Chadwick et al. 2015; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Robinson et al, 2012; Taxman 2008; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). As discussed in Chapter Two, Andrews and Bonta (2010) outline two fundamental dimensions of interpersonal exchanges that underpin responsivity practice; the relationship and structuring principles. Establishing positive relationships with service users can help to engage them in interventions and enable more structured work to be undertaken in order to facilitate change from pro-criminal behaviours/attitudes to pro-social alternatives (Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014). This domain evaluated whether practitioners employed the following supervision skills: the effective use of authority, anti-criminal modelling and reinforcement, problem solving, the use of community resources, motivational interviewing, cognitive restructuring, and the quality of interpersonal relationships between staff and the young people (see Andrews and Kiessling, 1980; Dowden and Andrews, 2004).

Table 17 provides an overview of the total number of observations conducted across all five organisations.

Table 17. Number of Participants for the CPAI-2010 observations

	Number of staff observed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of sessions observed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation	Number of young people observed for the CPAI-2010 evaluation
YOS 1	4	7	5
YOS 2	5	8	6
YOS 3	5	11	6
YOS 4	6	12	7
SECURE ESTATE 1	7	12	20
Total	27	50	44

Graph 14 demonstrates the CPAI-2010 scores (%) for each of the participating services.

Graph 14. Domain G Results

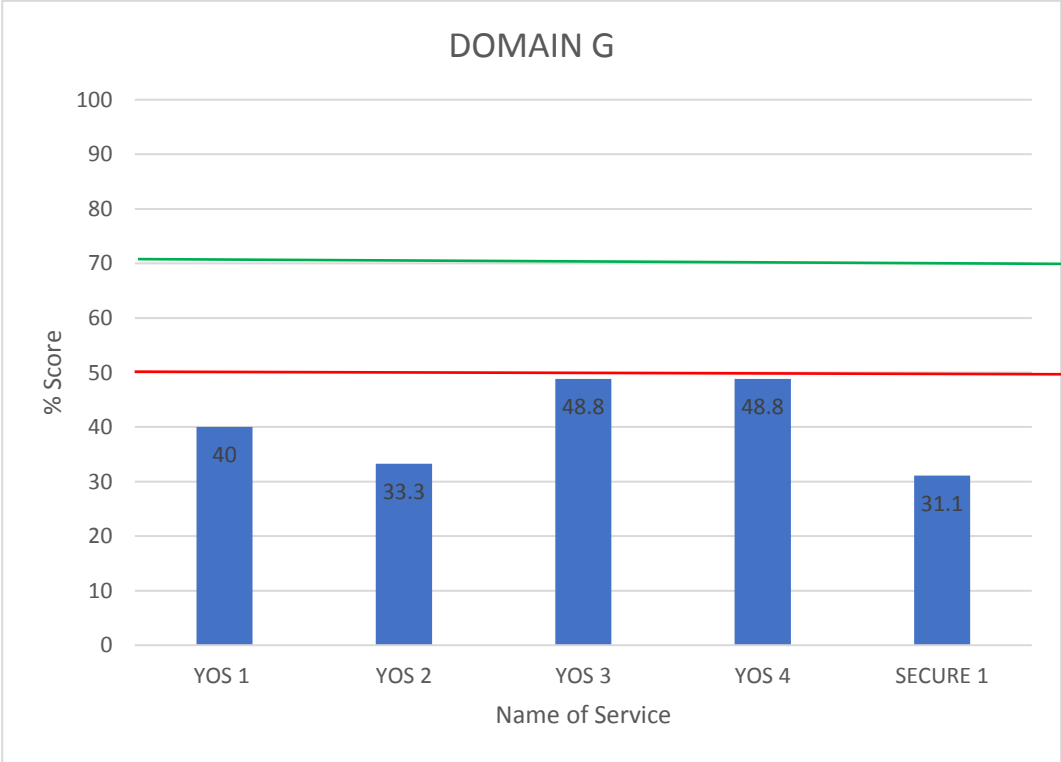


Table 18 highlights the confidence rating for domain G for each of the organisations.

Table 18. Domain G Confidence Rating

	YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Confidence Rating	4.6	3.9	4.5	4.2	3.9

Within the context of the Welsh youth justice system, the use of supervision skills has remained largely unexplored (Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). There is limited empirical insight into what happens in one-to-one supervision. This is echoed by studies conducted by Ipsos MORI (2010) and Mason and Prior (2008). These studies revealed there is a lack of research into supervision skills, and practitioners have difficulties in articulating how to engage with young people effectively, and how engaging young people translates into one-to-one supervision skills (Ipsos MORI, 2010; Mason and Prior, 2008; HMI Probation, 2016). The findings from this thesis can help to bridge the gap between research and practice. Graph 14 reveals that all of the participating services received an ‘unsatisfactory’ score for domain G (>50%). Secure Estate 1 was the lowest scoring organisation (31.1% - unsatisfactory). YOS 2 was the second-lowest scoring organisation and the lowest scoring community-based organisation (33.3% - unsatisfactory). YOS 3 and 4 were the highest-scoring organisation in domain G (48.8% - unsatisfactory). YOS 1 received a score of 40% (unsatisfactory). Table 18 demonstrates that the average confidence rating for this domain was high, indicating that there was a high level of confidence in the reliability of the domain G scores. Insight into this area of practice can also develop our understanding of the specific responsivity principle, which of all of the three RNR principles requires further exploration as it has not been subject to robust meta-analysis (McNeill, 2012).

Table 19 provides a further breakdown of the use of supervisions in terms of the mean score for each skill. Table 19 highlights some of the differences (albeit slight differences) between the youth justice organisations and their use of CCPs.

Table 19. Domain G Mean Scores

CPAI Items (Domains G)	Possible Scores	Mean Scores (n)				
		YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Prosocial modelling	4	0.71	0.5	0.72	0.66	0.41
Effective Reinforcement	4	1.86	1.25	1.45	1.67	0.66
Effective Disapproval	4	0.57	0.25	0.36	0.96	0
Problem Solving	6	1.28	0.75	2.90	0.83	0.83
Prosocial Skills Building	5	0	0	0	0	0
Effective Use of Authority	10	6.86	5.38	7.64	9.33	5.14
Cognitive Self Change	5	1.57	1.50	1.82	1.82	1.41
Relationship Practices	7	5.86	5.88	6.55	5.94	4.81
Total Scores	45	18.38	15.30	21.28	21.21	13.26

Responsivity Practices: Employing Relationship-Based CCPs

Table 19 demonstrates that all of the youth justice organisations employed more relationship-related skills than structuring skills. Indeed, all of the organisations obtained lower scores in the remaining CCPs that underpin the structuring principle (see Bonta and Andrews, 2017). All of the participating services did receive uniformly high scores for the relationship practices assessed in domain G. Developing positive relationships is a key element of supervision practice, this can enhance motivation and engagement during supervision and also promote desistance (Barry, 2010; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Burnett and McNeill, 2005; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Gray, 2013; Johns et al., 2017; McNeill, 2006a; 2006b; McNeill et al., 2012; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2015; Ugwudike, 2016; Williams et al., 2018). Developing good relationships with young people can also help to address socio-economic issues (McNeill et al., 2012; Phillips, 2011; Ugwudike, 2016; Weaver and Barry, 2014). By the practitioners developing trust and rapport with the young people, they may be more likely to disclose any issues that they are facing, which the practitioners are then more informed to address. Additionally, developing a

strong working relationship may make the young person more receptive to the practitioners supporting them and engaging with other specialist services that the practitioner has referred the young person to, which can help to alleviate socio-economic adversity (McNeill et al., 2012; Phillips, 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). The findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations may be reflective of the fact that the majority of practitioners (except for Secure Estate 1) were from a social work background. As Sneden (2013) notes, there is a longstanding emphasis on relationship skills in social work training and practice. Raynor et al.'s (2014) Jersey Probation study also found that practitioners trained in social work tended to score higher on the relationship dimension of supervision skills, as opposed to the structuring dimension. Findings from this thesis also coincide with findings from a study conducted by HMI Probation (2016). HMI Probation's (2016) study revealed that practitioners were able to build and maintain positive relationships with young people. Despite this, the study also highlighted that practitioners did not sufficiently support desistance (HMI Probation, 2016). In terms of relationship-based practices, within YOS 1, 2, 3, 4 and Secure Estate 1, there was evidence that:

1. Practitioners were engaging with their relationship skills and used humour and flexibility to interact with the young people, creating a safe and relaxed environment. For example, practitioners were not awkward in the demeanour or communication. Practitioners would engage young people in genuine conversations about their hobbies, and practitioners would express an interest in these activities and encourage them. For example, one young person had an interest in football and supported Arsenal FC. The practitioner talked to the young person about Arsenal's latest match and discussed how the players were performing. The practitioner also joked about how a player missed an easy opportunity to score a goal. The use of humour and engaging young people in conversations about their interests was an effective way to build rapport and trust with the young person. De Boer and Coady's (2007) study also highlighted that engaging in conversations about a young person's interests can help practitioners to build rapport and get to know the young person as a whole person. This is key in order to respond to children in a human-centred manner and can also help to develop a strong, supportive relationship (Calder, 2008; De Boer and Coady, 2007; Gendreau et al., 2010).

2. Practitioners were non-blaming and genuine. For example, when practitioners were exploring a young person's circumstances, they did not inadvertently or directly attribute the blame on the young person for the circumstance that they were in.
3. Practitioners were enthusiastic and optimistic in the young peoples' ability to stop their offending and provided encouraging messages on a regular basis. Practitioners supported the self-efficacy of the young people and provided them with regular verbal positive reinforcement. This was also often displayed in forms of praise. Practitioners would often encourage the young people to achieve their goals. For example, one young person aspired to be a mechanic, but they appeared to lack that self-belief to achieve this. The practitioner used words of encouragement, such as: 'you are really talented. I've seen how you are able to fix things. I wouldn't be able to fix things like you. As long as you are committed to it, you can do it. We can look to enrol you on a mechanics course?'
4. As the latter example demonstrates, practitioners also supported their words with actions, and they were 'firm but fair'. For example, in one session, a practitioner told a young person that they would arrange a meeting with their local college to help them to enrol in a course. The practitioner discussed with the young person that if they made an appointment, the young person needed to commit to attending it. This was done encouragingly. In the next session, the practitioner informed the young person that a meeting had been arranged and provided time with the date and time of the meeting. The practitioner also informed the young person they were able to take them to the meeting and advocate on their behalf. This also demonstrated the effective use of advocacy and brokerage skills, which are also examined in domain H.
5. Practitioners did not just monitor for non-compliance (except in Secure Estate 1). As with the previous examples, practitioners would regularly praise young people for engaging in interventions. Practitioners were not actively looking to breach young people for non-compliance. Practitioners often used their discretion if a young person missed a session or needed to re-arrange for a valid reason.

6. Practitioners avoided confrontational arguments and 'rolled with the resistance'. They did not use doomsday ultimatums. Instead, they offered encouraging messages toward compliance. For example, practitioners did not try to coerce young people to attend supervision sessions by threatening them with breach procedures. Communication was respectful, and practitioners would encourage young people to attend sessions. For example, a practitioner said: 'you've been engaging really well, and next week you have a session with Practitioner 2 (drug worker). Practitioner 2 is really friendly; it would be great for you to attend so we can help you deal with some of the issues that you've talked to me about'.
7. Staff were open and warm. They used their normal tone of voice and were respectful in their communication with the young people (apart from some issues in Secure Estate 1). For example, practitioners would speak to young people in a warm, sensitive manner, and used language that was accessible and easy to understand. Practitioners would not shout or be sarcastic towards the young people. Again, this form of respectful communication can help to build positive working relationships with young people, which can help to support reductions in re-offending (Barry, 2010; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Burnett and McNeill, 2005; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Gray, 2013; Johns et al., 2018; McNeill, 2006a; 2006b; McNeill et al., 2012; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2015; Ugwudike, 2016; Williams et al., 2018).

Overall, the practitioners were able to build positive relationships with young people. However, during observations in the Secure Estate 1, it was noted that on occasions some staff used profanity in the presence of the young people or would use profanity in a 'banter' style of communication. For example, a member of the staff was talking to a young person about football. When discussing their football teams, a staff member said: 'Why would you support Liverpool? They are fucking shit'. As noted previously, engaging in small talk or conversations about the young person's interests can help to build rapport (Calder, 2008; De Boer and Coady, 2007; Gendreau et al., 2010). However, in comparison to the example on page 195, the

interaction between the young person and practitioner from Secure Estate 1 would not constitute respectful communication. Practitioners in Secure Estate 1 should always use appropriate language when communicating with young people. Practitioners should model and reinforce pro-social behaviours at all times. Training in pro-social modelling would help to resolve this issue (Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b).

While building positive relationships is a key part of supervision practices (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; McNeill, 2006a, Raynor et al., 2014), it should not be the only element of supervision. From a desistance perspective, interventions should help to enhance social capital (developing pro-social relationships and networks that provide opportunities for the young people) and human capital (developing the young peoples' skills and personal capacities) (McNeill et al., 2012). The GLM also supports the notion of supporting service users to acquire the skills (pro-social skills and capabilities) they require to achieve 'good lives' (positive life goals such as wellbeing) (Ward and Fortune, 2013). As previously noted, other studies have also revealed that there is a tendency for practitioners to emphasise relationship practice alongside interventions and practices that are not necessarily change-focused (Ipsos MORI, 2010; Mason and Prior, 2008; HMI Probation, 2016; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Trotter et al., 2015). Findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that the participating practitioners did not consistently employ the structuring dimension of CCPs. This coincides with findings from studies that have explored supervisions skills in other jurisdictions (see Bonta et al., 2008; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; Trotter et al., 2015; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Raynor et al., 2014; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). These findings may be reflective of the notion that practitioners continue to have difficulties in translating research into practice. The structuring skills of the specific responsivity principle are arguably more difficult to implement than relationships skills as practitioners require training in order to understand and implement structuring skills effectively (Smith et al., 2012; Raynor et al., 2014; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). To ensure the long-term implementation of EBPs, practitioners require on-going training and clinical supervision (Taxman and Belenko, 2011;

Raynor et al., 2014; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Trotter, 2017). As noted in domains B and D, none of the services had received adequate or on-going training in the delivery of structuring skills. Additionally, none of the services engaged in clinical supervision and this can be seen as a contributing factor to the low scores in domain G.

Responsivity Practices - Employing Structuring Based CCPs

As Table 19 reveals, there was little or no evidence that practitioners were employing the following CCPs: prosocial modelling, problem-solving, effective disapproval, cognitive restructuring. A key observation was that practitioners did not consistently employ techniques of effective disapproval (also referred to as effective challenging). As discussed in Chapter Two, effective disapproval refers to practitioners using evidence-based techniques to communicate disapproval for specific behaviour (Trotter et al., 2015). This includes immediate statements of disapproval and the reasons why this behaviour is undesirable, followed by consideration of the short-term and long-term costs associated with the continued use of the behaviour and a clear demonstration of an alternate, prosocial behaviour (Gendreau et al., 2010; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). Trotter et al.'s (2015) youth justice study revealed that the use of effective disapproval skills can help to reduce re-offending. However, when challenging skills are misapplied, this can disengage the young people and also increase the likelihood of re-offending (Trotter et al., 2015). Papanozzi and Gendreau (2005) have identified extremes of ineffective modes of disapproval that can increase recidivism. These pertain to practitioners who enforce 'get-tough' approaches by attempting to change behaviour by threats, 'doomsday ultimatums' or by enforcing breach producers rigidly. In contrast, practitioners who do not employ challenging skills by being overly forgiving and non-directive can actually inadvertently reinforce pro-criminal behaviours (Trotter et al., 2015; Papanozzi and Gendreau, 2005). Ultimately, Papanozzi and Gendreau (2005) advocate that there needs to be a balance between the two styles. Trotter et al. suggest that:

Challenges may be directed toward a range of different client comments and behaviours, including criminal acts, comments supporting criminal behaviour, or other comments or behaviours that the worker sees as unhelpful for the client, for example, being unemployed, not keeping appointments with the worker, or associating with criminal peers

(2015: 398).

Dowden and Andrews (2004) affirm that practitioners should focus their challenging/disapproval on the behaviour not the person performing it in order to avoid confrontation and incite the adverse effects of disapproval (e.g. emotional reactions, avoidance and aggression), which can also disengage an individual. The CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that the majority of practitioners failed to challenge pro-criminal beliefs. For example, when a young person displayed pro-criminal beliefs or negative behaviours toward school, these comments were often ignored. This would not constitute as 'rolling with resistance' as the comments did not pertain to a lack of engagement with the session. In these cases, it would have been beneficial for the practitioner to explore these beliefs and statements with the young person. By not challenging such behaviours, this can actually inadvertently reinforce pro-criminal attitudes and behaviours (Paparozzi and Gendreau, 2005; Trotter et al., 2015; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). The example below is taken from Trotter et al.'s (2015) study, which demonstrates how practitioners can employ the skill of effective disapproval with young people:

Worker: What are the consequences going to be if you keep doing that stuff at school?
Client: Suspension.
Worker: And what's going to happen if you keep getting suspended?
Client: I will just have the biggest holiday of my life.
Worker: What would the consequence be in terms of your education goals?
Client: I would learn how to do bad stuff. I don't want to do good stuff.
Worker: OK, and if you are learning how to do the bad stuff, what's the risk involved with that? Things that I know you want to avoid.
Client: Don't know—getting caught, police.
Worker: Where would you get sent?
Client: Cobham (detention centre).
Worker: And how much do you want that to happen?
Client: I don't know, never.

In this example, the practitioner used open questions to elicit responses from the young person (elements of motivational interviewing). The practitioner did not focus the disapproval on the person, but on the behaviour and helped the young person to explore the consequences of their behaviour. The short exchange resulted in the young person realising that suspension from school would not be a positive outcome. Findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations also reflect the findings from Dowden and Andrews (2004) meta-analysis, which revealed that 'effective disapproval' was the least observed skill (see also Trotter et al., 2015). Again, training in these skills is vital to ensure that they are implemented into practice.

The organisations also attained high scores for the effective use of authority. This specifically related to the elements which help to improve the relationship between the practitioner and young person. As discussed previously, the staff gave encouraging messages to the young people in order to motivate them and did not threaten them with 'doomsday ultimatums' (see an example of this on page 196) (see also Table 4 in Chapter Two for examples of the effective use of authority). However, in terms of the effective use of authority, the purpose of the interventions were not always explained to the young person. Providing clear information forms part of the skill that requires practitioners to provide 'direct and specific' guidance, which was only being employed consistently in YOS 4. It is important that the purpose of sessions are explained to young people in order to help them understand why certain intervention work is being undertaken and how it will benefit of them (sessions should be solution-focused and goal-orientated) (Gendreau et al., 2010).

In terms of cognitive restructuring, as identified in domain F, practitioners did discuss 'risky' situations with young people. However, cognitive restructuring was not used in a consistent or structured manner. Cognitive restructuring involves practitioners guiding a young person through the process of replacing anti-social thoughts and feelings with pro-social alternatives. It involves working with the young person to identify risky thoughts (e.g. through a thinking report). Practitioners should encourage the young person to describe his/her thoughts and feelings and then use

this information to generate discussions about problematic thoughts, views or beliefs. The objective is to help the young person to identify possible distortions in their thoughts, views or beliefs and to encourage them to practice rationale alternatives to these (Spiegler and Guevremont, 2010; Gendreau et al., 2010). This is underpinned by cognitive-behavioural approaches and the idea that our thought patterns can affect our feelings and then our behaviour (Gendreau et al., 2010). The purpose of this is to promote cognitive and-behavioural self- change. Cognitive restructuring can be used in conjunction with problem-solving techniques underpinned by the ABC model. This involves practitioners helping the young people to carefully identify the events and conditions that occur/ed before or trigger/ed the behaviour in question (the antecedents). The next step is to identify and explore with the young person the result of the behaviour in question (the consequences). Practitioners should clarify goals for resolving or preventing future negative consequences (problem-solving should be goal-oriented). This process should also involve generating alternative solutions, evaluating the options and implementing a plan (Gendreau et al., 2010). As discussed in domain F, practitioners were not employing these skills in a structured or consistent manner. During the interviews with practitioners, none of them stated that they used cognitive restructuring or problem-solving techniques as a mode of intervention. When probed further about their understanding of cognitive-behaviour approaches, the practitioners did not feel confident in utilising these approaches as they felt they had not received adequate training to employ them.

It appeared that the main reason why practitioners did not use structuring skills was that they had not received adequate training to implement them in practice. Many practitioners were unaware of the skills that comprise CCPs. It was not the case that practitioners rejected these skills, but instead, they did not have the efficacy to implement supervision skills effectively. Several studies have identified that a lack of adequate training as one of the main reasons that inhibits practitioners use of supervisions skills (Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Bonta et al., 2008; Mason and Prior, 2008, Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; HMI Probation, 2016; Ipsos MORI, 2010). However, some practitioners may reject the

use of some structuring skills if they perceive that young people's offending behaviour is linked to structural adversity as opposed to anti-social behaviour/attitudes. However, structuring skills such as effective use of authority and pro-social modelling can help to ensure that the practitioners engage with the young people appropriately (Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Trotter, 2009, 2013a; 2013b; Trotter et al., 2015). These skills also help to improve compliance and the respectful treatment of young people (see Table 4). As such, these skills should not be resisted by practitioners. It is important that practitioners have a repertoire of skills that are applied in appropriate situations (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Raynor et al., 2014; Herzog-Evans, 2017).

The key and re-occurring findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations are that adequate training is required for staff to implement CCPs effectively and to bridge the practice integrity gap. This echoes the findings of previous youth justice studies within England and Wales (HMI Probation, 2016; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Mason and Prior, 2008). The CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that there was limited to no adequate training available to practitioners. This also coincides with the findings from the Ipsos MORI (2010) survey, which found that there were few formal training opportunities within the YOSs. To concur with Mason and Prior, 'practitioners need to have, or have access to ... trainin' (2008: 48). The findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that practitioners would particularly benefit from training to employ the structuring skills of CCPs. As noted in Chapter Two, there is growing body of research that highlights that training in employing CCPs can help to reduce re-offending (Alexander et al, 2013; Andrews and Kiessling, 1980; Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al, 2014; Robinson et al., 2012; Sorsby et al., 2013; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). The availability of appropriate training was found to be an issue for all of the participating services. As previously noted, organisational constraints may be one of the contributing factors which impeded the availability of adequate training and the use of CCPs in front-line practice. This would include such issues as heavy caseloads, a lack of organisational harmony, practitioner shortages, funding cuts, inadequate administrative support and constant policy change (Clarke et al., 2004;

Farrell et al., 2011; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Raynor, 2004). The results from domain G of the CPAI-2010 reflect deficits in practice and not issues with the suitability of the CPAI-2010. The importance and effectiveness of supervision skills have been evidenced in youth-specific studies (Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; 2017; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015).

5.6.4 Results from Domain H: Inter-Agency Communication

Domain H assessed how well the services collaborated and communicated in an inter-agency capacity. It examined how well the services facilitated access to community resources by providing effective advocacy and brokerage services. Graph 15 demonstrates the CPAI-2010 scores (%) for each of the participating services.

Graph 15. Domain H Results

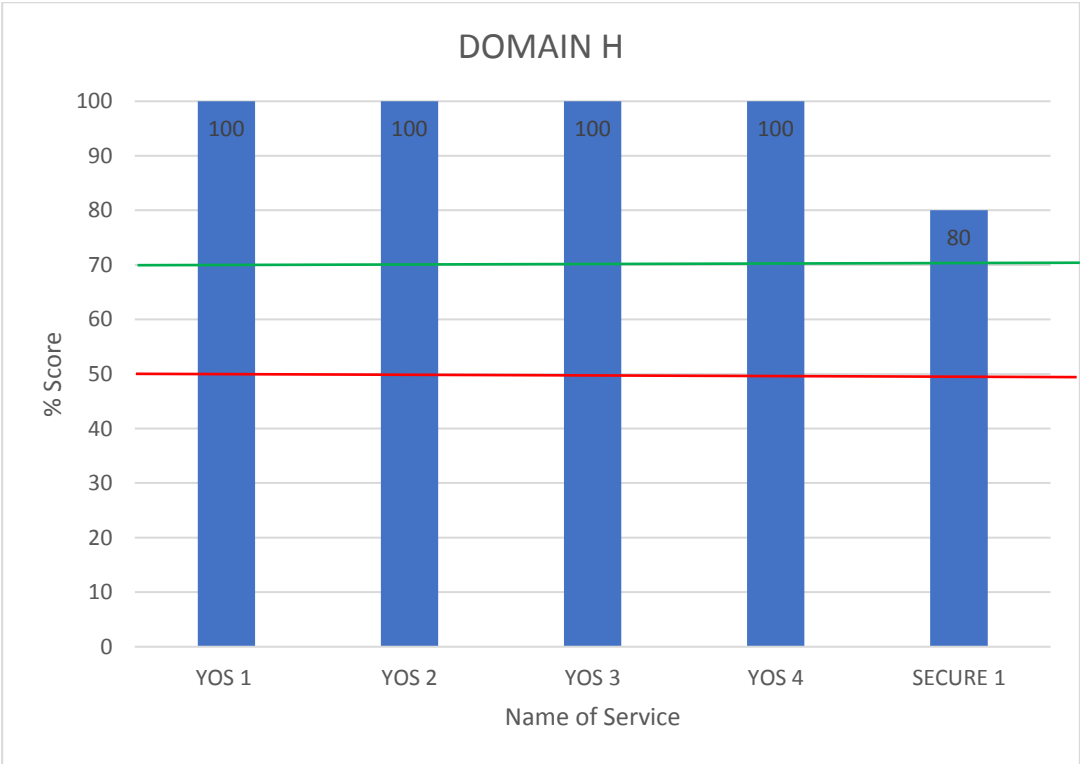


Table 20 demonstrates the confidence rating for domain H for each of the organisations.

Table 20. Domain H Confidence Rating

	YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Confidence Rating	5	4.6	4.6	4.6	3.8

Table 21 provides a further breakdown of the means scores for domain H.

Table 21. Domain H Mean Scores

CPAI Items (Domains H)	Possible Scores	Mean Scores (n)				
		YOS 1	YOS 2	YOS 3	YOS 4	Secure Estate 1
Brokerage	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mean Score		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Advocacy	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mean Score		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Communication (Interagency)	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mean Score		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Coordination (Interagency)	1	1	1	1	1	0
Mean Score		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0
Links (To Relevant Services)	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mean Score		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Total Scores	5	5	5	5	5	4

All of the services received 'very satisfactory' scores within domain H of the CPAI-2010. All four community-based YOSs scored 100% (very satisfactory) - the highest attainable score. Secure Estate 1 also achieved a 'very satisfactory' score of 80%. Five items were assessed: brokerage, advocacy (see Table 4), communication (maintaining effective multi-agency communication), coordination (maintaining

effective multi-agency coordination) and links (providing information about available services). Table 20 demonstrates that the average confidence rating for this domain was high, indicating that there was a high level of confidence in the reliability of the domain H scores.

Previous studies suggest that providing appropriate advocacy and brokerage services can help to produce positive outcomes, such as reductions in re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2016; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Ugwu-dike, 2016). Multi-agency working can facilitate improved coordination of service provisions. Several studies have highlighted the importance of multi-agency collaboration in regard to facilitating EBPs for youth and criminal justice agencies (see for example, Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Farrell et al., 2011; Rudes et al., 2017). The CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that all of the participating services had developed strong multi-agency links with external services such as local housing providers and education/training providers. Access to support services can help to build social capital and reduce re-offending (Farrall 2002; Farrall et al., 2014; McNeill et al., 2012). Practitioners from all of the organisations would meet regularly with staff from other agencies and keep in contact via email and telephone. There was clear coordination between the YOSs 1, 2, 3, 4 and the external agencies that provided support to the young people. Within Secure Estate 1, there appeared to be some room for improvement to enhance the communication between Secure Estate 1 and YOSs in England. This is in relation to a more coherent continuation of the intervention-based work for when the young people arrive at Secure Estate 1, and when they are then licensed back to the YOS to complete the rest of their order. Clear coordination is an important element of service delivery. A study conducted by Glisson and Hemmelgarn found that practitioners who were involved in collaborative partnerships with other agencies were more likely to assume the other agency would make decisions and provide interventions/support for the young person. This actually resulted in fewer support services for the young person. The aforementioned study further highlights the importance of practitioners developing good relationships with young people. Practitioners need to support the

goals of rehabilitation and demonstrate that they care (Hanson and Holmes, 2014; McNeill, 2006a; McNeill et al., 2012; Smyth and Eaton-Erickson, 2009).

The CPAI-2010 evaluations also revealed that practitioners routinely advocated for young people in numerous settings such as home and school. The examples provided on pages 180 and 195 also demonstrate the use of these skills. Additionally, there were leaflets and posters in the services that provided the young people with accessible information about relevant support services available to them. High scores in this area could be partly attributed to legislative requirements of the 1998 CDA. The 1998 CDA places a statutory requirement for organisations (e.g. probation, social services, police, education, health services) to work within a formalised multi-agency capacity to reduce re-offending. This ultimately saw the creation of the multi-agency YOSs. As such, inter-agency collaboration appears to remain a key priority for all of the participating services.

However, there is the potential to improve services further. As discussed in Chapter Two, YOSs initially had the vision to provide specialist and mainstream services to young people to facilitate their integration or reintegration into their communities. However, the young peoples' status as an 'offender' enables them to access these services, which can set them apart from their 'law-abiding' peers (Gray, 2005a). Being labelled and singled out as an 'offender' can have adverse effects on young people (Becker, 1967; McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; Haines and Case, 2015). Many argue that this approach fails to address the social and structural issues that influence young peoples' offending behaviour and focuses on their individual faults (Case and Haines, 2015; Gray 2007; Smith, 2014a; Yates, 2010; White and Cunnen, 2015). Young people who have offended are more likely to be successful if they are given the opportunity to develop their skills and identity by participating in activities alongside non-offending peers. Indeed, services should view young people who have offended as potential assets to their communities, with their participation in society being key to the future well-being of those societies (Drakeford and Gregory, 2010). As such, 'offender' labels should be removed from YOS. Support for *all* young

people should be universal through Youth Services rather than Youth *Offending* Services, which coincides with this thesis' broadening of the human service principle (see Chapter Two, pages 44-49). However, the CPAI-2010 fails to incorporate items that examine practices that seek to prevent the stigmatisation of young people.

5.7 The CPAI-2010 Scores and Recidivism Data

Stage three of this thesis sought to undertake an outcome evaluation. This stage planned to analyse the CPAI-2010 scores of the individual youth justice services with their recidivism data. The purpose of this was to determine whether a link between high levels of practice integrity and lower rates of recidivism existed in Wales. To date, Lowenkamp et al.'s (2006a) study is the most comprehensive research that has examined this link. Lowenkamp et al. (2006a) used a condensed version of the CPAI (section G was not included) to examine 53 community-based 'half-way houses' in Ohio, America. Lowenkamp et al. (2006a) matched more than 3,000 parolees that were released to half-way houses with a similar set of parolees not released to half-way houses. Using the CPAI, Lowenkamp et al. (2006a) assessed the practice integrity of the half-way houses. The findings revealed that interventions with higher practice integrity (higher CPAI scores) were associated with larger reductions in recidivism than interventions that received low CPAI scores (limited practices integrity) (Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). The aforementioned study highlights that close adherence to EBPs can lead to reductions in re-offending. As such, stage three of the study set out to establish: What is the relationship between 'practice integrity' and recidivism rates in Welsh youth justice agencies? This study sought to examine this from two key perspectives:

1. Did the participating youth justice organisations with higher levels of practice integrity have greater reductions in recidivism?
2. Did participation in the CPAI-2010 facilitate the implementation of EBPs and help to reduce recidivism?

In order for any meaningful comparison to be undertaken between the participating services, this study would have required access to the individual risk of re-offending

scores of each of the young people supervised by the organisations and their individual recidivism data. Three key issues prevented this data from being obtained. One finding from the CPAI-2010 evaluation revealed that there was not readily accessible and comparable recidivism data available in the participating services. The participating services did hold Asset scores and recidivism data, but it was difficult to disaggregate this information into an accessible and useable format that could have been used in a rigorous and meaningful way. One item within the CPAI-2010 required the evaluator to establish whether the services primarily supervised young people who are assessed as either medium to high risk of re-offending. According to the risk principle of the RNR model, the resources of the services should prioritise those who are more likely to re-offend and divert those who are low risk of re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). In order to establish the level of risk of re-offending of the cohort, the researcher had to read through each file of the 265 young people in order to calculate the percentage of risk levels in each service. While the service did keep a record of the individual Asset scores, none of the services had a database that kept a collated record of the risk level of the young people, the type of order they were serving, the length of the order, or whether that young person went on to re-offend. This information was required in order to make any meaningful comparisons between the services. Within the CPAI-2010 reports, it was recommended that the services began to collate this information in a more comprehensive manner, which would assist them to evaluate their own practices. Keeping a central record of this would enable the service to have easily accessible data that they could use if they wished to complete self-evaluations of themselves. This issue was also discussed with the service managers for the purpose of collecting data for this study. However, due to organisational constraints, none of the services had the resources or time to start to collect this data during the study period. After discussion with the data analyst at the YJB Cymru, the data analyst also stated that it would not be possible to access this data in a useable format. The recidivism data could have been accessed from the National Police Database. However, this data would not be available in an accessible and readily useable format. Given the time it would take to clean the data, and with further issues that are discussed in the following sections (mainly the lack of comparable Asset scores), this stage of the proposed study was not viable.

Secondly, there were also changes in how the services assessed the risk and needs of young people. When the initial CPAI-2010 evaluations were conducted (November 2014 to May 2015), all of the services assessed the risk of re-offending using Asset (apart from Secure Estate 1 who did not undertake risk of re-offending assessments. However, Secure Estate 1 did have access to Asset assessments that were conducted prior to the young people entering Secure Estate 1). During 2015-2016, the participating services began to phase in AssetPlus. As noted in Chapter Two, AssetPlus takes a more holistic approach to assess the risk and needs of young people, with a greater emphasis placed on their strengths (Baker, 2014). AssetPlus does not generate a score that corresponds to a level of risk as Asset did. As such, there was no comparable data available in terms of risk of re-offending.

Thirdly, in 2016, the Ministry of Justice changed their procedures for collecting and monitoring reconviction data. Pre-2016, reconviction data was collected and monitored in 12-month periods from April to March. Now data is collected and analysed quarterly, and the data from each quarter is then collated to produce annual figures and statistics. The change in recording procedures may pose difficulties for future research as it will be difficult to draw meaningful comparisons from pre and post 2016 data. However, the 12-month recidivism data was available for each of the participating services until December 2016; this data was not affected by the Ministry of Justice's changes. The final CPAI-2010 evaluation was conducted in May 2015, and therefore 12 recidivism data was still available. The reconviction data for this study was provided directly by the YJB Cymru⁸. Table 22 provides an overview of the cohort of young people from January 2014 to December 2016, along with reconviction rates and the CPAI-2010 scores.

⁸ Changes to the monitoring of data occurred before the recidivism data that was required for this thesis was available. However, the YJB Cymru had 12 month recidivism data available from January to December as opposed to April to March.

Table 22. Youth Justice Recidivism Rates from January 2014 to December 2016

Organis-ation	Region	Jan 14- Dec 14		Jan 15- Dec 15		Jan 16- Dec 16		Overall CPAI-2010 score (%)	CPAI-2010 Rating
		Number in cohort (n)	Recidivism (%)	Number in cohort (n)	Recidivism (%)	Number in cohort (n)	Recidivism (%)		
YOS 1	Gwent	196	46.9	215	47.0	155	40.6	50.0	Satisfactory
YOS 2	Dyfed Powys	187	38.5	117	41.9	71	42.3	42.4	Unsatisfactory
YOS 3	North Wales	194	51.5	157	56.1	138	56.5	50.7	Satisfactory
YOS 4	North Wales	109	36.7	88	47.7	60	41.7	53.0	Satisfactory
Secure Estate 1	South Wales	54	68.5	51	68.6	68	79.4	35.6	Unsatisfactory

The analysis of the data available revealed that no conclusive findings could be determined. As noted, additional information would have been required. It should be noted that YOS 4 received the highest CPAI-2010 score of all of the participating services and had the second-lowest recidivism rate. Additionally, YOS 4 demonstrated a 6-point percentage reduction in recidivism from January 2015-December 2015 to January 2016-December 2016. Comparably, YOS 4 was also performing better than other YOSs regionally and nationally (as illustrated in Table 23). Based on the statistics, the CPAI-2010 evaluations may have potentially had a positive impact in terms of improving service delivery. Additionally, Secure Estate 1 received the lowest CPAI-2010 score (35.6%) (obtained in February 2015) and had the highest rate of reconviction (79.4% January 2016-December 2016). To some extent, this does suggest that low practice integrity is associated with higher rates of recidivism. However, this is only a tenuous link, and a comprehensive outcome analysis would be required to substantiate this. It might be expected that Secure Estate 1 has higher recidivism rates as they tend to supervise young people of higher risk and therefore, their issues can be more complex to respond to (Green, 2019; Bateman, 2019).

Table 23. Regional and National Comparisons of Recidivism Rates

		Jan 14- Dec 14		Jan 15- Dec 15		Jan 16- Dec 16		
Organisations	Region	Number in cohort (n)	Recidivism (%)	Number in cohort (n)	Recidivism (%)	Number in cohort (n)	Recidivism (%)	Overall CPAI-2010 Score (%)
YOS 1	Gwent	196	46.9	215	47.0	155	40.6	50.0
All organisations in Gwent	Gwent	582	48.4	522	51.3	423	46.2	N/A
YOS 2	Dyfed Powys	187	38.5	117	41.9	71	42.3	42.4
All organisations in Dyfed Powys	Dyfed Powys	409	32.9	271	48.9	200	48.8	N/A
YOS 3	North Wales	194	51.5	157	56.1	138	56.5	50.7
All organisations in North Wales	North Wales	677	43.3	517	50.0	427	49.2	N/A
YOS 4	North Wales	109	36.7	88	47.7	60	41.7	53.0
Secure Estate 1	South Wales	54	68.5	51	68.6	68	79.4	35.6
All organisations in Wales	Wales	2532	46.3	2121	50.1	1660	47.7	N/A

The figures from 2015 to 2016 highlight that the number of young people being formally processed through the youth justice system had decreased across all of the YOSs. Within Wales, there is an emphasis placed on diverting young people away from the criminal justice system, which may have contributed to the lower numbers being formally processed. Many low-risk young people have been diverted away from the formal youth justice system. The young people receiving statutory orders may have multiple and complex needs, with their offending behaviour being more entrenched (Johns et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2018; YJB, 2018). This may be a contributing reason to why the recidivism rates of some of the participating YOSs have increased (Green, 2019; Bateman, 2019). However, it is difficult to draw any conclusive finding from the data as to whether the CPAI-2010 had helped to improve

practice. As mentioned previously, funding cuts may be a significant contributing factor that has impeded services from improving their practices. It is somewhat impossible to identify a single cause in the changes in recidivism. Fluctuations in recidivism can be affected by a myriad of circumstances from policy changes, policing practices, the cohort of young people (Green, 2019; Bateman, 2014; 2019). On reflection, it is a limitation of this study that a comprehensive outcome analysis was not completed. This would have provided further insight into the degree to which the items contained in the CPAI-2010 are linked to positive outcomes with young people specifically. However, lessons can be learned from this stage of the study. It has drawn attention to is the difficulties in accessing useable data for analysis. This has repercussions for future research and outcome evaluations (see page 296-297).

5.8 Practitioner Feedback: Evaluation Responsivity - The Transferability of the CPAI-2010 to the Welsh Youth Justice System

The CPAI-2010 evaluations provided valuable insight into the processes of front-line youth justice practices. However, the CPAI-2010 was developed in a different jurisdictional setting (Canada). This raises concerns about the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for youth justice settings in England and Wales. Some of the issues associated with the CPAI-2010 have been discussed in Chapter Three (see pages 106-108). In order to assess the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for the Welsh context, it was essential to gain feedback from practitioners who participated in CPAI-2010 evaluations. This stage of the study sought to engage practitioners as key stakeholders in order for them to have a voice in a process that can affect their front-line practices (see Barber 1984). Feedback from the practitioners was vital as they are the ones who deliver interventions and understand the realities of front-line practice. The feedback is important as it can be used to develop responsive evaluations that address the needs of services and also consider the legislative and policy context. Developing suitable and responsive evaluations may encourage services to improve their practices and also conduct self-evaluations, which can also facilitate the implementation of EBPs (Latessa et al., 2002). Indeed, engaging stakeholders can help to generate new knowledge, enhance their sense of ownership and encourage them to adapt recommendations (Cousins 2003; Greene 2006). Semi-structured interviews were conducted with practitioners in order to assess evaluation responsivity (see Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017). A total of 27 practitioners were interviewed across the five participating services. The analysis of the data revealed two key themes that were conceptualised as:

- The utility of the CPAI-2010 evaluations
- Implications of jurisdictional differences (see also Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017).

The data presented in the following sections have been written verbatim as expressed by the practitioners.

5.8.1 The Utility of the CPAI-2010 Evaluations

Previous studies have revealed that practitioners who participated in CPAI-2010 evaluations found it to be a valuable learning process (Bonta and Andrews, 2010; Smith, 2013). Additionally, the CPAI-2010 has been acknowledged for helping to bridge the gulf between the theory of EBPs and front-line practices (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Smith, 2013). Practitioners participating in this study also believed that the CPAI-2010 evaluations could help to bridge the practice integrity gap. As a YOS manager stated:

I think that anything that benchmarks where people are at, as long as people take it and understand the background of it. Anything that can give us pointers to the direction we should be taking, then, particularly if it's something that is well evaluated and has been used in other areas and has shown a correlation between the type of work done and the outcomes, then I don't see any negative about doing it really... [I found the CPAI-2010 report] very useful. A lot of the time things confirm your suspicion, but you can't just act on your suspicions you need to know for definite. And to have someone come in from the outside taking a look at us and from a different perspective as well... So yeah, I think it is useful, there's plenty of recommendations there that we will want to pursue. And I think perhaps for me the most pressing one is the need for staff to have a base level in training of cognitive-behavioural work because we have such a mix of different skills sets. That will be one as a priority I would like to take forward (YOS Manager 2).

This echoes Smith (2013), who advocates that the CPAI-2010 provides practitioners with the information needed to implement EBPs. For the services who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations, it enabled them to highlight key aspects of practice that required improvement (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Gendreau et al., 2010). Participants felt that the CPAI-2010 enabled them to identify EBPs and that it provided guidance on how to align their practices to the extant evidence base. The service manager saw value in the CPAI-2010 reports as it provided them with detailed information about how they could improve service delivery. Another

practitioner also stated that the CPAI-2010 could help them keep abreast of the latest research on EBPs:

From my perspective, if we can learn something from it [the CPAI-2010 Evaluation], I'm all for it, as a service we can never stand still. We need to evolve and change and keep up with the latest research (Senior Practitioner 1).

Practitioners also viewed the CPAI-2010 as a means to help improve service delivery:

If it's a positive outcome eventually, it's [the evaluation] for the good. You have to be investigated and questioned; otherwise, you'd carry on as normal and not develop and change the way you work. I definitely see a benefit (Practitioner 22).

This coincides with findings from previous studies (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Smith, 2013). Andrews and Bonta (2010a) advocate that practitioners found the CPAI-2010 evaluations to be a positive learning experience. Practitioners may not have the time to review research literature in their day to day work. The CPAI-2010 provides them with practice-focused information about EBPs, which can help to refresh and/or develop their knowledge in line with recent research. Practitioners also commented on the utility of having an external evaluator assess their work:

To be honest, we don't always have the time or resources to conduct that type of evaluation ourselves and actually are we really the right people to be doing it ourselves anyway? It's welcoming to have someone from the outside to have a look at us (YOS Manager 2).

From this perspective, the CPAI-2010 can be seen as a valuable means of external evaluation. Due to budget cuts, the services do not necessarily have the time and resources to conduct in-depth evaluations. As noted previously, evaluations are an

important aspect of monitoring, maintaining and improving service delivery (Latessa et al., 2002; Gendreau et al., 2010). External evaluations also provide a greater level of objectivity (Oulton, 2003). Practitioners revealed that they perceived the CPAI-2010 as a useful exercise and felt at ease during the process. Practitioners felt that it provided them with the opportunity to voice their opinions. They found this type of evaluation less intrusive and less stressful as the formal inspections conducted by HMI Probation:

This didn't feel like an inspection. You have a different approach to traditional inspectors; it wasn't a grilling. I think inspectors have a way of putting you on the back foot and you having to defend what you have done. That's not what you have done. You deliver it in a way as if you are trying to support us and that we're all learning together, and it's a different atmosphere (Practitioner 11).

Another practitioner stated:

It wasn't as worrying as an inspection it was more relaxed... I found it good, I had the opportunity to speak my mind without feeling I was incompetent at my job, I got a chance to voice my opinion but without the whip at the end [laughs] (Practitioner 2).

Practitioners felt that the CPAI-2010 evaluations provided them with an opportunity to discuss their practices openly and without fear of being criticised. The researcher's informal interview-style also helped to elicit honest answers from practitioners which improves the validity of the findings (Bryman, 2012). The CPAI-2010 evaluations can help facilitate bottom-up changes to practice. As Oulton (2003) notes, evaluations undertaken from a top-down approach can make practitioners sceptical and can result in them disengaging from the evaluation process. As discussed, engaging practitioners in the evaluation process can enhance their sense of ownership and encourage them to adapt recommendations (Cousins 2003; Greene 2006).

Many practitioners also acknowledged the utility of CPAI-2010 evaluation as a mode of self-reflection of their practices:

It [the CPAI-2010 evaluation] was useful in the sense that it gives me the opportunity... we don't get anyone viewing and self-reflecting, it was the opportunity to expand on that really... [Having someone observing you] Subconsciously you start to think about the purpose of self-reflection and what you're actually doing with that person and how effective your practice is. It's so easy to slip into doing things for the sake of it and not thinking is this effective and what else could I do (Practitioner 23).

Another practitioner stated:

I think it will give us a good overview of areas that we are doing well in and areas that we need to develop. On a personal level, it's made me evaluate what I do, but also it will be interesting to see as a service and as a team the areas we need to develop (Practitioner 4).

It is widely acknowledged that self-reflection can help to prevent burnout, develop the competence of practitioners, and encourages continued learning and professional development (Finlay, 2008; Greene, 2017; Schön, 1983). Most practitioners felt that the time restraints of their day-to-day work prevented them from regularly reflecting on their practices. Indeed, Finlay (2008) suggests practitioners who are over-stretched and busy have difficulties in engaging with reflective practices. Interestingly, self-reflection can be seen as an unintended positive consequence of the CPAI-2010 evaluations. As another practitioner stated:

It's quite nice too... It's an opportunity to reflect. In a busy youth offending team, you don't always have an opportunity to do that (Practitioner 9).

Using the CPAI-2010 can provide practitioners with more opportunities to engage in meaningful self-reflection. Finlay (2008) suggests that a lack of opportunity and time to self-reflect appropriately can result in mechanised and routinised modes of self-

reflection when it does occur. The CPAI-2010 can provide practitioners with the space to engage in more critical levels of self-reflection, which can improve self-awareness and enhance their learning opportunities to develop their practices (Finlay, 2008; Schön, 1983). In general, the practitioners viewed the CPAI-2010 as being a positive experience that could help to improve service delivery.

5.8.2 Limitations of the CPAI-2010: The Implications of Jurisdictional Differences

As previously noted, the CPAI-2010 is underpinned by Gendreau et al.'s (2004; 2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model (see Chapter Three, pages 100-104). This raises concerns about the appropriateness of the inventory's theoretical underpinning for the context of youth justice in Wales. Chapter Two put forth the argument for an integrated RNR model, which places greater emphasis on the human service and specific responsivity principles (see also Herzog-Evans, 2017). Due to the CPAI-2010's rather narrow focus on reducing re-offending, it fails to incorporate the wider aims of youth justice in Wales and important insight from desistance, child development, and children's rights (see also Herzog-Evans, 2017). The incorporation of more strengths-based approaches and language may help to alleviate the perception that the RNR model and CPAI-2010 is incompatible with youth justice practitioners' welfare and rights practice ethos.

The Philosophical and Policy Context of Welsh Youth Justice: 'Children First, Offenders Second'

In light of the feedback from practitioners, it is important to consider the context of youth justice in Wales in order to understand the issues associated with the CPAI-2010. As discussed in Chapter One, the Welsh youth justice system is underpinned by a CFOS ethos (see Haines and Drakeford, 1998; Drakeford, 2010; Haines and Case, 2015). Since partial devolution, the Welsh Government has developed its own distinct social policies for young people, which is underpinned by the tenets of the UNCRC (1989) (Haines, 2010). There is a commitment to prioritise the rights and welfare needs of young people, as well as promoting their participation in decision-

making processes. Key priorities include safeguarding young people's wellbeing, diverting them away from the system and using custody as a last resort (Welsh Government/YJB, 2014). Additionally, the *Rights of Children and Young Persons (Wales) Measure 2011* imposes a duty upon Welsh Ministers to have due regard to the rights and obligations of the UNCRC (1989) when making policy decisions around matters that concern or involve young people.

While adherence to the UNCRC is not necessarily considered an evidence-based approach to reducing offending; it does represent an ethical and humane approach to youth justice. It recognises the 'child' status of young people (see Haines and Case, 2015). Key articles can be seen to facilitate EBPs. For example, Article 2 seeks to protect children and young people from discrimination. Article 3 seeks to ensure the best interests of children and young people are maintained, and Article 12 seeks to protect the children and peoples' ability to participate in decisions that affect them. Adherence to these articles can help to prevent punitive and stigmatising practices that can increase the likelihood of offending (Haines and Case, 2015; McVie and McAra, 2007; 2010). Additionally, it is acknowledged that supervision should be a collaborative process (Raynor, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2015; 2016). Collaborative supervision can help to improve engagement and facilitate the desistance process (Raynor, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2015; 2016). As such, the CPAI-2010 should incorporate items that assess the degree to which services are aware of and committed to upholding and promoting the rights young people in accordance to the UNCRC (which also resonates with the Youth Justice Board/Welsh Government's joint youth justice strategy). The CPAI-2010 needs to be more responsive to the policy and practice context of the Welsh youth justice system (see also Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). The incorporate of children's rights also coincides with the conceptualisation of the human service principle as part of an integrated RNR model (see pages 44-49). Concerns about the CPAI-2010 incompatibility with the policy context are discussed in more detail in the following sections.

The Exclusion of Diversionary Approaches

A key factor that undermined the transferability of the CPAI-2010 is the inventory's absence of items that evaluates diversionary and anti-labelling approaches. As noted in Chapter Two, the majority of young people will 'grow out' of crime. Youth offending is often transitory; as young people mature, they stop offending (Cappi and Moffitt, 1995; Cauffman and Steinberg, 2000; Farrington and Ttofi, 2016; Laub and Sampson, 2003; McVie and McAra, 2007; 2010; Moffitt, 1993; 1997; Monahan et al., 2009; Sampson and Laub, 2009; Steinburg and Cauffman, 1996; Steinburg et al., 2015; Thornberry and Krohn, 2005; Walsh, 2011). Early, punitive and unnecessary system contact with the youth justice system can increase the likelihood of re-offending (Maruna and LeBel, 2004; McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010). This is often associated with the negative effects of being labelled as an 'offender' (see Lemert, 1963; Becker, 1967; Matza, 1969). Indeed, McAra and McVie (2007; 2010) have drawn attention to the adverse effects of 'systems contact' and the need for appropriate approaches that promote 'minimal interventions'. Domains E and F examine the implementation of the risk principle, but the focus is on responding to high-risk service users. The CPAI-2010 also needs to recognise the importance of diverting young people who are low-risk away from formal contact with the youth justice system. As such, the CPAI-2010 should incorporate items that evaluate how practitioners implement diversionary and anti-labelling practices into their front-line work, which further coincides with an integrated approach (see pages 46-48) (see also Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Over the past decade, several diversionary initiatives have been introduced. These include the 'Youth Restorative Disposal', 'Triage', 'The Swansea Bureau' and the 'Youth Justice Liaison and Diversion Pilot Scheme' (see Haines et al., 2012; Smith, 2014b; 2017; Haines et al., 2013; Home Office, 2012; Soppitt and Irving, 2014; Rix et al., 2011). While these initiatives have shown promise in terms of reducing the number of first-time entrants. Subsequent evaluations have revealed that these diversionary initiatives have experienced implementation issues, which can undermine their effectiveness (see Adler et al., 2016; Rix et al., 2011; Home Office, 2012; Soppitt and Irving, 2014). Incorporating items that examine diversionary practices can also help to provide greater insight into implementation issues and possible solutions to resolve these, which can help to improve outcomes for young people.

The Voice of the Child

During the evaluations, practitioners also acknowledged the value of the young people being involved in the evaluations:

I like people coming and assessing our practice... and I like it when young people have the opportunity to be interviewed (Practitioner 10).

Many practitioners felt that it was important to gain insight into service delivery from young people's perspective. However, it is questionable to what extent the CPAI-2010 captures the young people's view. The CPAI-2010 does not include a domain that is scored solely from the feedback from the young people. In keeping with Article 12 of the UNCRC and the Welsh context, the CPAI-2010 needs to be adapted to give due consideration to the voice of the young people receiving services from youth justice organisations. It is important to gain insight from service users as they are key stakeholders and can co-produce knowledge. Therefore, the CPAI-2010 would benefit from including a domain that examines whether the young people feel that their rights are being upheld and whether they feel they are treated with respect and can access relevant support services. This would also help to provide valuable empirical insight into the extent to which the CFOS ethos is being implemented into practice.

The Perceived Risk/Deficit Focus and Terminology of the CPAI-2010

Several practitioners expressed concerns about specific aspects of the CPAI-2010. This predominantly related to the terminology utilised by the CPAI-2010. As such, it is important to consider the jurisdictional differences when applying the CPAI-2010 to the Welsh context. Additionally, the CPAI-2010 fails to recognise the wider role of YOSs, particularly in relation to diversionary practices (as previously discussed). As a YOS manager stated:

The language needs to be adapted, that's probably the easiest thing. I guess the second part is where do we use it in our system? Do we just use it to look at a single programme or does it need to be adapted to take into account our

holistic approach and to recognise that we have welfare responsibilities as well? It focuses just on the criminogenic really. It has to be adapted to recognise that our role is slightly wider (YOS Manager 1).

The concerns raised by the practitioners encapsulate the aforementioned policy context of the Welsh youth justice system and the 'CFOS' ethos. In relation to this, the RNR model has been criticised for being overly deficit and risk-focused (Laws and Ward, 2011; Ward, Mann and Gannon, 2007; Ward and Steward, 2003; Ward, Yates and Willis, 2012). As noted, this raises particular concerns when working with young people (McAra and McVie, 2007; Case and Haines, 2015; Brogan et al. 2015). Practitioners' perceived the CPAI-2010/ RNR model as being at odds with their CFOS ethos. However, this is not necessarily the case. The RNR model advocates for supportive, ethical and humane approaches (human service principle) (Andrews et al., 1990; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 1999a, 1999b, and 2000; Gendreau and Goggin; 1996; Lipsey, 1992; Lipsey and Wilson, 1998; Redondo et al., 1999). The RNR model is often misinterpreted and misunderstood (Andrews, Bonta and Wormith, 2011; Robinson and Crow, 2009; Polaschek, 2012). This may be due to the model being difficult to comprehend and hard to communicate effectively, which is partly attributed to its use of complex and technical language. This can also result in it being misapplied in practice (Herzog-Evans, 2017; Polaschek, 2012). This echoes the findings from this thesis. Many practitioners had issues with understanding the terminology within the CPAI-2010. An example of this is the use of the term 'correctional' and 'offender', appeared to be conceptualised by practitioners as stigmatising and punitive. Indeed, one participant stated:

The language was quite difficult; it [the CPAI-2010] doesn't really fit with the structure we have here (Wales) (Practitioner 8).

As such, the CPAI-2010 would benefit from incorporating language that reflects the emphasis on strengths-based approaches. The desistance model advocates that there needs to be a shift in the language used when working with individuals. Deficit focused language can reinforce offending identities and impede the desistance process (Maruna, 2001; Maruna and LeBel, 2010; Maruna, 2011; McNeill et al.,

2012). The CPAI-2010 would benefit from using language that promotes self-efficacy and beliefs about rehabilitation (see McNeill et al., 2012). A strengths-based approach, as advocated by the GLM, desistance theorists and the integrated RNR model would help to strengthen the CPAI-2010 and make it more applicable to youth justice practices. Additionally, this would help to resolve the concerns about the incompatibility of the RNR model with practitioners' welfare and rights-based practice ethos. Practitioners also found the terminology difficult to understand and relate to:

I found the language difficult; the terminology just wasn't familiar to me I had to keep on asking you to translate, I found it difficult to work out what you were asking me (Practitioner 11).

As noted, the CPAI-2010 assesses real-world practice; there is a lack of insight into how practitioners understand and interpret the RNR principles (see Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Many practitioners were unfamiliar with some of the terminology used with the CPAI-2010. For example, the term 'programme' was conceptualised as being a manualised cognitive-behaviour group programme. However, in this context of the CPAI-2010, the term 'programme' refers to any planned and replicable work with young people and is not necessarily synonymous with a 'cognitive-behavioural group programme'. It includes aspects of service delivery, such as one-to-one supervision (see Raynor, 2004). Additionally, terms such as 'treatment modalities' were also alien to practitioners, which highlights further the jurisdictional differences between Wales and North America. 'Treatment modalities' would be widely used and accepted terminology in North America. 'Treatment modalities' refer to the methods used to support young (e.g. social learning approaches, employing relationship skills, advocacy and brokerage services etc.). This resulted in the researcher defining and clarifying such terms to the practitioners. This further highlights that practitioners need training in order to develop their understanding of the wider research literature and terminology surrounding EBPs. Although, it can be argued that the CPAI-2010 uses overly jargonised language, which can disengage practitioners from the evaluation process as the questions/focus of the evaluation may be viewed as not being relevant. Nevertheless, the language contained within the CPAI-2010 needs to be changed to be more user-friendly. Making it more

accessible to practitioners may help to encourage self-evaluation. Additionally, this can help to alleviate misconception that this form of evaluation is focused on punitive practices. Again, the language does not fit with the practice and policy context of Wales in terms of its focus on the strength-based practices and child-appropriate and child-friendly language.

The Scoring Terminology of the CPAI-2010 and Staff Morale

The scoring system within the CPAI-2010 was an issue that appeared to impede the transferability of the CPAI-2010 further. From the practitioners’ perspective, the language used to categorise the services’ effectiveness was problematic. Table 7 provides an overview of the scoring system.

Table 7. Classification of CPAI-2010 Scores

Classification	Practice Integrity (%)
Very Satisfactory	70+
Satisfactory	50-69
Unsatisfactory	Below-50

The majority of practitioners concurred that scores under 50% should be categorised as ‘unsatisfactory’:

I think below 50% being unsatisfactory is suitable (Practitioner 11).

A YOS Manager stated:

If people can't look at a score and can't say that not so good, that's good then there's something wrong. I don't have a problem with the scoring (YOS Manager 2).

The participants saw value in a scoring system. The scoring of individual domains can help the service to identify the key areas of strengths and areas that require more urgent improvements (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). However, many practitioners felt that the term 'satisfactory' did not sufficiently describe the quality of their work. This is illustrated by the following quote:

Satisfactory sounds terrible; it sounds like you are not satisfactory at all (Practitioner 9).

This could potentially have an adverse effect on staff morale and also create resistance from the service to implement the recommendations contained in the CPAI-2010 report. As noted in Chapter One, the CPAI-2010 assesses services/interventions against Gendreau et al.'s (2010) conceptualisation of the 'perfect' organisation/intervention (see page 30). In order for services to obtain a high CPAI-2010 score, the service would have to be closely aligned to the effective evidence base underpinning the CPAI-2010. However, Smith and Schweitzer (2012) point out, no intervention has received a 100% CPAI score. Indeed, previous studies have revealed that very few services/interventions achieve 'very satisfactory' scores (Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). This study also revealed that none of the participating services received an overall 'very satisfactory' score. The overall CPAI-2010 scores for the participating services were either 'unsatisfactory' or a very low 'satisfactory'. The negative connotations associated with the term 'satisfactory' may disengage services and practitioners from participating in the evaluations and implementing the recommendations. From a more cynical perspective, low CPAI-2010 scores have the potential to be used for political means to drive privatisation agendas as seen by Transforming Rehabilitation. Used perversely, CPAI-2010 scores, in theory, could

be used to inform budget allocations similar to the 'Payments by Results' approach, which are ineffective (Raynor, 2018).

Financial Implications

A final concern pertains to the financial implications of using the CPAI-2010. Firstly, there is the cost of training people to become accredited CPAI-2010 evaluators. Currently, there are only two accredited CPAI-2010 evaluators in the UK. If the CPAI-2010 was to be used throughout England and Wales, it would be beneficial to have several accredited evaluators for logistical and time reasons. Additionally, it would be useful to have accredited YOS practitioners in order to conduct in-house evaluations. However, the accredited CPAI-2010 trainers are based in North America, and there are substantial costs attached to them providing training in the UK. Secondly, the CPAI-2010 is subject to copyright. Therefore, each time an evaluation is conducted, a licensing fee of 1,000 Canadian dollars must be paid to its creators. Given that YOSs have sustained budget cuts in recent years, the use of the CPAI-2010 may not be financially viable for services.

5.9 Concluding Thoughts

Overall, the majority of the practitioners recognised the utility of the CPAI-2010 as a mode to enhance their knowledge of evidence-based skills and practices (see also Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). The CPAI-2010 is not perfect, but it was sufficient to identify key issues with practice, such as the limited use of structuring skills which is supported by youth-specific evidence (Trotter, 1996, 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). However, it failed to incorporate items that examine the CFOS ethos, strengths-based practices, and the need to address non-criminogenic needs, which are central to this thesis' conceptualisation of an integrated RNR model. As noted, the practitioners also raised concerns about the terminology used within the CPAI-2010. It is important to take these differences into account when applying the CPAI-2010 in different jurisdictions. Essentially, the findings from the practitioners' feedback confirmed that

the CPAI-2010 is not completely suitable for application in the Welsh YJS. It would not be beneficial for services to utilise an inventory that does not examine key aspects of their work. The feedback from the practitioners was used to inform the development of a more responsive evaluation inventory – the YJEI. The development of the YJEI is discussed in greater detail in the following chapter.

Chapter Six: Stages Four and Five - Developing and Piloting the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory

The findings from Chapter Five revealed that CPAI-2010 is a valuable tool that can help to bridge the practice integrity gap. An evaluation inventory like the CPAI-2010 can help to identify areas of good practice, areas that require improvement, and develop training to enhance service delivery (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). However, there are also limitations associated with transporting the CPAI-2010 to the Welsh youth justice system. As discussed in Chapter Five (see pages 219-227), the language used within limited its suitability for Wales. Amendments to the terminology and phrasing of questions contained within CPAI-2010 could have alleviated some of these concerns. However, copyright issues prevented adaptations to the CPAI-2010. The cost associated with training accredited CPAI-2010 evaluators and administering the inventory also raised concerns for its viability for YOSs given their sustained budget cuts (YJB, 2017; Chalkley, 2018).

Stage two of the study provided a valuable opportunity to reflect on the suitability CPAI-2010 and feedback from practitioners. The participatory approach taken in stage two helped to develop a bottom-up approach to evaluation research, where the practitioners were engaged as key stakeholders and co-producers of knowledge. This enabled the researcher to learn what was useful about the CPAI-2010 and how it could be improved to develop a new tool that is more responsive to the policy and practice settings of Wales. The feedback from the practitioners provided vital information in order to design an evaluation inventory that is user-friendly and relevant to their front-line practices (Ugwudike et al., 2018). The CPAI-2010 failed to incorporate important perspectives from desistance theories, children's rights and child development. As such, this chapter discusses the creation of Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEI). The YJEI can be understood as the practical and empirical encounter of the RNR model and CFOS and incorporates an integrated

approach, as discussed in Chapter Two. Additionally, this chapter outlines the results from an initial pilot of the YJEl in one YOS in Wales. The results are discussed in the context of the extant literature and CPAI-2010 findings from Chapter Five. The findings provide further insight into the processes of service delivery. However, several issues limited the value of the pilot, and as such more work is required to develop and validate the YJEl.

6.1 Developing the YJEl

One limitation of the CPAI-2010 pertains to its narrow focus on Gendreau et al.'s (2004; 2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model, which precludes promising youth-specific evidence from other approaches. As such, the YJEl incorporates an integrated RNR model with a wider theoretical and empirical base of EBPs with young people (see Herzog-Evans, 2017) (see Chapter Two). In order to develop the YJEl, an extensive search of the international research literature was conducted to identify EBPs for working with young people who offend. This is largely discussed in Chapters Two and Three (see also Andrews and Bonta 2010a; Dowden and Andrews 2004; Latessa et al. 2002; Raynor et al. 2014; Trotter, 1996. 2009; 2013a; 2013b; 2015; 2016; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al. 2015). In terms of the division of labour, the researcher of this thesis drafted initial versions of the inventory and incorporated the feedback from practitioners collected in stage two of the study (see pages 214-227). Initial drafts were developed further by the co-researcher (Dr Pamela Ugwudike – Director of SSET) and in consultation with the YJB Cymru. Drafts of the YJEl were reviewed by both co-researchers and amended. The researcher of this thesis continues to be involved in piloting and validating the YJEl.

Like the CPAI-2010, the YJEl was designed to assess a range of practices in order to evaluate practice integrity. This inventory can further assist in providing much needed empirical insight into youth justice practices (Farrell et al., 2011; Brogan et al., 2015; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Mason and Prior, 2008; HMI Probation, 2016). Additionally, the YJEl can help to bridge the gulf (the practice integrity gap) that

exists between the theory of effective practice and front-line service delivery. The focus of the YJEl is on identifying the strengths of practice, rather than being deficit focused. The full evaluation inventory can be found in Appendix 1. The YJEl consists of three parts (A-C), which together comprise 143 items (see Table 24). The majority of items are based on research evidence of effective practice (Ugwudike et al., 2018; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; 2015; 2017; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015; Farrell et al., 2011; Brogan et al., 2015; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Luong and Wormith, 2011; HMI Probation, 2016; Adler et al., 2016; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010). Table 24 illustrates the different domain contained in the YJEl and CPAI-2010.

6.2 Domains of the YJEl

Table 24. Domains of the YJEl and CPAI-2010

YJEl Domains	Number of Items Scored	CPAI-2010 Domain	Number of Items
PART A: PRACTICE CULTURE		B. Organisational culture	9
1. Practice Ethos	5	C. Programme implementation/maintenance	10
2. Practice Principles	21	D. Management/staff characteristics	18
PART B: QUALITY ASSURANCE STRATEGIES		E. Client risk/need practices	13
3. Professional Development Opportunities	14	F. Programme characteristics	25
4. Practice Evaluation Strategies	9	G. Core correctional practice	45
PART C: FRONTLINE PRACTICE		H. Inter-agency communication	5
5. Assessment Practice and Interventions	16	I. Evaluation	8
6. The Child/Young Person's Voice	27		
7. Practice Skills	51		
Total	143	Total	133

Each part of the YJEl (A-C) can be used independently to evaluate certain aspects of the service, or all parts can be used in conjunction with each other to complete a comprehensive evaluation. The YJEl has been designed to be user-friendly to enable it to be used by both researchers and practitioners (in order to promote self-evaluations) (Ugwudike et al., 2018). The following sections discuss the development of the YJEl. Particular attention is paid to the similarities to the CPAI-2010 and where the YJEl departs from the CPAI-2010 in order to enhance its transferability to the Welsh youth justice system. Like Domains B and C of the CPAI-2010, part A of the YJEl evaluates the organisational factors of the service. Part A comprises two domains – practice ethos and practice principles.

Domain 1: Practice Ethos

A focus on children's rights was evidently missing from the CPAI-2010, which further limited its transferability. As discussed in Chapter One (see pages 14-20), the Welsh youth justice system is underpinned by the tenets of the UNCRC (1989). Therefore, it was important to acknowledge the CFOS ethos that resonates throughout the Welsh youth justice system. Domain one of the YJEl focuses on examining the degree to which the service is aware of and is committed to upholding and promoting the rights of children and young people in accordance to the UNCRC (1989). Items 1.1 to 1.5 of the YJEl (see Appendix 1) are all focused on children's rights. For example, items 1.2 – 1.5 examine the following:

1.2 STAFF ARE AWARE OF CHILDREN (AND YOUNG PEOPLE'S) RIGHTS

Are you aware of children's and young people's rights? (If yes) please cite three key examples.

1.3 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE ARE INFORMED OF THEIR RIGHTS

Are children and young people made aware of their rights? (If yes) please describe when and how this is done.

1.4 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE'S RIGHTS ARE DEEMED IMPORTANT

Are children and young people's rights important? Please provide reasons for your answer and examples of how you have promoted children and young people's rights

1.5 PARTICIPATION IS FACILITATED

Do children and young people have a say in decisions that affect them? (If yes) please describe how this is achieved.

Upholding the rights of young people should be an integral aspect of practice. This helps to ensure that the best interests of young people are at the forefront of practice and that they are treated with respect and dignity. Upholding the rights of children should inform the goals of a service and its organisational ethos in order to ensure that youth justice interventions are delivered humanely (Haines and Case, 2015). The importance of children's rights also coincides with the broadening of the human service principle, which further emphasises the importance of ethical, supportive and child-centred interventions (see pages 44-49). Additionally, the inclusion of items related to CFOS can help to provide insight into the extent to which services integrate children's right into practice. Previously, concerns have been raised that children's rights have been applied inconsistently within Wales (Drakeford, 2010; Morgan, 2009; Scraton and Haydon, 2009; Morgan, 2009; Williamson, 2007). This element of the YJEl provides further opportunity to examine how practitioners understand and implement children's rights into their practice, which can help to identify good practice and alleviate potential implementation issues.

Domain 2: Practice Principles

Domain 2: Practice Principles further assesses whether the service has clear goals that support the principles of CFOS. Domain 2 includes items that examine whether services adhere to the five targets set out in the WG/YJB's (2014) joint youth justice strategy. The targets are as follows:

1. A well-designed partnership approach
2. Early intervention, prevention and diversion
3. Reducing reoffending
4. Effective use of custody (custody should be used as a last resort)
5. Reintegration and resettlement at the end of a sentence

An important consideration when designing the YJEl pertained to the CPAI-2010 instrument being primarily concerned with examining organisations that provide interventions to those of high risk of re-offending. In line with the risk principle, these individuals require more intensive support in order to address their multiple and complex needs (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Lipsey, 2009). What the CPAI-2010 therefore lacks, is the inclusion of items that focus on diversionary approaches which form an important aspect of youth justice practices in Wales (see Chapter One, pages 19-20). As such, 2.2 of the YJEl examine the following:

SERVICE USES APPROPRIATE PRE-COURT DIVERSION CRITERIA

Do you select children and young people for pre-court diversion? (If yes), please describe the criteria you use for this purpose and who is involved in the decision.

The inclusion of items that examine diversionary approaches was crucial. Within Wales, there is a clear commitment to divert young people away from unnecessary and often escalatory contact with the youth justice system (Haines et al., 2013; Haines and Case, 2015; Smith, 2017). Diversion draws influence from developmental and labelling theories. As discussed in Chapter Two, the majority of young people will naturally grow out of crime as they mature (Cappi and Moffitt, 1995;

Cauffman and Steinberg, 2000; Farrington and Ttofi, 2016; Laub and Sampson, 2003; McVie and McAra, 2007; 2010; Moffitt, 1993; 1997; Monahan et al., 2009; Sampson and Laub, 2009; Steinburg and Cauffman, 1996; Steinburg et al., 2015; Thornberry and Krohn, 2005; Walsh, 2010). Many young people who offend are low risk of re-offending and evidence suggest that unnecessary contact may actually increase the likelihood of future offending due to the adverse effects of being labelled as an 'offender' (Becker, 1963; Lemert, 1951; Maruna and LeBel, 2004; McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010). Diverting low-risk offenders away from the criminal justice system actually coincides with the risk principle of the RNR model (Bonta and Andrews, 2010; Lipsey, 2009). Including items that examine diversionary approaches recognises the wider role of YOSs in Wales. Their purpose is greater than responding to the needs of prolific offenders and therefore, the inclusion of items makes the YJEl more responsive to the policy and practice context of Wales. Additionally, it aligns itself to EBPs specific to responding to youth offending. The inclusion of item 2.4 further assesses the service's commitment to avoiding unnecessary and potentially detrimental effects of system contact (Little and Sodha, 2012; Maruna and LeBel, 2004; McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; Petrosino et al., 2010). For example, item 2.4 examines:

SERVICE IS COMMITTED TO THE BELIEF THAT CUSTODY SHOULD BE USED AS A LAST RESORT

Are you committed to the belief that custody should only be used as a last resort? (If yes) please describe what you do to ensure that this is the case and give examples of other agencies that support this response.

Domain two of the YJEl also incorporates items contained in Domain B and C of the CPAI-2010 which pertain to the organisational context of the service (see items 2.9 to 2.17 of the YJEl, Appendix One). For example, 2.10 YJEl examines:

EVIDENCE OF COLLABORATIVE CULTURE: STAFF COHESION

Do Staff relate well (get on well) with each other? Please provide reasons for your answer.

Evidence suggest that services need cohesive teams and clear lines of communication in order to promote organisational harmony (Aarons, 2006; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Farrell et al., 2011; Gendreau et al., 2010; Glisson and Green, 2006; Henderson and Taxman et al., 2009; Farrell et al., 2011; Friedmann et al., 2007; Rudes et al., 2017; Taxman and Belenko, 2011). A collaborative and cohesive culture helps to maintain the stability of a service. Joint-up working also ensures that practitioners are working towards the same goals and can help to embed EBPs (Gendreau et al., 2010; Farrell et al., 2011; Rudes et al., 2017; Bonta and Andrews, 2017).

Part B of the YJEl: Quality Assurance Strategies

Part B examines the appropriateness of staff experience and training. It also evaluates additional aspects of effective quality assurance mechanisms and draws on Domains D and I of the CPAI-2010 (see Latessa et al., 2002; Gendreau et al., 2010). This section consists of the following domains:

3. Professional Development Opportunities
4. Practice Evaluation Strategies

Domain 3: Professional Development Opportunities

Staff skills and training are integral to the delivery of EBPs (Robinson et al., 2012; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Raynor et al., 2014; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018; Trotter, 2009; 2017). The effectiveness of an intervention can be dependent on the staff delivering it (Duwe and Clarke, 2015). Like Domain D of the CPAI-2010, Domain 3 examines the experience, qualifications and training of practitioners. It assesses whether there are provisions in place for staff training and continued professional development. Research has identified that staff training and

development can encourage practitioners to employ EBPs more consistently (see Latessa et al., 2002; Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Robinson et al., 2012; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2017; Trotter et al., 2015). Therefore, the YJEl incorporates items that are present in the CPAI-2010. The following provides some examples of how staff characteristics and training are assessed:

3.1 SERVICE IS COMMITTED TO STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Is there a service-level commitment to staff development? (If yes) please describe the arrangements in place.

3.2 STAFF TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES ARE AVAILABLE

Are staff training opportunities available? (If yes) please provide a description.

3.13 STAFF EXPERIENCE IS APPROPRIATE

Could you please outline the level of experience staff should have?

3.14 STAFF SELECTION IS BASED ON SPECIFIC SKILLS

Are staff members selected on the basis that they possess specific skills? (If yes) please describe the skills considered relevant.

Item 3.14 is of particular importance and corresponds to the examination of supervision skills assessed in Domain 7 of the YJEl (adherence to the specific responsibility principle). As discussed in Chapter Two (see pages 69-71), studies have revealed that the use of supervision skills can engage service-users, reduce attrition and re-offending across adult and youth populations (Andrews and Kiessling, 1980; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Durnescu, 2012; Raynor et al, 2014;

Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Trotter, 2009, 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al, 2015).

An important addition to the YJEL was the focus on examining whether practitioners had received training on administering and implementing risk/need assessments. For example, the following items examine assessment practices:

3.3 STAFF RECEIVE TRAINING ON INITIAL ASSESSMENT SKILLS

Have you received any training on how to conduct initial assessments? (If yes) please describe the training. How often is the training delivered? As a one-off or periodically to refresh staff skills?

3.4. STAFF RECEIVE TRAINING ON FOLLOW-UP ASSESSMENT SKILLS

Have you received any training on how to conduct follow-up assessments? (If yes) please describe the training. How often is the training delivered – as a one-off or periodically to refresh staff skills?

3.5 STAFF RECEIVE TRAINING ON HOW TO ADAPT INTERVENTIONS

Have you received any training on how to transform assessment outcomes into intervention plans? (If yes) please describe the training. How often is the training delivered – as a one-off or periodically to refresh staff skills?

The findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that assessments were not always used to inform intervention plans (see pages 182-186). This is also reflective of the wider literature. Studies conducted within the context of youth justice have revealed that the intervention plans of young people did not focus on addressing the needs that were identified during risk/need assessments (Wormith and Luong, 2011;

Phoenix, 2009; Singh et al., 2014; Sutherland, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). The inclusion of items 3.3 to 3.5 in the YJEl strengthens the inventory as it can help to identify issues surrounding assessment and planning. Assessment practices are also assessed in Domain 5 of the YJEl (see pages 242-243). Additionally, an important finding from the CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that staff did not receive clinical supervision. Practitioners who participated in the evaluations noted that they would like to receive supervision in order to develop their practice. As such, this item needed to remain in the YJEl. Item 3.6 examines:

THERE IS REGULAR CLINICAL/CASE MANAGEMENT SUPERVISION

Do staff undergo regular clinical/case management supervision? (If yes) how is this provided and how often? Who provides it?

Clinical supervision is important as it can also help to ensure EBPs are being employed and increases staff efficacy (Gendreau et al., 2010; Trotter, 2017). An evaluation of the ECM also revealed that practitioners saw the value of clinical supervision as it helped with case formulation and also contributed to the effective implementation of the ECM pilot (Cordis Bright, 2017).

Domain 4: Practice Evaluation Strategies

Evaluations practices are an important aspect of monitoring, maintaining and improving service delivery (Latessa et al., 2002; Gendreau et al., 2010). Domain I of the CPA-2010 also examined the evaluation strategies of services. As such Domain 4 of the YJEl incorporates evidence that relates to effective quality assurance and evaluative practices (see Latessa et al., 2002). Domain 4 examines how the service evaluates its work and whether the findings from evaluations/quality assurance procedures are used to inform service delivery. It includes items that examine both internal and external forms of quality control, as both of these provide value and can help to ensure high levels of integrity (Gendreau et al. 2010; Latessa et al., 2002; Oulton, 2003). For example, this domain assesses the following items:

4.1 INTERNAL AUDITS ARE CONDUCTED

Are internal audits of practice conducted? Which aspects of practice are audited? How often are the audits conducted?

4.2 AUDIT OUTCOMES INFORM PRACTICE

Do the outcomes of internal audits inform practice? (If yes) please describe how this happens.

4.3 EXTERNAL EVALUATIONS ARE CONDUCTED

Do external evaluators assess the services you deliver to young people? (If yes) could you please provide examples of recent external evaluations and what they involved?

How often are external evaluations conducted?

4.4 EXTERNAL EVALUATIONS INFORM PRACTICE

Do the outcomes of external evaluations inform practice? (If yes) please describe how this happens

As the items highlight, this domain places emphasis on examining how quality assurance mechanisms inform service delivery. This can further help to understand and prevent implementational issues surrounding EBPs (Latessa et al., 2002; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018).

Part C of the YJEl: Front-line Practice

Part C: Front-line Practices of the YJEl assesses the supervision and assessment skills of practitioners. This section is scored by interviews with practitioners and young people, as well as direct observations of supervision sessions. Part C can be used by external evaluators/researchers or by practitioners/managers who are interested in conducting self and peer evaluations. Items within Part C are based on evidence-based skills that are strongly linked with positive outcomes (see Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter et al., 2015). Part C of the YJEl comprises the following sections:

5. Assessment Practice and Interventions
6. The Child/Young Person's Voice
7. Practice Skills

Domain 5: Assessment Practice and Interventions

As discussed in Chapter Two, assessing the risk/needs of young people is a contentious issue (see pages 74-81). There is substantial evidence that reveals assessing and responding to the factors associated with offending can help to reduce re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Brogan et al., 2015; Gaes and Bales, 2011; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010; Lipsey and Wilson, 1998; Wormith and Luong, 2011). Therefore, the use of risk/need assessments needed to remain within the YJEl. For example, 5.1 examines:

SERVICE USES VALIDATED TOOL TO CONDUCT ASSESSMENT

Do you use an assessment tool to assess the factors that are associated with offending behaviour? (If yes) please describe the tool.

The tension between strength-based and risk-based approaches is often exaggerated and may be polarised due to the deficit-focused language used in RNR the model and the positive language of desistance approaches (Herzog-Evans, 2017). However, it is important to acknowledge these conflicts in order to make the YJEl responsive to youth justice practices and the wider literature. As discussed in

Chapter Two, the risk and need principles of the RNR model need to incorporate a wider theoretical and empirical base. Therefore, the YJEl draws on the desistance literature and recognises the importance of acknowledging the strengths and capabilities of young people and the importance of their participation in assessment processes (HMI Probation, 2016; Maruna, 2001; Maruna and LeBel, 2003; 2010; McNeill, 2012; McNeill et al., 2012; McNeill and Weaver, 2010; Ugwudike, 2016). Essentially, a focus on strengths-based approaches was lacking within the CPAI-2010 and items 5.5 to 5.11 address this gap:

5.5 ENABLING PARTICIPATION DURING ASSESSMENT: CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN ASSESSMENT

Do children and young people participate in the assessment process?

(If yes) describe how they participate and how their participation informs decision-making.

5.6 ASSESSING STRENGTHS: POSITIVE FACTORS ARE ASSESSED

Do you collect information about the positive aspects of the child or young person's life? (If yes) how is this done?

5.7 ASSESSING STRENGTHS: PERSONAL GOALS ARE ASSESSED

Do you generate information about the child or young person's goals for the future? (If yes) how is this done? What is done with the information?

5.8 ASSESSING STRENGTHS: STRENGTHS AND CAPABILITIES ARE ASSESSED

Do you collect information about the child or young person's strengths? (If yes) how is this done? What is done with the information?

5.9 ASSESSING STRENGTHS: PROTECTIVE FACTORS ARE ASSESSED

Do you collect information about the factors that build the child or young person's resilience? (If yes) how is this done and how is this information used?

Items 5.10 to 5.12 also examine responsivity assessment practices. These items draw on the specific responsivity principle of the integrated RNR model (see pages 49-71). The items examine whether interventions are tailored to the individual characteristics of the young people and whether they are delivered by adequately trained staff (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Brogan et al., 2015; HMI Probation, 2016; Lipsey, 2009; Matthews and Skuse, 2015; McNeill and Weaver, 2010; McNeill et al., 2012; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014). Practice developments in Wales via the TRM/ECM also recognise the importance of ensuring interventions are suited to the developmental stage of the young people (Matthews and Skuse, 2015). From an integrated approach, this is an integral element of EBPs as it helps to address the barriers that impede the engagement and motivation of young people (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Brogan et al., 2015; HMI Probation, 2016; Lipsey, 2009; Matthews and Skuse, 2015; McNeill and Weaver, 2010; McNeill et al., 2012; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014).

Domain 6: The Child/Young Person's Voice

Domain 6 is unique to the YJEL. As discussed in Chapter Five (see pages 219-222), the CPAI-2010 is limited in its ability to incorporate the young people's voice into the evaluation process. Young people are interviewed during the CPAI-2010 evaluation, and their responses are used to inform the scoring. However, the CPAI-2010 does not contain a domain that is explicitly scored on the perspectives of young people. This is important as McNeill et al. note that 'both ex/offenders' and practitioners' voices need to be respected and heard' in debates surrounding EBPs (2012: 35). Indeed, young people can co-produce knowledge. Incorporating Domain 6 into the

YJEl also coincides with Article 12 that underpins the CFOS context of Wales and enables the young people's voice to be heard. During stage two of the study, practitioners saw the value in young people being apart of the evaluation process (see page 222). It is important that children's voices are heard when discussing *their* supervision. This provides an opportunity to gain valuable insight into young people's own experiences of service delivery and their access to their rights. This section of the YJEl can be used by services to gain feedback from the young people which can be used to inform practice to ensure that their rights are upheld. This can help to further cement CFOS into policy and practice.

Essentially domain 6 examines the extent to which young people are informed of and are aware of their rights as outlined by the UNCRC (1989). Articles 1, 2, 3 and 12 of the UNCRC are of particular importance in the context of youth justice. Article 1 advocates that all children under 18 years old are entitled to their rights, Article 2 states that no child should be denied access to these rights – there should be no discrimination on any basis, Article 3 states that the best interests of the child should inform all decisions that affect them and Article 12 states that children have a right to participate in decisions that affect them. For example, items 6.1 and 6.2 examine young people's awareness of their rights and whether they have been subject to non-discriminatory treatment:

6.1. CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE ARE AWARE OF THEIR RIGHTS

Do you know children have specific rights/Do you know of any rights you might have? (If yes) please name three of the rights. Where did you find out about your rights?

6.2 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE ARE NOT EXPOSED TO DISCRIMINATION

Does anyone here treat you differently from other children/people? If yes, please give me an example of when you were treated differently.

Items 6.5 to 6.17 focus on young people's opportunity to participate in decision making processes. Additionally, this domain includes items that pertain to items in Domain 5 which examine whether the strengths and goals of young people are considered into assessments and intervention plans (see items 6.20 and 6.21). This section assesses the quality of the services that the young people receive in terms of their ability to participate meaningfully in assessments, intervention planning and other decisions that affect their lives. Studies reveal that collaborative decision-making during supervision can encourage longer-term positive change (Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2015). Item 6.23 of the YJEL also examines the relationship between the young person and practitioner:

6.23 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE HAVE A GOOD RELATIONSHIP WITH THEIR WORKER

Do you get on well with your worker? Please tell me why you feel this way.

Desistance, RNR and CFOS supporters all recognise the importance of the relationship between practitioners and children in their care. Developing positive working relationships with young people can help increase engagement and help to reduce re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Burnett and McNeill, 2005; Creaney, 2014a; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Haines and Case, 2015; McNeill, 2006a; McNeill et al., 2012; McNeill and Weaver, 2010; Trotter, 1996; 2013a; 2016b; 2015; Trotter et al. 2015; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Williams et al., 2018). The importance of the relationship between the practitioner and young people is also reflected in Domain 7 of the YJEL.

Domain 7: Practice Skills

Domain 7 of the YJEL focuses on assessing the relationship and structuring skills of practitioners. This section is adapted from a validated checklist; the JSIC (see Raynor et al., 2014; Vanstone and Raynor, 2012). The main way in which the JSIC has been adapted relates only to small changes the phrasing of the items in the

inventory to make them specific to youth justice. For example, an item in the JSIC requires you to observe 'enthusiastic dialogue'. For the YJEI, this has been reworded to 'there is enthusiastic dialogue between the practitioner and the child or young person' (see 7.14 in Appendix 1). This is to retain the integrity and validity of the JSIC in order to ensure that the YJEI remains aligned to the current evidence base. Domain 7 examines whether practitioners employ the following skills (see the YJEI in Appendix 1 and Tables 4 and 5 in Chapter Two):

- Effective non-verbal communication
- Effective verbal communication
- Effective use of authority
- Motivational interviewing techniques
- Skills for encouraging pro-social behaviour (also known as pro-social modelling)
- Skills for encouraging pro-social thinking (also known as cognitive restructuring)
- Problem-solving skills

These skills largely correspond with the skills contained in Domain G of CPAI-2010 and evidence from youth-specific studies (see Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015) (see also Tables 4 and 5). In comparison to the CPAI-2010, more attention is paid to the quality of engagement/relationship skills in the YJEI. For example, items G39-G42 within the CPAI-2010 examines engagement/relationships skills. For each of these items, you are required to observe two to three skills within one item (e.g. G40 – staff are non-blaming, empathic, and genuine). In contrast, the JSIC and YJEI include 15 items (see 7.5 to 7.25 in the YJEI, Appendix 1). This is an important adaptation, as previously discussed it is widely acknowledged that a positive relationship between practitioners and young people can help to reduce re-offending (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Burnett and McNeill, 2005; Creaney, 2014a; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Haines and Case, 2015; McNeill, 2006a; McNeill et al., 2012; McNeill and Weaver, 2010; Trotter, 1996; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter et al. 2015; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Williams et al., 2018). The YJEI also includes items that pertain to non-verbal

communication (this is not present in the CPAI-2010). The items focused on non-verbal communication draws on the work of Egan and the acronym SOLER 'squarely facing the client, open posture, leaning forward, eye contact and relaxed' (2002: 68). For example, 7.6 of the YJEl assesses whether the 'practitioner has an open posture/arms legs uncrossed' (see Appendix 1). The YJEl also includes four items that examine the 'set-up of the interaction', which are not present in the CPAI-2010 (see 7.1 to 7.4 of the YJEl, Appendix 1). This examines whether privacy and confidentiality are assured, the seating arrangements and potential distractions of the session. This can help to put the young people at ease and helps to build rapport (Vanstone and Raynor, 2012). The JSIC is also accompanied by a detailed instruction manual which outlines when it may be appropriate to not use these skills (see Vanstone and Raynor, 2012). This will need to be incorporated into a user manual for the YJEl in order to provide evaluators with further guidance on administering the inventory and will form part of the future development of the YJEl.

Domain 7 is a key component of the YJEl. Gendreau et al. (2010) advocate that supervision skills are one of the most important aspects of service delivery. Supervision skills (Domain G) accounts for 34% of the CPA-2010 score. Within the YJEl they total 36% of the total score (51 of 143 items). This is reflective of growing evidence that highlights the links between staff skills and reductions in re-offending (Alexander et al, 2013; Andrews and Kiessling, 1980; Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Landenberger and Lipsey, 2005; Lipsey, 2009; Raynor et al, 2014; Robinson et al., 2012; Sorsby et al., 2013; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al, 2015). The impact of supervision skills has remained largely unexplored within the Welsh youth justice system. However, research from Australia has revealed that the use of supervision skills with young people is associated with reductions in offending (Trotter, 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). As discussed in Chapter Two, supervision skills draw on cognitive, behavioural and social learning approaches which can help to change behaviour (Bonta and Andrews, 2010a). However, the application of these must be delivered in correspondence to the intrinsic responsivity principle (Herzog-Evans, 2017; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Bonta and Andrews,

2010a). This coincides with research emerging with from Wales in relation to the TRM, which also acknowledges that cognitive, behavioural approaches must be delivered in a manner that is responsive to the developmental stage of the young person (Matthews and Skuse, 2015). As such items 5.10 to 5.12 of the YJEl assesses specific responsivity practices.

6.3 Adapting the Language: The CFOS Context

As discussed in Chapter Five, the language used within the CPAI-2010 limited its transferability to Wales (see pages 219-227). As such, the YJEl incorporates more culturally appropriate, positive and user-friendly language (and scoring system) to address the issues of the CPAI-2010/RNR model being perceived as deficit focused (Ugwudike et al., 2018). For example, the CPAI-2010 uses the term 'offender' used to describe 'service-users' throughout the inventory. For instance:

D17 Staff are committed to human service and believe that offenders can change. Interviews with staff can serve as evidence for scoring this item. Please note that this item should consider all staff, including security staff.

Do staff believe offenders can change and support the goals of rehabilitation?

Drawing on labelling theories, terms like 'offenders' can stigmatise young people and be detrimental to the aim of reducing re-offending (Haines and Case, 2015; McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; McNeill et al., 2012). Therefore, the YJEl uses the term 'children and young people' in order to avoid the negative connotations associated with the label of 'offender'. This is also in keeping with UNCRC (1989). Other terms within the CPAI-2010 were also amended. For example, the CPAI-2010 uses the term 'programme' to describe the organisation or intervention being examined. In the context of the CPAI-2010, a 'programme' can be a youth service, a team with a service (e.g. SOT) or a structured programme (e.g. a cognitive-behaviour anger management programme). As such, the CPAI-2010 is flexible in its ability to assess a range of interventions. However, for the Welsh context, the term 'programme'

would not be used to describe a YOS and was conceptualised by practitioners as a manualised group cognitive-behavioural programme. For example, B3 of the CPAI-2010 examines the organisation ability to modify practice, which is articulated as follows:

B3 There is evidence that the organization has initiated new programs within a reasonable period of time

Can you describe some recent modifications or initiatives undertaken by the program? Is the program able to make changes in a reasonable period of time?

The term 'programme' caused confusion when interviewing the practitioners, and it had to be explained on several occasions, and further highlights the cultural and jurisdictional differences of the CPAI-2010. Therefore, the term 'programme' is not used in the YJEl in order to make it more suitable for Wales. For example, 2.9 of the YJEl also examines the service's ability to modify practice and has been phrased in a more appropriate manner:

2.9 SERVICE HAS AN EFFECTIVE RESPONSE TO CHANGE

Have there been recent changes in this service? (if yes) please describe what they are and how the changes have affected the team.

Additionally, some of the questions within the CPAI-2010 were overly long and complex. For example:

C6 Literature Review

Search of literature was conducted to identify program materials directly related to effective treatment using cognitive, behavioural or social learning modalities. The search must have consisted of criminological and particularly psychological texts and journals dealing with the theory and practice of behavioural treatments. Look for a comprehensive attempt.

Was a literature review on treatment modality conducted as part of the initial development process for the program and/or as an ongoing process? If yes, give examples of specific criminological and psychological journals and texts used in the initial and/or ongoing literature reviews

The accessibility of the questions was an important consideration in order to avoid further confusion about the terminology and what was being asked of the practitioners. Therefore, further modifications were made to the questions. For example, 4.9 of the YJEl also examines whether literature reviews are conducted, but is phrased more concisely:

4.9 SERVICE REVIEWS RESEARCH EVIDENCE

Do you review the academic literature/evidence-base? (If yes) what type of literature (texts, journals etc.) is consulted? What do you do with the information generated?

The changes in language also make the YJEl more culturally and jurisdictionally appropriate for Wales. The language has been adapted to be more user-friendly (Ugwudike et al., 2018). Ensuring that the YJEl is accessible also assists in gaining the most relevant information in order to understand the processes of service delivery. Additionally, if practitioners perceive the YJEl being relevant to their practices and easy to use, this may encourage self-evaluations, which can also help to embed EBPs into front-line service delivery (Ugwudike et al., 2018; Latessa et al., 2002).

6.4 Adapting the Scoring: Making ‘Satisfactory’ More Satisfactory

The stage two of the study also revealed that the language used for the CPAI-2010 scoring system was a cause for concern. The majority of practitioners felt that the term ‘satisfactory’ was problematic (see pages 225-226). As such, the scoring categories of the YJEl were adapted:

Table 25: Difference in the Scoring Classification of the YJEl and CPAI-2010 (Measure of Practice Integrity)

YJEl Classification	Practice Integrity Score (%)	CPAI-2010 Classification	Practice Integrity Score (%)
Excellent adherence to research evidence and numerous examples of good practice.	70+	Very Satisfactory	70+
Good adherence to research evidence with no areas for major improvement.	60 – 69	Satisfactory	50 – 69
Developing good adherence to research evidence and examples of good practice exceed areas for improvement.	50 – 59	Unsatisfactory	Below 50
Unsatisfactory adherence to research evidence and areas for improvement exceed examples of good practice.	Below 50		

As discussed in Chapter Five, practitioners felt that a practice integrity score below 50% should be categorised as unsatisfactory (see page 225). As such, this remained in the YJEl scoring. However, the scoring categories were adapted to incorporate more positive language and to provide more context to what the scores pertain to. In line with the practitioners’ feedback, the term ‘satisfactory’ was replaced with ‘good adherence to research evidence with no areas for major improvement (60 to 69%)’ and ‘developing good adherence to research evidence and examples of good practice exceed areas for improvement (50 to 59%)’. It is important to acknowledge that the adaptations to include more positive language does not detract from the YJEl’s ability to highlight areas of practice that do require improvements. The inclusion of

an additional category was also important in order to further distinguish between services that are more closely aligned to the evidence base and services that require more urgent improvements. These amendments should help to alleviate the concerns of the practitioners. As their feedback has been incorporated into the design of the YJEl, this may provide them with a greater sense of ownership of future evaluations (Cousins 2003; Greene 2006). This may also help to increase their engagement in the evaluation process and the likelihood that they will take on board recommendations from the YJEl evaluations (Cousins 2003; Greene 2006).

6.5 Administering the YJEl

The YJEl uses the same methods of data collection as the CPAI-2010. These include structured interviews with practitioners and young people, observations of supervision session/interactions and the viewing of relevant documentation associated with service delivery (see page 118). As discussed in Chapter Four, these modes of data collection enabled the most relevant information to be collected (see pages 116-121 for a full justification of these approaches). In summary, domains 1 to 5 are sourced based on the information from structured interviews with managers and practitioners. Domain 6 is scored solely on the structured interviews with young people, and domain 7 is scored by direct observations of supervision sessions. The scoring of the YJEl also follows the same procedures as the CPAI-2010. Individual items in the inventory (e.g. whether practitioners are aware of children's rights) are scored as '1' (if present), as '0' (if absent) or as 'N/A' if the item is not applicable. In order to calculate how an organisation performs in each domain of the YJEl, the evaluator adds together the number of items that were scored as '1' in a domain. This is then converted into a percentage of the total number of applicable items in that domain. For example, if a service scored four '1' scores out of a possible five items in Domain 1: Practice Ethos, the percentage score for that domain would be 80.0%. To calculate the overall YJEl score, all items scored as '1' are added together and converted to a percentage of the total applicable items. Items that are scored as 'N/A' are excluded from the overall scoring. The YJEl also includes a 'Verification Score' (VS) in order to enhance reliability and reduce subjective

scoring. The VS reflects the evaluators' degree of confidence that an item is either present or absent. Like the CPAI-2010, a five-point scale is used to score the VS. 5 indicates strong confidence in the information provided to score the item, 3 indicates moderate confidence and 1 indicates that the evaluator is unsure of the reliability of their rating for that particular item. An overall mean VS of less than 3 indicates that the evaluation is incomplete and should be repeated. As discussed in Chapter Four, this enhances the validity of the evaluation (see pages 122-123).

6.6 Stage Five: Piloting the YJEl

The final stage of the study piloted YJEl in order to assess the practice integrity of one YOS in Wales. The initial pilot of the YJEl was planned to be completed on one of the services that participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations (either YOS 1, 2, 3, 4 or Secure Estate 1). This would have enabled the researcher to compare the results from the CPAI-2010 evaluations and potentially gain feedback from practitioners on the new inventory. However, none of the services was able to be involved in the YJEl pilot. This did limit the value of the pilot (see pages 266-268 for more information). Since the CPAI-2010 evaluations, there had been several staff changes within the services – Managers and practitioners had left the services, and therefore they did not have the capacity to participate. As such, all of the YOSs across Wales were invited to participate in the YJEl evaluation through existing research networks with the YJB and YOS Managers Cymru. The first YOS that volunteered to participate in an YJEl evaluation was selected to pilot the YJEl. The participating YOS is referred to as YOS 5.

Data Collection Procedures and Participants

Before the evaluation commenced, the researcher and fellow evaluator Dr Pamela Ugwudike discussed the objectives and logistics of the proposed evaluations with the service manager. The service manager was also sent information sheets and relevant consent forms. At the time of the evaluation (June 2018), the service was supervising a small number of young people (only 10 young people were serving a

statutory order). Unfortunately, none of the young people wished to participate in the evaluation. Therefore, Domain 7 of YJEl was not completed. As discussed, this domain assesses practitioners' implementation of supervisor skills and is scored by direct observations of supervisions session. Additionally, Domain 6 of the YJEl was not completed as the domain is scored solely on interviews with young people. During the evaluation, the service was unable to provide AssetPlus assessments. Also, confidentiality restrictions meant that case management files could not be accessed, which also made elements of Domain 5 incomplete. These are key limitations of the initial pilot, but also reflect the realities of social science research (pages 266-268 discusses the implications of the limitations further).

A total of 12 practitioners participated in the YJEl pilot evaluation. The participants were selected purposively (as with the CPAI-2010 evaluations – see Chapter Four, page 125 for an overview of purposive sampling). The participant criteria for the YOS workers were as follows:

- Participants must either be involved in providing direct service delivery to young people or be in a management role that primarily oversees service delivery.
- Participants must volunteer to participate in the study.

The YJEl evaluation involved structured interviews with the following participants:

- The Service Manager
- The Operational Manager
- Frontline professionals (including senior practitioners)

The following documents were also reviewed to provide additional data about service delivery:

- Intervention plans
- Mission statement

- Operational guidance provided by the YJB
- Inspection Reports
- Young peoples' feedback reports

Disseminating the YJEl Evaluation Results

The results of the YJEl evaluation were presented in the form of an in-depth report to the service manager of YOS 5. For the purpose of the initial pilot, it was decided that the scoring and classification of scores would not be included. This was partly due to the pilot being incomplete. As such, it was not possible to generate an overall YJEl score. Additionally, excluding the scores would help to manage the expectations of the YOS. As this thesis has highlighted, a practice integrity gap does exist within the Welsh youth justice system (see also Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). The possibility of low scores may disengage services to participate in the evaluations, which would make further pilots difficult to undertake, and it may also impede the potential for positive practice changes. The YJEl report focused on identifying the strengths of practice, rather than being deficit focused. As previously discussed, a key aim of the YJEl is to promote evidence-based approaches to working with young people. The report outlined strengths in practice and discussed recommendations for the service to align itself more closely to the existing evidence base. This coincides with the approach taken within this study to improve and not prove (see Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 1985). The report can be seen as a means of knowledge transfer that can help bridge the practice integrity gap (Gendreau et al., 2010).

6.6.1 Ethical Considerations

As discussed in Chapter Four, the research was approved by Swansea University's College of Law and Criminology Ethics Committee prior to any fieldwork commencing (see Appendix 3 for the application and Appendix 4 for approval confirmation). Additionally, as Dr Pamela Ugwudike relocated to Southampton University, ethical approval was also sought and granted in September 2017 by the University of Southampton's Ethics and Research Governance Team. Ethical procedures followed the same process as the CPAI-2010 evaluations (please see

Chapter Four, pages 134-140 for a detailed overview). In summary, participation in the YJEl pilot was voluntary. Before consenting to participate, each participant was provided with a written description of the project. This included what participation involved, issues surrounding confidentiality and information about how the research findings would be disseminated (see Appendix 10-14 for information sheets and consent forms). It was made clear to all of the participants that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any point, without giving a reason. Individual practitioners are not identifiable at any point of the research. The participating service is identified with a reference number only made known to the researchers in order to maintain confidentiality and anonymity.

6.7 Results from the YJEI Pilot

The following section discusses the results of the YJEI pilot. As the YJEI evaluation was incomplete, the overall YJEI score is not presented, and the results must be viewed with an air of caution. This section discusses the findings from each domain of the YJEI. It outlines the key strengths of practice and areas of practice that require improvements, as defined by the YJEI. Table 26 provides an overview of scoring for the domains that were able to be completed.

Table 26. YJEI Results

YJEI Domains	Number of Items Scored (n)	Numerical Score (n)	Percentage Score (%)	YJEI Rating	Verification Score
PART A: PRACTICE CULTURE					
1. Practice Ethos	5	5	100	Excellent adherence to research evidence & numerous examples of good practice	4.8
2. Practice Principles	21	20	97	Excellent adherence to research evidence & numerous examples of good practice	4.7
PART B: QUALITY ASSURANCE STRATEGIES					
3. Professional Development Opportunities	14	11	79	Excellent adherence to research evidence & numerous examples of good practice	4.5
4. Practice Evaluation Strategies	9	6	67	Good adherence to research evidence with no areas for major improvement.	4.7
PART C: FRONTLINE PRACTICE					
5. Assessment Practice and Interventions	16	Incomplete	Incomplete	Incomplete	Incomplete
6. The Child/Young Person's Voice	27	Incomplete	Incomplete	Incomplete	Incomplete
7. Practice Skills	51	Incomplete	Incomplete	Incomplete	Incomplete
Total	143	43 (Incomplete)	Incomplete	Incomplete	Incomplete

Overall, YOS 5 demonstrated several areas of strength, mainly in the areas of:

- Upholding and complying with the Articles of the UNCRC (1989)
- Possessing good levels of organisational harmony

However, there were key areas of practice that undermined the practice integrity of the service. The CPAI-2010 evaluations also identified the following areas of practice as key areas of improvement. The four key areas are as follows:

- Organisational constraints exasperated by funding cuts
- Evaluation practices
- Risk, need and responsivity practices: scepticism and training
- Supervision skills and training

Domain 1: Practice Ethos - Findings

Within this section, there were several strengths in practice. YOS 5 was committed to upholding and embedding the rights of children and young people in their practices, as well as working to reduce re-offending within the CFOS ethos. The integration of the Youth Justice Team within the Council's Youth Service can be seen to promote inclusivity and avoid the stigmatisation of young people as 'offenders'. This approach coincides with the Welsh Government's *Extending Entitlement* aim of promoting universal support and provisions for *all* young people within the local authority (see Chapter One, pages 18-19). YOS 5 had an independent Children and Young People's Rights Officer, which appeared to be an asset to the service in terms of promoting a CFOS culture and ethos. The Children and Young People's Rights Officer would regularly seek the views of the young people in order to ascertain their satisfaction with the services they received. This information was also provided to the managers and practitioners to help inform service delivery. The service appeared to be committed to a child-centred approach, which can help to reduce re-offending and support social capital (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Haines and Case, 2015; McNeill et al., 2012). All members of staff had a good understanding of children's rights and endeavoured to ensure that the children and young people under their supervision were able to access these rights. Additionally, staff would advocate for

the young people in various situations and environments to ensure that their rights and needs were being met. Advocacy and brokerage can help to engage young people in interventions and help to address socioeconomic issues affecting their lives (Ugwudike, 2016; Bonta and Andrews, 2017).

Staff also ensured where possible, the young people had a say in the decisions that affected. The young people were able to play an active role in setting and determining the targets of their interventions. This is a key strength in practice as collaborative supervision can help to reduce re-offending (Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2015). The presence of advocacy and brokerage services were also a strength of the services who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations and may be partly attributed to the statutory obligation for multi-agency partnerships (Souhami, 2009). To date, there has been limited insight into how children's rights are understood and implemented into front-line service delivery. The commitment to children's rights in rhetoric is undeniable in Wales (Haines, 2010; Haines and Cases, 2015; Haines et al., 2004; National Assembly for Wales, 2016; Muncie, 2011; WG/YJB, 2014; Funky Dragon, 2007). However, as this thesis has revealed, there are often issues with implementing theory and policies into practice (Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Helmond et al., 2014a; Drakeford, 2010; Morgan, 2009; Scraton and Haydon, 2009; Williamson, 2007). Therefore, the inclusion of items that pertain to children's rights provides an opportunity to understand how practitioners understand and implement children's rights into their practices

Domain 2: Practice Principles - Findings

The service had very good partnerships with several external organisations that can provide young people with additional and/or specialist support. Again, this is reflective of the statutory obligation to form multi-agency partnerships and echoes the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations (see pages 205-208). There was clear coordination between the service and external agencies and other teams within YOS 5. This was reflective of the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations (see page 206). Multi-agency work is an important aspect of effective practice as it provides young

people with opportunities to be involved in pro-social activities and helps to facilitate their (re)integration into their communities (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Ugwudike, 2016). As noted, previous studies suggest that providing appropriate advocacy and brokerage services can help to produce positive outcomes, such as reductions in re-offending and can help to build the social capital of young people (Bonta and Andrews 2017; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Ugwudike, 2016).

The service was committed to diverting young people away from the formal youth justice system. This is an area of practice which the CPAI-2010 had failed to examine. A very large proportion of the service's workload involved prevention/pre-court cases. The 'Bureau' (a pre-court diversionary initiative) was embedded within YOS 5 (see also Swansea Bureau – Haines et al., 2013). This form of pre-court diversion coincides with the CFOS ethos of avoiding unnecessary system contact and the unwarranted stigmatisation of young people as 'offenders' (see also McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; 2013). The service also strived to prevent young people from entering custodial institutions and the practitioners were committed to the belief that custody should only be used as a last resort (see Bateman, 2011a). An example of this pertained to the service not enforcing unnecessary breach procedures which can escalate young people through the youth justice system and coincides with the human service principle of the integrated RNR model (see pages 44-49).

There appeared to be very good levels of organisational harmony within the service, and there were appropriate mechanisms in place to resolve staff issues. There were also good lines of communication between practitioners and managers. This was facilitated by the open-plan layout of the office and regular team meetings. All members of staff reported that they were satisfied in their job and appeared to be motivated and dedicated to their work. Practitioners also felt supported by the Service Manager and the Operational Manager. The Operational Manager had recently taken over this management role, and the practitioners viewed this as an extremely positive change. Practitioners viewed the Operational Manager as being

dynamic, supportive and approachable. Additionally, the management team had every confidence in their staff's professional judgement, and staff were encouraged to be creative when working with young people under their supervision. This draws further attention to the importance of organisational factors in regard to the implementation of EBPs. As noted in Chapter Three (see pages 97-99), organisational factors such as supportive management styles, appropriate staff characteristics, strong agency collaboration, adequate training and resources can help to enhance organisational harmony and embed EBPs into front-line service delivery (Aarons, 2006; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Farrell et al., 2011; Gendreau et al., 2010; Glisson and Green, 2006; Henderson and Taxman, 2009; Farrell et al., 2011; Friedmann et al., 2007; Rudes et al., 2017; Taxman et al., 2009; Taxman and Belenko, 2011).

However, due to budget cuts some practitioners were concerned about potential staff redundancies. This did have the potential to adversely affect staff morale and fracture the strong organisational harmony in YOS 5. Some staff did feel that the Service Manager could be clearer and more transparent when making key decisions about the service. Where appropriate, practitioners stated that they would welcome a degree of consultation before changes in staffing roles were made, and also regarding potential staff redundancies. It should be noted that budget cuts were completely beyond the control of the service. This is reflective of the wider youth justice landscape. The YJB has sustained significant budget cuts as part of the UK Government's bid to reduce public spending (YJB, 2017; Chalkley, 2018). This should provide further impetus for central youth justice policymakers to commit to resource youth justice services adequately; service must be properly resourced in order to deliver EBPs (Taxman and Belenko, 2011). The lack of adequate funding can be seen to be an organisational constraint which limited the availability of adequate training and the use of supervision skills in front-line practice. This echoes the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations (see pages 202-204).

Domain 3: Professional Development Opportunities - Findings

As noted, staff characteristics are an important element of EBPs (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). It is widely acknowledged that staff training and development can encourage practitioners to employ EBPs more consistently in practice (see Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Robinson et al., 2012; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2017; Trotter et al., 2015). YOS 5 was committed to the continued professional development of its staff. It appeared that the Service Manager was very supportive of staff training. All practitioners agreed that they were encouraged to seek out and participate in relevant training. Some practitioners had also been supported by the service to study for a bachelor's degree. However, there was a lack of training available in relation to supervision skills. This further echoes the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations (see page 202-204). The management team and practitioners all had appropriate educational qualifications and experience for their specific roles. Additionally, the service was committed to ensuring that all practitioners were working towards gaining the Youth Justice Boards 'effective practice' qualification. A key strength pertained to young people being consulted about the hiring of new staff and they were able to participate in the interview panel. This was reflective of the service's commitment to involve young people in decision-making processes. Finally, staff received monthly clinical supervision where their wellbeing needs were also discussed. Clinical supervision can help to ensure that interventions are delivered with integrity and help to support the professional development of staff (Gendreau et al., 2010; Trotter, 2017).

Domain 4: Practice Evaluation Strategies - Findings

The service had some good quality assurance mechanisms in place. For example, the Operational Manager would regularly dip-sample AssetPlus assessments, court reports, intervention plans, in order to assess the quality and consistency of these. The results from the audit were provided to the practitioners, which helped to maintain good standards of practice. As previously noted, the feedback collected by the Children and Young Person's Rights Officer also helped to inform service delivery. However, YOS 5 did not conduct periodic reviews of the academic literature on EBPs. Literature reviews should be used to inform the delivery of interventions,

and they can also help to develop practitioners' knowledge of EBPs (Gendreau et al., 2010). In accordance with the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations, YOS 5 did not collate recidivism data in an accessible manner. This is important as it can enable the service to develop their evaluation strategies by examining the effectiveness of practices in accordance with recidivism rates. Without accurate and accessible risk/need and recidivism data, it will make it difficult to conduct future outcome evaluations. This is important as outcome evaluations provide the opportunity to develop the empirical support for an integrated RNR model and can help to validate the YJEl (see Lowenkamp et al., 2006a).

Domain 5: Assessment Practice and Interventions - Findings

YOS 5 used AssetPlus to assess the needs of young people. AssetPlus assesses a range of risk and protective factors associated with the young person's offending behaviour and journey to desistance (Baker, 2014). However, AssetPlus is not a validated actuarial instrument, but it does assess the strengths of young people, which is an important development of the integrated RNR model (see pages 82-85). It appeared that assessments were undertaken periodically, and the young people were able to participate in the decision-making process of the assessment. However, the service manager felt that the outcomes of the assessments did not always inform intervention plans. As previously discussed, this is reflective of the CPAI-2010 findings and other empirical studies. Several studies within the context of youth justice have revealed that the outcomes of risk/need assessments are not consistently used to inform interventions plans and service delivery (Wormith and Luong, 2011; Briggs, 2013; Morris, 2015; Singh et al., 2014; Sutherland, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). As noted, the use of risk/need assessments with the youth justice system has been met with fierce criticism (Almond, 2012; Armstrong, 2006; Bateman, 2005; 2011; Briggs, 2013; Case, 2006; 2007; Case and Haines, 2009b; 2016; Creaney, 2014a; Goldson and Muncie, 2006; O'Mahony, 2009; Morris, 2015; Phoenix, 2009; Pitts, 2001b; Robert et al., 2001; Shepherd, 2012; Stephenson et al., 2007; Sutherland, 2009). However, there is youth-specific evidence that reveals assessing and addressing the risk/needs of young people is linked with reductions in re-offending (Adler et al., 2016; Brogan et al., 2015; Lipsey, 2009;

Lipsey et al., 2010; Singh et al., 2014; Wormith and Luong, 2011). The suitability of the risk/need assessments are discussed further in the final chapter (see pages 281-286).

During the evaluation, it was not possible to view AssetPlus assessments. Therefore, it is not feasible to comment on the quality of AssetPlus assessments and intervention plans. However, it should be noted that the introduction of AssetPlus appeared to be met with some resistance and scepticism from practitioners. The consensus was that AssetPlus was too time consuming and impinged on the amount of time available for practitioners to build meaningful relationships with young people. This coincides with some of the criticisms also levelled towards Asset (see Almond, 2012; Briggs, 2013; Case, 2006; 2007; Case and Haines, 2009b; Creaney, 2014a; Goldson and Muncie, 2006; Morris, 2015; Phoenix, 2009; Robert et al., 2001; Shepherd, 2012; Stephenson et al., 2007; Sutherland, 2009). Practitioners felt that they had not been appropriately consulted by the YJB about the introduction of AssetPlus. Additionally, practitioners felt that they had not been adequately trained and supported by the YJB to use AssetPlus effectively. It appeared that practitioners preferred to use their own professional judgement to inform interventions (as found in the CPAI-2010 evaluations – see pages 182-186). As discussed in Chapters Two and Five, practitioners need training in order to identify and address the needs of young people as it can be a complex task (Hollin et al., 2006; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Trotter, 2016; Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2018). Training is crucial to bridging the practice integrity gap (Bonta et al., 2011; Raynor et al., 2014; Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2018). However, in order for practitioners to access training, services must be adequately resourced (Taxman and Belenko, 2011).

Domain 6: The Voice of the Child - Findings

During the evaluation, it was not possible to interview young people. Therefore, from the perspective of young people, it is not possible to comment on the extent to which they are informed and are aware of their rights. Unfortunately, this did limit the value of the pilot and the implications of this are discussed on pages 266-268. However, it

appeared that the service was committed to upholding and promoting the rights of the young people as discussed in the findings of domain 1 and 2.

Domain 7: Practice Skills - Findings

As previously noted, this domain is underpinned by direct observations of supervision sessions and interactions between the young people and practitioners. This section is adapted from a validated checklist; the JSIC (see Raynor et al., 2014; Vanstone and Raynor, 2012). It examines whether practitioners employ the following skills:

- Effective non-verbal communication
- Effective verbal communication
- Effective use of authority
- Motivational interviewing techniques
- Skills for encouraging pro-social behaviour
- Skills for encouraging pro-social thinking
- Problem-solving skills

During the evaluation, it was not possible to observe supervision practices. Therefore, it is not possible to comment on the quality of supervision skills being employed by the practitioners. Some practitioners were aware of some of the evidence-based supervision skills. In general, practitioners had difficulties in articulating what evidence-based supervision skills are and what they entail in practice. This echoes the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations and other studies (see Bonta et al., 2008; HMI Probation, 2016; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Mason and Prior, 2008). Three practitioners had recently received training in motivational interviewing techniques. However, it did appear that adequate skills training was not available to all practitioners. This also coincides with the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations (see also Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2017: 2018) and from the Ipsos MORI (2010) survey which found that there are few formal training opportunities for YOSs (see also Mason and Prior, 2008). As previously noted, training is vital as it encourages practitioners to employ evidence-based skills that can help to reduce re-

offending (Alexander et al, 2013; Andrews and Kiessling, 1980; Bonta et al., 2011; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Landenberger and Lipsey, 2005; Lipsey, 2009; Raynor et al., 2014; Robinson et al., 2012; Sorsby et al., 2013; Trotter, 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). As discussed in Chapter Two (see pages 69-71), training programmes such as EPICS, STICS, STARR, Raynor et al.'s (2010; 2014) Jersey Probation study and Trotter's studies can help to embed supervision skills into front-line service delivery (see Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Robinson et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2012; Sorsby et al., 2013; 2017; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). However, due to the aforementioned budget cuts, such training may not be financially viable. This further provides support for the need for services to receive adequate resources in order to address factors that undermine practice integrity (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018).

6.8 Limitations of the YJEl Pilot and Future Research with the YJEl

While the YJEl pilot provided further insight into the processes of supervision, there are several limitations of the pilot, which constrains its value. Firstly, due to the evaluation being incomplete and the small sample size, the results of the pilot are not generalisable. The lack of participation from young people hindered the researcher's ability to conduct the fieldwork effectively. At the time of the evaluation, the service was only supervising ten young people. This automatically limited the potential sample size. The practitioners passed on the information about the study to the young people, and they decided not to participate. The researcher did not have the opportunity to explain the purpose of the study to the young people. It is not clear whether this would have made a difference in their understanding of the research and their decision to participate. However, as part of conducting ethically compliant research, it was important to respect their decision and not try to coerce them to participate. On reflection, for future evaluations it would be beneficial to request to meet with the young people in person in order to explain the research and make them feel at ease and to answer any questions about the study.

Due to the young people not participating, key domains (5, 6 and 7) of the YJEl were incomplete. This essentially undermined the validity of the evaluation, and as such, the results must be reviewed with caution. The incomplete domains meant that YJEl score (practice integrity) could not be calculated and provided to the service. This would have been useful for the researcher and service in order to draw further comparisons with areas of good practice and areas that require improvements (see Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). Having an YJEl score would have also been beneficial for future comparison between other services which may participate in YJEl evaluations. The YJEl scores can be used to tabulate similarities and difference in scores and practices (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). The observations from domain 7 would have added significant value to the pilot. As noted on pages 247-248, domain 7 is one way in YJEl improves on the CPAI-2010. Domain 7 would have provided greater insight into whether the additions of items that examine the 'set-up' and the use of 'non-verbal communication' were used in supervision sessions. Additionally, the observations would have enabled the researcher to reflect on the suitability of domain 7. It would have allowed the researcher to consider whether amendments made to Domain G of the CPAI-2010 were suitable. Domain 7 would have also provided further empirical insight into the precise process of supervision practices, which remains largely unexplored in Wales. The inclusion of this domain would have helped to draw further comparisons and differences between the results from the CPAI-2010 evaluations, which could have helped to identify any additional training needs. Domain 6 would have provided valuable insight from the children's perspective. It is important to recognise that young people can help to co-produce knowledge about effective interventions (McNeill et al., 2012). Domain 6 would have generated rich data about young people's experience of supervision and access to their rights. This would have provided insight into what worked well for young people and how practices could be improved. Participation from the young people would have also assisted in the triangulation of the results (Bryman, 2016) (see page 120-121). Cross-checking the information provided from both the young people and practitioners would have helped to enhance the validity of the results. The lack of participation from young people limited the opportunity for the researcher to reflect on the suitability of the questions in Domain 6. It is important to examine whether the

questions are fully accessible to young people and whether any other areas of practice need to be included. This is something that needs to be explored further in future evaluations.

Due to time constraints, the researcher was also not able to conduct interviews with the practitioners to assess the evaluation responsiveness of the YJIEI. This would have provided further insight into the suitability and usability of the YJIEI for youth justice practices and helped to shape the development of the inventory. Ideally, it would have been more beneficial to have piloted the YJIEI in one of the services that participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations. Comparisons could have been made between the CPAI-2010 and YJIEI in order to understand the reasons for the differences in the scores and to further ascertain where amendments to the YJIEI are required. The services who participated in the CPAI-2010 were invited to participate in the YJIEI pilot, but due to organisational constraints, they were unable to partake within the timeframe required to complete the YJIEI pilot. As the submission of this thesis was time-bound to March 2019, none of the services was able to commit to an evaluation in mid-2018. The inability to conduct the pilot as desired is reflective of the realities of social science research but does highlight a missed opportunity.

It is important to acknowledge that the YJIEI is not a static instrument and will continue to develop in line with emerging evidence on effective practice and practitioner feedback. Therefore, much more is required in order to validate the YJIEI. This forms part of SSET's wider research strategy. To comprehensively understand and assess the evaluation responsiveness of the YJIEI, further evaluations must be conducted. YJIEI evaluations need to be conducted in the services that participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations in order to draw meaningful comparisons between the two inventories. In order to develop and validate the YJIEI, the following phases need to be undertaken:

- Identify a means to alleviate the issues with examining YJIEI scores and recidivism data.

- Conduct a complete YJEl evaluation in at least two YOSs who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations.
- Assess evaluation responsivity by interviewing practitioners who participated in the YJEl evaluations.
- Analyse the practitioner feedback and use this to inform the development of the YJEl (where applicable and appropriate – the emphasis will remain on the YJEl being evidence-based).
- Undertake larger scales YJEl evaluations across Wales and England (to include a larger number of YOSs)
- Conduct an outcome analysis of the YJEl scores and recidivism data to examine whether a link exists between the evidence-base that underpins the YJEl.

6.9 Concluding Thoughts

In comparison to the CPAI-2010, the YJEl can be seen as a more suitable inventory to evaluate youth justice practices in Wales. The YJEl utilises an integrated approach which incorporates the theoretical and empirical base from RNR, desistance, children's rights and child development in order to make it youth-specific (Ugwudike et al., 2018). Additionally, the YJEl includes items that incorporate the policy context of youth justice in Wales and the need to also address socio-economic factors linked to offending (which is lacking in the CPAI-2010). An important adaptation to the YJEl is the incorporation of positive and user-friendly language (and scoring system) to address the issues of the CPAI-2010/RNR model being perceived as deficit focused (Polaschek, 2012). Due to a lack of participation from young people, the findings from the YJEl pilot are limited and cannot be generalised. To some extent, the YJEl evaluation revealed that a practice integrity gap exists. This coincides with the findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations. The value of the YJEl lies with its ability to provide greater empirical insight into youth justice practices and to help bridge the practice integrity gap. However, further research is required to finesse and validate the YJEl. The YJEl will continue to develop as our knowledge of EBPs progresses from understanding 'what works' to 'how' and 'why' things work.

The final chapter reflects on the aims of the study and discusses the implications of the findings for policy, practice and academic research.

Chapter Seven: Overall Discussion and Conclusion

This study has examined the transferability and limitations of the CPAI-2010 for use in the Welsh youth justice system. Overall, the CPAI-2010 is a valuable tool that can help to bridge the gulf between the theory of EBPs and its implementation into real-world practices (Andrews and Bonta, 2010; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Smith, 2013; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). However, its narrow focus on Gendreau et al.'s (2004; 2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model, and jurisdictional differences limited its suitability for the Welsh context. Findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations and practitioner feedback were the catalyst for the development of a youth-responsive tool – the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEI). This concluding chapter discusses the original contribution of this study at a theoretical and practical level. Additionally, it examines the limitations of the study and the need for further research.

7.1 Overview of the Thesis

In summary, this thesis has provided a multi-dimensional evaluation of youth justice services in Wales. Essentially, the purpose of this study was to examine whether youth justice services adhere to the principles of effective practice (the RNR model) and assess the suitability of the CPAI-2010. To date, there has been a dearth of empirical insight into the factors that impede the effective implementation of EBPs within the Welsh youth justice system. Indeed, there has been minimal insight into the precise processes of how practitioners understand and implement EBPs into their front-line work (Farrell et al., 2011; Ipsos MORI, 2010; HMI Probation, 2016; Mason and Prior, 2008; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). Previous studies have revealed that practitioners have difficulties in implementing the theory of effective practice into front-line service delivery (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta et al., 2008; 2011; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Taxman and Belenko 2011; Brogan et al., 2015; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018; Rudes et al., 2017). This has resulted in a practice integrity gap (see Helmond

et al., 2014a; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). Therefore, this thesis has addressed the following research questions:

1. What level of 'practice integrity' do youth justice agencies in Wales possess?
2. What are the barriers for youth justice agencies in Wales to implement the theory of evidence-based practices into front-line practice?
3. What is the relationship between 'practice integrity' and recidivism rates in Welsh youth justice agencies?
4. Is the CPAI-2010 a suitable evaluation inventory to use within the context of the Welsh youth justice system?

The aforementioned questions have been addressed by the five key stages of the study via a mixed methodological approach:

1. Stage One - involved a process evaluation of youth justice practices in Wales. The process evaluation utilised the CPAI-2010 to assess practice integrity; the degree to which youth justice practices are aligned to the principles of effective practice as conceptualised by Gendreau et al. (2004; 2010). The purpose of this stage was to provide greater empirical insight into areas of good practice and areas that require improvement. Examining the organisational and supervision practices of services provided valuable insight into factors that impeded practitioners' ability to implement EBPs into their front-line work. Greater insight into these areas provides an opportunity to develop practical solutions to bridge the practice integrity gap.
2. Stage Two - examined the suitability of the CPAI-2010 for use in Wales. The plausibility of the CPAI-2010 needed to be questioned due to: its narrow focus on the RNR model and reducing re-offending, and the different jurisdictional context it was designed in. Stage two of the study took a participatory approach where feedback was gained from practitioners who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations. Practitioners facilitated the co-production of knowledge, which provided valuable insight which helped to determine if the CPAI-2010 was useful and how it could be adapted to be more responsive to

the policy and practice context of working with young people in Welsh youth justice system.

3. Stage Three – pursued an outcome evaluation. This stage aimed to analyse the CPAI-2010 scores of the individual youth justice services with their recidivism data. Previous research has revealed that high CPAI scores (high practice integrity) are associated with lower levels of recidivism (see Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). However, due to time constraints and issues with accessing the relevant data, it was not possible to complete a comprehensive analysis (see pages 208-213). The inability to conduct an outcome analysis is one key limitation of this study.
4. Stage Four - stage of the study four focused on developing a more responsive evaluation inventory; the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEI). The YJEI incorporates an integrated RNR model (see Chapter Two). The inventory is underpinned by a broad theoretical and empirical base of 'what works' with young people.
5. Stage Five - piloted the YJEI in one Welsh YOS. This stage of the study provided further empirical insight into youth justice practices, particularly how practitioners embed the tenets of the UNCRC (1989) into their practice.

7.2 Strengths and Implications of the Study

This thesis has made three key contributions, which include: (1) further theoretical and practical development of an integrated RNR model that is youth-specific (2) new and rich empirical insight into supervision practices. Utilising the CPAI-2010 has provided insight into factors that undermine practice integrity, which can facilitate practical solutions to enhance practice and outcomes for young people (3) the development of a bespoke evaluation inventory; the YJEI. The YJEI consolidates the theoretical conceptualisation of an integrated RNR model and provides practical guidance on how to transfer the theory of EBPs into real-world practices. Like the CPAI-2010, the YJEI is a means of knowledge transfer, which can help to bridge the practice integrity gap. The YJEI represents a responsive evaluation tool, which

considers the jurisdictional and cultural context of Wales and EBPs that are relevant to working *with* young people.

Chapter Two revealed that there had been limited theoretical discussion surrounding the RNR model's applicability and appropriateness for use in the Welsh youth justice system. As such, Chapter Two examined the strengths and limitations of applying the RNR model to the Welsh context. Internationally, there is a substantial body of research evidence that supports the efficacy of the RNR model of supervision with a range of offending populations, including young people (Andrews et al. 1990; Andrews and Bonta, 2007; 2010a; 2010b; Aos et al. 2006; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Brogan et al., 2015; Farrell et al., 2011; Hanson et al., 2009; Herzog-Evans, 2017; Koehler et al., 2013; Lipsey, 1992; 2009; 2014; Lipsey and Cullen 2007; Landenberger and Lipsey, 2005; Lipsey and Wilson 1998; Lipsey et al., 2010; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; 2006b; Lösel 1995, 2012; Lösel and Schmucker 2005; Luong and Wormith, 2011; McGuire, 2002; MacKenzie, 2006; Rudes et al., 2017; Tong and Farrington 2006; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015; Vieira et al., 2009). However, this thesis advocates for an integrated approach that incorporates youth-specific evidence from other perspectives (e.g. desistance, children's rights and child development) in order to develop practices that support adherence to the RNR model (see also Herzog-Evans, 2017). The integration of a broader theoretical and empirical base represents a more holistic approach to responding to youth offending, which seeks to reduce re-offending and support the social (re)integration of young people. The notion of 'rehabilitating' children is contested and complex. Offending behaviour is a normal part of adolescence, many young people will naturally 'grow out' of crime without any intervention, and unnecessary system contact may increase their likelihood of future offending (McAra and Vie, 2010; Walsh, 2011). These factors support minimal system contact and the need to the use of diversionary approaches (McAra and Vie, 2010; 2013; Haine and Case, 2015; Smith, 2017). However, it is essential to remember that some young people are enmeshed in offending behaviour and often have very complex needs. These young people do require intervention and support. An integrated RNR model provides a framework for working with young people. This

thesis' conceptualisation of an integrated RNR model places greater emphasis on the importance of the human service and specific responsivity principles and softens the focus on criminogenic risk and need factors by providing a nuanced understanding of the risk and need principles.

This thesis has drawn particular attention to the importance of understanding and utilising the principles of an integrated RNR model *together*. There are multiple layers of interconnectivity between the different principles, which need to be understood and implemented in unity. Considering and implementing the principles in isolation can lead to a misunderstanding of the model and ineffective implementation of the principles in practice (Andrews et al., 2011; Polaschek, 2012; Bonta and Andrews, 2017). When working with low or high-risk young people, practitioners must use appropriate skills to engage with young people (specific responsivity principle) and ensure that their work is underpinned by child-centred, ethical approaches (human service principle). The following sections summarise how the RNR model has been broadened to include valuable insight from desistance, child development and children's rights. As discussed in Chapter Two, conceptual tension arises when using an integrated approach (see pages 42-44). However, the focus of an integrated RNR model is to draw on a range of approaches in order to enhance and adjust RNR for youth justice practices. Essentially, the RNR model operates as a framework that can incorporate relevant EBPs (see also Herzog-Evans, 2017).

Chapter Two (see pages 40-41) revealed that one crucial issue that limited the transferability of the RNR model into practice was its use of complex and deficit focused language (Polaschek, 2012). The deficit language used within the CPAI-2010 also constrained its suitability for the Welsh context. Therefore, this study supports the use of future-orientated and positive language (Ward and Maruna, 2007). The change in language has the potential to contribute to unifying the supposed conflict between other approaches (mainly RNR and desistance). Drawing on perspectives from both GLM and desistance, positive and strengths-based

language can enhance young people's engagement and motivation (Laws and Ward, 2011; Maruna and LeBel, 2003; McNeill et al., 2012; Ugwudike, 2016; Ward and Brown, 2004; Ward and Marshall, 2004; Ward and Gannon, 2006; Ward et al., 2007a; Willis et al., 2013; Yates et al., 2010). Importantly, a shift in language can help to avoid stigmatising young people as 'offenders', 'risks' and 'deficits' and is in keeping with the CFOS ethos of Wales (Haines and Case, 2015; Maruna, 2001; Maruna and LeBel, 2010; McNeill et al., 2012). The incorporation of strengths-based language can further alleviate concerns about the RNR model being incompatible with welfare and rights-based practices.

The complexity of the language used within the RNR model is one key barrier which impedes its implementation into practice (Polaschek, 2012). Practitioners can find it difficult to understand the RNR model and translate it into their front-line practices (Herzog-Evans, 2017; Polaschek, 2012). Therefore, Chapter Two also developed the explanatory depth of the RNR model. Chapter Two also discussed how the RNR model could be broadened to incorporate an integrated approach, as well as how the model can be implemented into practice. Alternative perspectives, such as desistance can help to provide a greater understanding of young people's own experiences of offending. However, desistance perspectives do not provide (or claims to provide) practitioners with practical guidance on how to implement the theory of desistance into front-line service delivery. The lack of practical instruction is also apparent in other approaches such as CFOS. The CFOS approach strengthens the emphasis on a rights-based framework to ensure children are treated as 'children first'. However, CFOS does not provide comprehensive guidance on what this approach entails in terms of front-line service delivery and what skills practitioners should be employing. Integrating these approaches with RNR helps to expand the practical application of these promising approaches. This is facilitated further by the YJEL, which incorporates relevant approaches of working with young people and operates as a mode of knowledge transfer (Ugwudike et al., 2018).

The Human Service Principle

The broadening of the RNR model has sought to address concerns that RNR is punitive and purely deficit focused (Polaschek, 2012; Ward and Maruna, 2007). The integration of children's rights into the human service principle is an important development in order to alleviate any misconceptions that the integrated RNR model is incompatible with the rights and welfare-based practice ethos of Wales. The human service principle advocates for human-centred, humane and ethical interventions (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). As such, the integration of delivering interventions within a children's rights framework can complement, strengthen and adapt the human service principle to be youth-specific. As discussed in Chapter One, social policy and youth justice in Wales is underpinned by the tenets of the UNCRC (1989). A CFOS ethos resonates throughout youth justice (see WG/YJB, 2014; Case and Haines, 2015). The human service principle can support adherence to the UNCRC (1989), particularly Articles 1, 2, 3 and 12. As discussed in Chapter Two, Article 1 advocates that all children under the age of 18 are entitled to their rights, Article 2 states that no child should be discriminated against on any basis, Article 3 states that the best interests of the child should inform all decisions that affect their lives and Article 12 states that children should have a right to participate in decisions that affect their lives. Adherence to these articles can help to prevent punitive and stigmatising practices and help to decrease the likelihood of offending (McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010). The incorporation of the UNCRC (1989) can facilitate collaborative supervision between practitioners and young people (Raynor, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2015). As discussed in Chapter Two, collaborative supervision can increase engagement and adherence to the specific responsibility principle and help to reduce re-offending (Rudduck and McIntyre, 2007; Hibbard and Gilbert, 2014; McMurrin and Ward, 2004, 2010; Maruna and LeBel, 2011; Smith et al., 2012; Ward and Fortune, 2013; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2013a; 2013b; 2015; Ugwudike, 2016).

The human service principle, along with the specific responsibility principle, would support the need to raise the age of criminal responsibility and for universal service provisions. These changes can help to prevent the labelling and stigmatisation of

young people as 'offenders', which can stifle the child's development and increase their likelihood of future offending (McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; 2013). Universal services can support those who are unlikely to re-offend in a way that minimises the likelihood of them from being isolated from their communities, as well as supporting young people who are 'prolific offenders' with complex needs. Social integration is essential to support young people to lead pro-social lives (McNeill et al., 2012; Williams, 2018; Williams et al., 2018). The focus is not solely on addressing their criminogenic needs but also on developing their social capital. The broadening of the need principle and greater explanatory depth of the specific responsivity principle also helps to facilitate this. Support and change must take place in the context of positive relationships between young people and practitioners (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Trotter, 2009; 2015; McNeill et al., 2012; McNeill, 2006a; 2006b; 2009a; Creaney, 2014b; Williams et al., 2018). The integrated RNR model is not just about changing the child. It is also focused on ensuring that children can access and enjoy their rights (human service principle), as well as ensuring that support is individualised to their characteristics, such as gender, age, developmental stage and learning styles (specific responsivity). However, in order for universal services to become a reality in practice, there needs to be a significant shift in legislation and policy at central Government level.

The Specific Responsivity Principle

Expanding the explanatory depth of the specific responsivity principle was a key developed of an integrated RNR model (see pages 49-71). Historically, the specific responsivity principle has been under-theorised, which has often resulted in the RNR model being criticised and interrupted as merely applying cognitive-behavioural, social learning approaches (McNeill, 2012; Andrews et al., 2011; Polaschek, 2012). The specific responsivity principle can be understood in terms of intrinsic (the service user characteristics) and extrinsic responsivity (the practitioners' skills) (see Herzog-Evans, 2017). Intrinsic responsivity places responsibility on the practitioners to understand the child in front of them and respond to their characteristics and abilities appropriately (e.g. learning styles and bio/psycho/social factors, see pages 52-58) in order to provide *individualised* support (Herzog-Evans, 2017; Bourgon and Bonta,

2014). Part of responding to the child requires an understanding of their development stage, social circumstances (favourable or adverse) in order to ensure that practitioners address barriers to learning, engagement and motivation (Bourgon and Bonta, 2014; Skuse and Matthews, 2015). The development of the ECM in Wales also recognises the importance of responding to the developmental age of the child and would not be at odds with an integrated RNR model (see pages 19-23 and 51-52). The ECM model also recognises the importance of addressing the non-criminogenic needs of young people, which coincides with this thesis' broadening of the need principle (see pages 85-88). Young people's basic needs must be met in the context of positive and collaborative relationships, and with a focus on their strengths and capabilities (extrinsic and intrinsic responsivity). This can help to engage and motivate young people (intrinsic responsivity) (McNeill et al., 2012; Ward and Maruna, 2007; Bourgon and Bonta, 2014).

Extrinsic responsivity is concerned with the skills of the practitioners and their ability to create supportive environments for young people to develop pro-social skills and identities (see pages 51-53). As such, this thesis places greater emphasis on the importance of practitioners' skills and their responsibility to support young people. Research into the use of supervision skills in the English and Welsh youth justice system has been limited (Mason and Prior, 2008; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Adler et al., 2016; HMI Probation, 2016; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). Findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that practitioners did not effectively implement the responsivity principle into practice and did not have a comprehensive understanding supervision skills (CCPs). This is reflective of previous studies that revealed that responsivity factors are not assessed and identified (Luong and Wormith, 2011). Additionally, several studies have revealed that practitioners often failed to effectively employ supervision skills (Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Bonta et al., 2008; Mason and Prior, 2008; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Adler et al., 2016; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). The findings from the CPAI-2010 revealed a deficit in practices in Wales. The limited use of CCPs is problematic as several studies reveal that utilising supervision skills engages service-users and can reduce re-offending (Andrews and Kiessling, 1980; Bonta et al. 2011; 2017; Chadwick et al. 2015; Dowden and

Andrews, 2004; Durnescu, 2012; Raynor et al, 2014; Robinson et al. 2011; Trotter, 2009; 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al, 2015). Findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations revealed that the limited integration of supervision skills into practice was largely attributed to a lack of adequate training and clinical supervision. Previous studies have also revealed that practitioners in England and Wales are provided with little training opportunities to develop their supervision skills (Mason and Prior, 2008; Ipsos MORI, 2010).

Chapter Two (see pages 69-71), identified a range of practitioner training programmes underpinned by the RNR model that can help to improve practitioners understanding and use of supervision skills. These include STICS, STARR, EPICS, SEED, the Jersey Study and Trotter's training (see Smith et al., 2012; Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Robinson et al., 2012; Sorsby et al., 2013; 2017; Raynor et al., 2010; 2014; Vanstone and Raynor, 2012; Trotter, 1996; 2010; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). Studies, including several in the youth justice context reveal that training encourages practitioners to employ evidence-based skills into their front-line service delivery and are linked with reductions in re-offending (Alexander et al. 2013; Bonta et al. 2011; Landenberger and Lipsey, 2005; Raynor et al., 2014; Robinson et al. 2012; Sorsby et al. 2013 Trotter, 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). During the CPAI-2010 evaluations, practitioners stated that they would welcome further training opportunities. However, youth justice services in Wales do not necessarily have access to the aforementioned training programmes. Additionally, training would incur a financial cost. As previously noted, funding cuts were a key issue that participating services cited as a barrier to providing practitioners with adequate training. Amid continuing budgets cuts, this thesis has drawn attention to the need to resource YOSs adequately. As such, there must be a commitment from central youth justice policymakers to provided services with sufficient funding. Youth justice services must be adequately resourced in order to deliver EBPs (see also Taxman, 2004; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018).

The Risk and Need Principles

Much of the criticisms of the RNR model has focused on the risk and need principles being overly deficit focused. To some extent, this is warranted, particularly when applying risk-led approaches to working with children. The emphasis on criminogenic needs represents a rather narrow focus on psychosocial risk factors and can individualise the blame for offending on the children, which fails to account for structural adversity (Case and Haines, 2009b; Goldson and Muncie, 2006; Bateman, 2011a; Haines and Case, 2008, 2011). The necessity to address the non-criminogenic needs of young people and build on their strengths and capabilities is one key development of an integrated RNR model. However, even desistance writers have acknowledged that risk cannot be ignored when working with young people (McNeill, 2009a). As such, a nuanced understanding of risk and need is required when working with children. A stronger emphasis needs to be placed on the specific responsivity principle, which is lacking in the current literature. The broadening of the human service and specific responsivity principles serves to ensure that risk and need practices are used appropriately and seeks to minimise risk-led practices that can stigmatise young people. Practitioners must understand the child in front of them as a whole person and not just their potential 'risks', which further highlights the importance of utilising the RNR principles in combination with one another.

Responding to risks and needs in the youth justice system remains contentious and often divides academics (Almond, 2012; Andrews et al., 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Briggs, 2013; Case, 2007; Case and Haines, 2009b; Haines and Case, 2008; 2015; Trotter, 2016). As discussed in Chapter Two (see pages 76-85), the use of actuarial risk/need assessment has been met with fierce criticisms and resistance (Bateman, 2005; Case, 2007; Case and Haines, 2009; 2012; Haines and Case, 2015). There are apparent tensions between managing risk and avoiding system contact. It is important to remember that most young people will stop offending without any intervention, and unnecessary system contact can increase their likelihood of future offending (McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; 2013). However, the risk principle can support diversionary approaches. The risk principle advocates that

those who are a low risk of offending should receive minimal intervention and should be diverted from the youth justice system (Bonta and Andrews, 2007; Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrew, 2017; Gaes and Bales, 2011; Haerle, 2016; Lipsey 2009; 2014; Lowenkamp et al., 2006b; Trotter, 2016). However, the principles of an integrated RNR model are still relevant and important when diversionary initiatives are pursued. Adler et al. (2016) revealed that diversionary approaches had produced mixed outcomes within England and Wales. Diversionary initiatives must be delivered by appropriately skilled staff (specific responsivity) who are committed to delivery human-centred, ethical support (human service principles). The risk principle is mainly concerned with ensuring that there are appropriate resources in place to meet the needs of young people who are assessed as high risk of re-offending. As these young people often have the most complex needs and therefore, require more support (Bonta and Andrews, 2017). The issue is not necessarily with the theorisation of the risk principle but how it has been implemented in practice. Several studies have revealed that practitioners have difficulties in conceptualising risk and fail to conduct adequate risk assessments in practice (Briggs, 2013; Lipsey, 2009; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Sutherland, 2009; Phoenix, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). This may result in inaccurate assessments of the level of risk, which can unintendedly draw young people into the youth justice system (Phoneix, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018).

A lack of adequate staff training and poorly designed risk/need assessment tools can be seen as the key factors that limits the effective implementation of the risk and need principles. As noted, practitioners were utilising Asset at the time of the CPAI-2010 evaluations. Drawing on an integrated approach, Asset is too narrowly focused on psychosocial risk factors (Case and Haines, 2009b; Case, 2007; Almond, 2012; Bateman, 2011b; O'Mahony, 2009). There is a lack of acknowledgement of socioeconomic factors that adversely affected young people, which are often out of their control (Herzog-Evans, 2017; McNeill et al., 2012; Barry, 2009; 2010; Haines and Case, 2015). As discussed, greater emphasis must be placed on developing the social capital of young people. Additionally, risk/need assessment must recognise the strengths and capabilities of young people (Ward and Maruna, 2007; Case and

Haines, 2011; Haines and Case, 2015; Creaney, 2014a; Williams, 2018) (see Chapter Two, pages 80-82). Acknowledging the protective factors and the strengths of individuals can help to motivate them and prevent future offending (Case, 2006; 2007; Schoon and Bynner, 2003; Lösel and Bender, 2007; Rennie and Dolan, 2010; Polaschek, 2016; Trotter, 2016).

The focus on strengths coincides with future-orientated practices, which can help develop individuals self-efficacy and pro-social self-identities (Laws and Ward, 2011; Maruna and LeBel, 2003; McNeill et al., 2012; Ugwu-dike, 2016; Ward and Brown, 2004; Ward and Marshall, 2004; Ward and Gannon, 2006; Ward et al., 2007a; Willis et al., 2013; Yates et al., 2010). Strengths-based approaches can also enhance adherence to the specific responsivity principle by developing and maintaining the engagement and motivation of young people (Ugwu-dike, 2016). While many academics are critical of risk/need assessments, it is unclear what the alternative would be. The popular and widely disseminated criticisms of risk-informed youth justice practices (Case, 2006; 2007; Case and Haines, 2009b; 2010; 2011; 2016; Haines and Case, 2008; 2011; 2012; 2015; O'Mahony, 2009; Phoenix, 2009) ignore the fact that practitioners will always make assessments of the likelihood of future behaviour. The choice, in reality, is between variable and subject assessments or more reliable and consistent evidence-based assessments. Indeed, professional judgement can be even more problematic than risk/need assessment as it is not without bias. Professional judgement can produce more false positive or negatives than actuarial risk assessment (Herzog-Evans, 2017). Professional judgement lacks a level of standardization, transparency and accountability that actuarial assessments can provide (Andrews et al., 2011; Baker et al., 2011; Bonta and Andrews, 2017).

The introduction of AssetPlus has sought to address the deficit focus of Asset and places greater emphasis on the strengths and capabilities of young people (Baker, 2014). However, to date, no studies have been conducted to examine the impact of AssetPlus on service delivery. Previously, Asset has been criticised for being overly

long and too time-consuming to complete, which impinged on contact time between practitioners and young people (Almond, 2012; Baker et al., 2011; Shepherd, 2012). It is crucial that practitioners can develop positive relationships with young people (McNeill, 2006a; Haines and Case, 2015; Raynor et al., 2014; Trotter, 2013a; Trotter, 2015). As discussed in Chapters Two and Six (see pages 60-65 and 193-198), relationship building forms is an integral supervision skill, which is linked to reductions in re-offending (Bonta et al., 2008; Creaney, 2014b; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Haines and Case, 2015; Johns et al., 2017; McNeill, 2006a; Raynor et al., 2014; Robinson et al., 2012; Trotter, 2013a). The length of AssetPlus may also be an issue for its effective use in practice. AssetPlus is just over 100 pages long. Findings from the YJEL evaluations revealed that practitioners also felt that it was too time-consuming and constricted the time available to build meaningful relationships with the young people (see pages 263-264). There appeared to be a sense of resistance and scepticism towards AssetPlus (these findings must be viewed with an air of caution due to the small sample size). A lack of engagement with the assessment process may adversely affect the quality of AssetPlus assessment and can result in poorly designed interventions that undermine practice integrity (Briggs, 2013; Phoenix, 2009; Sutherland, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Essentially, a less taxing risk/need assessment tool needs to be developed for youth justice practitioners in England and Wales, with a greater emphasis on the strengths of young people (Williams, 2018).

Practitioners in YOS 5 also felt that they had not received adequate training to conduct AssetPlus assessment and transform the outcomes of these into intervention plans. Similarly, findings from the CPAI-2010 also revealed that practitioners did not always use the information from risk assessment to inform intervention plans (intervention plans did not always address the key criminogenic needs of the young people) (see pages 182-186). This is reflective of previous studies that have also highlighted the issues of implementing the risk and need principles into practice (Bonta et al., 2008; Flores et al., 2004; Miller and Moloney, 2013; Phoenix, 2009; Sutherland, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018; Singh et al., 2014; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010; Sadlier, 2010). Identifying and addressing the needs of young people is a complex task (Hollin and

Palmer, 2006; Palmer and Hollin, 2007; Trotter, 2016; Brogan et al., 2015). Therefore, practitioners need on-going training to ensure that the identification of risk and protective factors happens within a *positive* and *collaborative* relationship with the young person (Trotter, 2016). As discussed throughout this thesis, training is vital as it develops practitioners skills base and encourages them to employ EBPs in their front-line work (Alexander et al. 2013; Bonta et al. 2011; Landenberger and Lipsey, 2005; Raynor et al., 2014; Robinson et al. 2012; Sutherland, 2009; Trotter, 2016; Taxman and Belenko, 2011).

As noted in Chapter Two (see pages 85-88), the need principle of the RNR model has primarily been concerned with addressing criminogenic needs that are associated with the offending behaviour of the young person (see Andrews et al., 1990). As noted, the RNR model has been rather narrowly focused on addressing psychosocial criminogenic risk factors. In line with an integrated approach, the RNR model needs to place a greater emphasis on responding to the non-criminogenic needs of young people (Brogan et al., 2015; Trotter, 2016; Ward et al., 2007a). Bonta and Andrews' (2017) most recent conceptualisation of the RNR model (see Table 3) has placed greater focus on addressing the non-criminogenic needs of service users, but this seems to be somewhat of an afterthought. The necessity to address non-criminogenic needs also recognises the policy and practice context of Wales. Within Wales, safeguarding young people's wellbeing is a key priority (WG/YJB, 2014). The rather narrow focus on psychosocial risk factors responsabilises the blame for offending on the young person a fails to acknowledge the structural adversity that young people face (Case, 2006; 2007; Case and Haines, 2009b). The responsabilisation of individuals is a key departure from the RNR model in regard to an integrated approach (Herzog-Evans, 2017; McNeill, 2012). Responding to non-criminogenic needs can help to address responsivity issues that may undermine young people's motivation and engagement in interventions. Drawing on desistance theories, placing greater emphasis on non-criminogenic needs can help to build the social capital of young people as opposed to just their human capital (Farrall, 2002, 2004; McNeill and Maruna, 2007; McNeill and Whyte, 2007; McNeill et al., 2012; Williams, 2018). Nevertheless, RNR based studies have highlighted that a conceptual and implementation gap exists between identifying criminogenic needs

and services having the resources to address these in interventions (Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Findings from the CPAI-2010 revealed that practitioners did not always focus on addressing the needs of young people. This is reflective of findings from previous studies (Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Sutherland, 2009). Studies suggest that many practitioners are unable to identify and target criminogenic needs without adequate training (see Robinson et al., 2012; Baker et al., 2005; Briggs, 2013; Sutherland, 2009; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018; Bonta et al., 2008).

Understanding and Bridging the Practice Integrity Gap

The theoretical development of a youth-specific integrated RNR model can help to provide practitioners with a more in-depth understanding of effective ways to work with young people. However, an integrated model will only be effective if it is implemented with integrity. Chapters Two and Three, revealed that studies on the RNR model's efficacy in youth and adult settings within England and Wales have revealed modest outcomes (see Cann et al., 2003; Feilzer et al., 2004; Raynor and Robinson, 2009). This does not necessarily reflect deficits with the RNR model, but with issues associated with its effective implementation into front-line practice (poor practice integrity). Chapter Three revealed that a practice integrity gap existed. Several studies highlight that practitioners have difficulties in translating the theory of EBPs into front-line service delivery (Lowenkamp et al., 2006a; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Bonta et al., 2008; Helmond et al., 2014a; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). Therefore, the efficacy of an integrated RNR model may not be fully understood if it is not appropriately applied in practice.

Internationally, there has been a growing corpus of research that has examined the implementation of EBPs into front-line practice (Trotter, 1996, 2015; Bonta et al. 2011; Bourgon et al. 2010; Chadwick et al. 2015; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al. 2010; 2014; Robinson et al. 2011; Taxman 2008; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). However, most of this

research has taken place in jurisdictions outside of Wales (and the UK) (see Trotter, 1996, 2009; 2013a; 2013b; 2016; 2017; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015; Rudes et al., 2017; Lipsey, 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014). Issues surrounding implementation have remained mostly unexplored in Wales. As such, a key value of this study lies its empirical insight into an under-researched area and its potential for practical application in the real-world. This thesis has provided an insight into whether practitioners implement EBPs into their front-line practices, as well as the barriers that prevent this. Importantly, it has identified some practical solutions to bridge the practice integrity gap, which coincides with the aim of evaluations to improve and not prove (see Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 1985) This study has not only provided an insight into the extent to which youth justice services are aligned with the existing evidence base, but it has also enabled agencies to identify and explore practices that are linked with positive outcomes such as reductions in re-offending.

Chapter Three presented the CPAI-2010 as a tool that can assist in bridging the practice integrity gap (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Smith, 2013; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). However, due to its narrow focus on Gendreau et al.'s (2004; 2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model and jurisdictional differences, this study also examined its suitability for use in the Welsh youth justice system (an examination of evaluation responsiveness). This study set out to determine where practices in Wales justifiably departed from the expectations of the CPAI-2010 and where failure to meet CPAI-2010 requirements highlighted deficits in practice. The key findings from the study revealed that a practice integrity gap existed within the participating services (see also Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018) (see Chapter Five for an in-depth discussion of the CPAI-2010 results). As Table 27 highlights, two of the five participating services received 'unsatisfactory' scores, and the remaining services received scores just within the 'satisfactory' category.

Table 27. Overall CPAI-2010 Scores and Classifications

Organisation	Overall CPAI-2010 score (%)	CPAI-2010 Rating
YOS 1	50.0	Satisfactory
YOS 2	42.4	Unsatisfactory
YOS 3	50.7	Satisfactory
YOS 4	53.0	Satisfactory
Secure Estate 1	35.6	Unsatisfactory

The findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations coincided with previous studies (see Gendreau and Goggin, 2000; Matthews et al., 2001; Nesovic, 2003; Lowenkamp, 2004; Lowenkamp et al., 2006a). Previous studies have revealed that the majority of interventions assessed by the CPAI fall into the ‘unsatisfactory’ or ‘satisfactory’ scoring category. Very few interventions have scored ‘very satisfactory’ (Lowenkamp et al., 2006; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). As noted, this study revealed issues with practice integrity largely pertained to the following:

1. Services did not consistently implement the risk and need principles of the RNR model:
 - Practitioners did not always use the information from risk assessment to inform intervention plans (intervention plans did not always address the key criminogenic needs of the young people).
2. Services did not adhere to the responsivity principle:
 - Responsivity assessments were not conducted.
 - Interventions were not always adapted to match key characteristics of the young people.
 - Practitioners hardly ever employed the structuring element of supervision skills.
3. There was a lack of appropriate training available to practitioners.
4. There was a lack of adequate funding for youth justice services which exacerbated organisational constraints.
5. There was a lack of effective evaluation strategies present.

Findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations are reflective of the broader research literature (Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Sutherland, 2009; Trotter, 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015; Bonta et al., 2008; 2011; 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Raynor et al., 2014). The aforementioned areas of practice represent deficits in practice as opposed to issues with the suitability of the CPAI-2010, which is supported by a youth-specific evidence-base (Dowden and Andrews, 1999a; 1999b; Rudes et al., 2017; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Izzo and Ross, 1990; Singh et al., 2014; Sutherland, 2009; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; 2016; 2017; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015; Lipsey, 1992; 1995; 1999; 2009; Lipsey et al., 2010; Brogan et al., 2015; Farrell et al., 2011). As Taxman and Belenko (2011) note, practitioners continue to have difficulties in implementing the principles of effective practice into their front-line work, which further highlights the need for on-going training and support (Raynor et al., 2014; Bonta et al., 2011; 2017; Trotter, 2009; 2017; Ugwu-dike and Morgan, 2017; 2018)

Stage two of the study revealed that practitioners perceived the CPAI-2010 as a valuable tool that can help them to keep them abreast of the latest EBPs and help them to implement EBPs into their front-line work (see pages 215-219). The CPAI-2010 can help to provide services with knowledge and education on EBPs (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). This was welcomed by the practitioners, as Senior Practitioner 1 stated 'we need to evolve and change and keep up with the latest research'. Additionally, the CPAI-2010 can help services to articulate their work and identify areas of good practice that are consistent with EBPs (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). The CPAI-2010 also enabled services to identify areas that require improvements (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). From the researcher's perspective, conducting CPAI-2010 evaluations across several services helped to identify reoccurring and noticeable gaps in practice. As discussed, the evaluations revealed that across all of the services, practitioners were not consistently employing structuring skills (see Table 19 and pages 195-204). This is consistent with previous studies (Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Bonta et al., 2008; Trotter, 2013a; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015; Raynor et al., 2014). Highlighting the deficits in practice can provide services with the opportunity to address these issues. The

participating services valued the recommendations in the CPAI-2010 reports provided to them. As YOS Manager 2 stated ‘... there’s plenty of recommendations there that we will want to pursue’. As such, insight into the practice integrity gap can also be used to guide future research and training needs for services (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). The limited use of the structuring element of CCPs can be used as a catalyst for services to seek training in order to implement these skills. Many of the services wanted to pursue supervision skills training, and findings from the CPAI-2010 evaluations indicate the need for the provision of specific skills training (see pages 202-204).

The quantitative scoring of the CPAI-2010 also provided the researcher with the opportunity to compare scores and practices across different services. This can enable the researcher to identify further issues in specific areas of practice. Again, this can help to generate practical solutions to minimise implementation issues and help services to prioritise key areas of practice that require more urgent improvements (Smith and Schweitzer, 2012; Gendreau et al., 2010). The scoring system and learning process of the CPAI-2010 evaluations may also help to encourage re-evaluation, where services can benchmark their improvements and monitor practice developments (Gendreau et al., 2010; Smith and Schweitzer, 2012). The CPAI-2010 scoring also provided the researcher with the opportunity to conduct an outcome evaluation. Examining the link between CPAI-2010 scores and recidivism serves to validate the CPAI-2010 and also provides further empirical support for the efficacy of the RNR model. As discussed in Chapter Three, interventions that receive high CPAI scores have lower rates of recidivism (Lowenkamp et al., 2006a).

The CPAI-2010 also provided practitioners with the opportunity to engage in meaningful self-reflection of their practices. This was an unintended consequence of the evaluations, but it can help to prevent burnout, develop the competence of practitioners, and encourage continued learning and professional development (Finlay, 2008; Greene, 2017, Schön, 1983). The researcher’s style of delivering the

CPAI-2010 evaluations played an important role in engaging practitioners in the study. Many practitioners were sceptical of inspections and were initially concerned that the CPAI-2010 evaluation would mirror a formal inspection conducted by HMI Probation. As such, it was crucial that practitioners were engaged as key stakeholders, and the evaluation process took a bottom-up approach as opposed to a top-down approach (Oulton, 2003). As such, the practitioners did not feel that the CPAI-2010 evaluations had been imposed on them. The researcher's style of interviewing the practitioners was important. Interviews were conducted informally, and the researcher also used her interpersonal skills to engage with the practitioners and to make them feel at ease. This was reflected in the practitioners' feedback. Practitioner 11 noted that the CPAI-2010 evaluations were delivered 'in a way as if you are trying to support us and that we're all learning together and it's a different atmosphere [to inspections]'. Ensuring that practitioners are engaged in the evaluation process can also increase the likelihood that they will take on board the recommendations from the evaluations, which that can improve service delivery (Chouinard, 2013; Cousins 2003; Greene 2006).

Responsive Evaluations - Developing the YJEI: RNR + CFOS = YJEI

Despite the strengths of the CPAI-2010, it was not entirely suitable for use in the Welsh youth justice system. The CPAI-2010 is not perfect, but it was sufficient to identify several problems with current practices. However, the CPAI-2010 needed to be modified in order to have a wider application for youth justice practices in Wales. The Welsh youth justice system has broader goals than what CPAI-2010 evaluates (see WG/YJB, 2014). Due to the limitations of the CPAI-2010, there was a need to develop a responsive evaluation inventory that was youth-specific and considers the jurisdictional context of the policy and practice setting. As such, a key contribution of this thesis was the development of the YJEI (see Chapter Six). The YJEI is the amalgamation of the practical and empirical encounter of the RNR model and CFOS, and it incorporates the integrated RNR model presented in this thesis (see Chapter Two). The YJEI can be mainly understood as the adaption and re-use of components of CPAI-2010. The YJEI draws on aspects which are appropriate for working with young people and are also a good fit with Welsh youth justice requirements.

Modification, replacements and/or addition of items to the YJEl represent areas of practice that were not adequately covered by CPAI-2010, but which reflect more accurately the policy and practice context of Welsh youth justice and EBPs for working with young people (as opposed to adults). The design of the YJEl incorporated feedback from the practitioners who participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations. Again, practitioner involvement can help to increase their engagement in the evaluation process and provide them with a greater sense of ownership of the evaluations (Cousins 2003; Greene 2006). Additionally, the practitioners' input helped to ensure that the YJEl was user-friendly in order to encourage self-evaluation which can also help to embed EBPs into frontline service delivery (Latessa et al., 2002; Gendreau et al., 2010; Ugwudike et al., 2018).

The limitations of the CPAI-2010 are discussed in detail in Chapter Five (see pages 219-227). In summary, one clear limitation of the CPAI-2010 was its narrow focus on Gendreau et al.'s (2004; 2010) conceptualisation of the RNR model. As such, this prevented the CPAI-2010 from incorporating important contributions from desistance and youth-responsive practices. For example, the CPAI-2010 is primarily concerned with examining services that respond to service users who are medium to high risk of re-offending. The CPAI-2010 did not fit with broader youth justice research, which advocates that youth offending is often transitory and that unnecessary system contact can be detrimental (see Capsi and Moffitt, 1995; Cauffman and Steinberg, 2000; Farrington and Ttofi, 2016; McAra and McVie, 2007; 2010; 2013; Moffitt, 1993; 1997; Monahan et al., 2009; Sampson and Laub, 2003; Steinburg and Cauffman, 1996; Steinburg et al., 2015; Thornberry and Krohn, 2005; Walsh, 2011). In other words, the CPAI-2010 did not effectively evaluate diversionary practices that avoid stigmatising and escalating young people through the youth justice system (see Haines and Case, 2015; McAra and McVie, 2010; McNeill et al., 2012). Additionally, there was a lack of focus on responding to the non-criminogenic needs of young people and whether they can access and enjoy their rights. As such, the YJEl incorporated the theoretical and empirical base from RNR, desistance, children's rights and child development in order to make it youth responsive (Ugwudike et al.,

2018). The YJEl translates the theoretical conceptualisation of an integrated RNR model into an evaluation tool that can help to bridge the practice integrity gap.

The language used within the CPAI-2010 was another issue for its transferability to Wales (see pages 219-227). Chapter Six discussed how this could be resolved in the development of the YJEl (see pages 248-250). For example, the word 'programme' was replaced with 'service' in order to make the inventory culturally and jurisdictional responsive and without undermining the integrity of the inventory. Additionally, the language that was perceived as being punitive and stigmatising was also adapted. For example, the term 'offender' was replaced 'children and young people'. This change is aligned with the CFOS ethos that resonates throughout Wales and coincides with the need to use positive language to avoid the adverse effects of labelling and to facilitate the development of pro-social identities (McNeill et al., 2012; Haines and Case, 2015). The complex and juridically different language of the CPAI-2010 also limited its accessibility to youth justice practitioners. This may lead to their disengagement in the evaluation process and reduce the likelihood that recommendations will be implemented into practice. As such, the language was also modified to ensure that it was user-friendly (see pages 251-252).

The CPAI-2010 scoring categorisation of 'satisfactory' was also problematic (see pages 225-226). Chapter Six outlined how the scoring was adapted in order to alleviate concerns that 'satisfactory' is not reflective of the extent to which a service is aligned to the existing evidence base. The YJEl scoring was modified to incorporate more positive language and to provide more context to what the scores pertain to. The term 'satisfactory' was replaced with 'good adherence to research evidence with no areas for major improvement (score from 60 to 69%)' and 'developing good adherence to research evidence and examples of good practice exceed areas for improvement (scores from 50 to 59%)'. Finally, the cost of administrating the CPAI-2010 was a concern. As discussed in Chapter Five (see page 227), each time a CPAI-2010 evaluation is undertaken a fee of 1,000 Canadian dollars must be paid to its creators. As YOSs' budgets have been reduced, engaging

in future CPAI-2010 evaluations may not be financially viable for the services. Additionally, the services may be more inclined to invest their resources into training to deal with practice deficits as opposed to paying for evaluations. Therefore, there is no licensing fee attached to using the YJEl in order to alleviate the financial concern.

7.3 Limitations of the Study

One key limitation of this study is the lack of a comprehensive outcome evaluation. Stage three of the study attempted to quantitatively examine the link between the CPAI-2010 scores of the participating services and their recidivism rates. Chapter Five (see pages 208-213) discusses in greater detail the issues that prevented an outcome evaluation from taking place. In summary, this can be primarily attributed to difficulties in obtaining relevant data in an accessible format. The small sample size of the study would have also limited the generalisability of the outcome evaluation. Additionally, the lack of participation of young people in the YJEl pilot also limited its value. Pages 266-268 discussed in detail the limits of the YJEl pilot. In summary, due to the small sample size and an incomplete YJEl evaluation, the results of the pilot are not generalisable. The YJEl also requires validation, which was beyond the scope of this study, but is planned for future research. The methodological issues of this study have also been addressed in Chapters Four and Six (particularly in relation to utilising the CPAI-2010). As this study employed a mixed methodological approach, some argue that the underpinning paradigms of qualitative and quantitative research are incompatible (see Bryman, 2016). However, this study took a pragmatic approach where the most suitable methods were employed in order to effectively address the central research questions (Feilzer, 2010).

The majority of the data gathered in this study has relied on qualitative means of data collection and analysis, which can raise concerns over reliability and generalisability. Studies that incorporate qualitative means of data collection are

often difficult to replicate due to the often subjective and interpretative nature of enquiry and analysis (Bryman, 2016). There were two key concerns in relation to the CPAI-2010 and YJEL evaluations. Firstly, in terms of observing practice, the interactions between young people and practitioners may differ if further observations were repeated. Additionally, if the interviews of the CPAI-2010, YJEL evaluations and practitioner feedback were repeated, there may be the potential for social desirability to affect the reliability of the results (see Robson, 2011). However, this study was not concerned with replicating the findings. The emphasis was on gaining an in-depth insight into front-line practices, which has been achieved. Building rapport with the participants and the use of probing questions helped to clarify and validate the participants' responses. Reaching theoretical saturation also helped ensure that the results are valid (see pages 121). The use of non-participant observations helped to minimise the effect of social desirability (see pages 119-120). Chapter Four examined and justified the means of data collection for this study (see pages 116-123 and 130-132). The methods employed appeared to be the most appropriate and suitable to meet the aims of this study. In regard to the CPAI-2010 and YJEL evaluations, the addition of the second evaluator strengthened the validity of the results as it enabled inter-rater reliability (see page 123). However, the sampling technique (purposive sampling) and the small sample size limited the generalisability of the study. A key limitation of this study pertains to the results not being generalisable to YOSs across Wales and beyond. Essentially, the results may not be applicable to the wider population. However, purposive sampling helped to address the key needs of the study (see also Robson, 2011). This form of sampling enabled the selection of managers and practitioners who were most involved in the delivery of services. This facilitated the collection of the most relevant information in order to address the research questions of this study. As noted in Chapter Four, this study did not seek or claim to generalise findings. The emphasis was again to gain a greater insight into the level of practice integrity within youth justice services.

7.4 Future Research

There are several lines of potential future enquiry that have emerged from this study. There are two key priorities that would help to gain greater insight into youth justice practices and also help to bridge the practice integrity gap. These include:

- Developing and validating the YJIEI
- Developing and evaluating supervision skills training

As discussed in Chapter Six (see pages 266-269), the YJIEI requires further development and validation. As such, more YJIEI evaluations need to be conducted. It would be beneficial to conduct YJIEI evaluations in the services that participated in the CPAI-2010 evaluations. Part of this process would also involve gaining feedback from the practitioners. This would allow for a comparison between the YJIEI and CPAI-2010 in order to further assess the suitability of the YJIEI. Feedback from practitioners can help to refine the inventory to ensure that it is user-friendly and jurisdictionally appropriate while retaining its evidence base. A larger number of evaluations will need to be conducted in order to undertake an outcome analysis. Future research would seek to examine the YJIEI scores and the recidivism rates of services. As with Lowenkamp et al.'s (2006a) validation of the CPAI, a correlation between high YJIEI scores and lower rates of recidivism would provide further empirical support for an integrated RNR model and help to validate the YJIEI.

Another important avenue for future research pertains to supervision skills. A key finding of this study revealed that practitioners did not consistently employ supervision skills in practice, and they had limited access to appropriate training. Many of the participating services were keen to undertake supervision skills training. However, it was difficult to identify a suitable and affordable trainer/training provider for services. Therefore, future research would seek to develop supervision skills training for youth justice practices and evaluate the impact of this. A training programme like the ones discussed in Chapter Two (see pages 69-71) could be developed for youth justice practitioners and piloted in one YOS (e.g. EPICS,

STARR, STICS, see Smith et al., 2012; Bonta et al., 2011; Robinson et al., 2012; Sorsby et al., 2015; 2017; Raynor et al., 2010; 2014; Trotter, 1996; 2010; 2013; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015). Domain 7 (Practice Skills) of the YJEI could then be used to assess the practitioners' implementation of evidence-based supervision skills. Further analysis could then be undertaken to examine the correlation between supervision skills and recidivism data as with the Jersey Study, STARR, and STICS evaluations (see Bonta et al., 2011; Robinson et al., 2012; Raynor et al., 2014). This would further help to bridge the practice integrity gap.

7.5. Concluding Thoughts

There is now a growing evidence-base for effective supervision practices in youth justice (Bonta and Andrews, 2017; Dowden and Andrews, 1999a; 1999b; Lipsey, 2009; 2014; Lipsey et al., 2010; Trotter, 1996; 2009; 2013a; 2013b; 2017; Trotter and Evans, 2012; Trotter et al., 2015; Adler, 2016; Brogan et al., 2015; Farrell et al., 2011; Rudes et al., 2017). However, in comparison to adult probation, research examining the implementation EBPs in youth justice still remains premature (Farrell et al., 2011; Brogan et al., 2015; Mason and Prior, 2008; Ipsos MORI, 2010; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). Particularly within the context of England and Wales, there has been limited insight into the precise process by which practitioners understand and implement the theory of effective practice into their front-line work (Mason and Prior, 2008; Ipsos MORI, 2010; HMI Probation, 2016; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2017; 2018). Until now, it has been difficult to ascertain whether practitioners are aware of the principles of effective practice and whether they interpret and apply these principles both consistently and effectively into front-line service delivery. Essentially, supervision practices within Wales have remained largely unexplored (Bonta et al., 2008; Mason and Prior, 2008; Adler et al., 2016; Ipsos MORI, 2010). Previous studies have identified that practitioners have difficulties in implementing the theory of 'what works' into front-line practice, which has created a practice integrity gap (Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Bonta et al., 2008; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; Helmond et al., 2014a; Luong and Wormith, 2011; Singh et al., 2014; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Brogan et al., 2015; Ugwudike and

Morgan, 2017; 2018). However, issues surrounding implementation have been significantly overlooked within youth justice practices in Wales (and the UK). A key finding from this study revealed that a practice integrity gap exists within Wales. This study has also identified the barriers that impede the effective implementation of EBPs. This thesis has moved on from merely identifying 'what works' to understanding 'how things work' and 'why they work'. Evaluating practices and gaining a deeper understanding of the various factors that can undermine practice integrity can help to address these issues and develop practical solutions to bridge the practice integrity gap. The development of the YJEl can be seen as a means to help bridge the practice integrity gap, as it represents a means of knowledge transfer (see Andrews and Bonta, 2010a; Smith, 2013; Taxman and Belenko, 2011; Ugwudike and Morgan, 2018). Participating in YJEl evaluations can help services and practitioners to identify key areas of practice that require improvement and determine how this can be achieved in practice (how to bridge the practice integrity). However, bridging the practice integrity gap requires YOSs to be adequately resourced; this is an issue that needs to be addressed through central youth justice policymaking.

In summary, this study has further developed our knowledge about how and if practitioners understand and implement EBPs into their-front line work. Further research into the issues surrounding practice integrity is required in order to deepen our understanding of factors that impede the implementation of EBPs. Responsive evaluations, as developed in this study, will allow us to identify practical solutions further to improve practice. Bridging the practice integrity gap is integral to producing positive outcomes for practitioners, young people and the wider community.

Appendices

Appendix 1. The Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEI)



YOUTH JUSTICE EVALUATION INVENTORY

Southampton and Swansea Evaluation Team



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INTRODUCTION

Researchers based in the University of Southampton and Swansea University have designed the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEl) for use by those who wish to evaluate live interviews, interventions or other interactions involving practitioners and young people in a youth justice or youth work setting. For example, practitioners may use the inventory to evaluate their practice, and services may use the checklist to identify and document good practice.

YJEl evaluations focus on identifying the strengths, rather than the limitations, of frontline practice. A key objective of the YJEl is to promote evidence-based approaches to working with young people. Therefore, the YJEl incorporates items that are based on the international research literature on effective modes of service delivery (see for example, Andrews and Bonta 2010; Dowden and Andrews 2004; Latessa et al. 2002; Raynor et al. 2014; Trotter et al. 2015; Ugwudike et al. 2014).

The inventory assesses the extent to which dimensions of the effective practice literature are present in real-life practice and it is a tool that practitioners and managers can use to evaluate and enhance the quality of practice. It has been designed with feedback from frontline youth justice practitioners and children involved in the youth justice system. This makes the tool user-friendly, although as already noted, most of its sections derive the international evidence on effective youth justice practice.

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- 10. Professional Development Opportunities
- 11. Practice Evaluation Strategies

PART C: FRONTLINE PRACTICE

- 12. Assessment Practice and Interventions
- 13. The Child/Young Person's Voice
- 14. Practice Skills

SERVICE CHARACTERISTICS

*****THE ASSESSOR SHOULD COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING *****

- Name of the Service/Agency
- Location (e.g. community-based or custodial)
- Funders
- Service (e.g. YOT, Custodial Establishment or project)
- Mode of referral (e.g. court/other)

Staff Characteristics (Over the past two years)	
Gender Distribution	
Number of Males	_____
Number of Females	_____
Average Years in Service	
Number of Staff in Team	
Two Year Staff Turnover	
Number	_____
Percentage	_____

Young Person's Characteristics (Over the past two years)		
Gender Distribution		
	Number of Males	_____
	Number of Females	_____
Age Range		
	From	_____
	To	_____
Average Distribution of Cases i.e. prevention, out of court disposals and statutory orders		
	Statutory: Number	_____
	%	_____
	Non-Statutory: Number	_____
	%	_____
Typical Order/ i.e. referral order etc.		
Average Length of Order/Sentence		
	Months	_____
	Years	_____
Typical Number of young people supervised by the service		

Offending Profile i.e. Typical offence type		

Risk Profile i.e. Typical risk of reoffending profile		

SCORING PROTOCOL

Individual items in the inventory (e.g. whether there is a mission statement or whether practitioners are aware of children's rights) are scored as (1) (if present), as (0) (if absent) or as (N/A) if the item (or practice) is not applicable. A verification score (VS) indicates the observer's degree of certainty that a practice is either present or absent.

A score of (0) simply represents a judgment that a particular practice was absent. This does not necessarily mean it should have been present: it might be inapplicable in the context of the particular interview, intervention or interaction being evaluated. On the other hand, an item might be scored as (0) because the practice was absent. Because the *absence* of a particular practice, method or skill is not always easy to interpret, the focus of this inventory is positive, aiming to record those practices, methods or skills which are *present*.

To obtain an overall YJEl score, items scored as (1) are added up and expressed as a percentage of the total *applicable* items. This means that items that are scored as 'not applicable' to the service being evaluated are not included in the scoring.

Rating scale

Services are rated according to the following categories:

- Excellent** adherence to research evidence & numerous examples of good practice (70% to 100%)
- Good** adherence to research evidence with no areas for major improvement (60% to 69%)
- Developing** good adherence to research evidence & examples of good practice exceed areas for improvement (50% to 59%)
- Unsatisfactory** adherence to research evidence and areas for improvement exceed examples of good practice (below 50%)

Verification Score

The YJEl also incorporates a Verification Score (VS) facility which is a useful tool for enhancing the reliability of scores. It is based on a five-point scale that indicates the assessor's level of confidence in the score applied to each item. A VS of 1 indicates no confidence whilst VS of 5 indicates very confident. A VS of 5 will normally be given where the assessor observes the aspect of practice that is being assessed by an item. Examples include staff skills, or risk assessment practice. An overall mean VS of less than 3 indicates that the evaluation is incomplete and should be repeated.

PART A: PRACTICE CULTURE

This part of the YJEl comprises the following sections which assess the culture of a youth justice service:

- 1. Practice ethos
- 2. Practice principles

Part A assesses whether a service or team subscribes to practices that are consistent with the articles of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC). The section also evaluates additional dimensions of effective, evidence-based, practice culture.

1. PRACTICE ETHOS

1.1 STAFF ARE AWARE OF THE SERVICE'S GOALS

0 1 N/A VS

Please describe the primary goal/s of this service (this question also helps the assessor generate information about the service's primary aims and key practices)

1.2 STAFF ARE AWARE OF CHILDREN (AND YOUNG PEOPLE'S) RIGHTS

0 1 N/A VS

Are you aware of children and young people's rights? (If yes) please cite three key examples.

1.3 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE ARE INFORMED OF THEIR RIGHTS

0 1 N/A VS

Are children and young people made aware of their rights? (If yes) please describe when and how this is done.

1.4 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE’S RIGHTS ARE DEEMED IMPORTANT

0 1 N/A VS

Are children and young people’s rights important? Please provide reasons for your answer and examples of how you have promoted children and young people’s rights

1.5 PARTICIPATION IS FACILITATED

0 1 N/A VS

Do children and young people have a say in decisions that affect them? (If yes) please describe how this is achieved.

Total Score (Out of 5)	Percentage Score (%)	Verification Score (VS)

2. PRACTICE PRINCIPLES

2.1 SERVICE HAS A WELL-DESIGNED PARTNERSHIP APPROACH IN PLACE

0 1 N/A VS

Do you work with other agencies that can provide services to children and young people? (If yes) please provide key examples of the agencies and services, as well as procedures for effective data/information transfer.

2.2. SERVICE USES APPROPRIATE PRE-COURT DIVERSION CRITERIA

0 1 N/A VS

Do you select children and young people for pre-court diversion? (If yes), please describe the criteria you use for this purpose and who is involved in the decision.

2.3 SERVICE PROMOTES DIVERSION FROM CUSTODY

0 1 N/A VS

Do you recommend non-custodial options in court reports? (If yes), please provide examples of cases where this has occurred, and the alternatives considered.

2.4 SERVICE IS COMMITTED TO THE BELIEF THAT CUSTODY SHOULD BE USED AS A LAST RESORT

0 1 N/A VS

Are you committed to the belief that custody should only be used as a last resort? (If yes) please describe what you do to ensure that this is the case and give examples of other agencies that support this response.

2.5 SERVICE IS COMMITTED TO REDUCING OFFENDING

0 1 N/A VS

Are you committed to the objective of reducing youth offending? (If yes) please describe some of the measures taken to reduce reoffending (this item enables the assessor to generate information about the skills and practices staff employ).

2.6 SERVICE EMPLOYS RESTORATIVE APPROACHES

0 1 N/A VS

Are children and young people given the opportunity to engage in restorative activities? (If yes) please describe how this is achieved.

2.7 SERVICE PROVIDES RESETTLEMENT SUPPORT

0 1 N/A VS

Are any arrangements made to help children and young people who leave youth justice services access relevant support and services? (If yes) please describe when the arrangements are made and what they might look like.

2.8 SERVICE FACILITATES PARTICIPATION IN RESETTLEMENT PLANNING

0 1 N/A VS

Do children and young people play any role in planning their resettlement interventions? (If yes) please describe when and how this is achieved.

2.9 SERVICE HAS AN EFFECTIVE RESPONSE TO CHANGE

0 1 N/A VS

Have there been recent changes in this service? (If yes) please describe what they are and how the changes have affected the team.

2.10 EVIDENCE OF COLLABORATIVE CULTURE: STAFF COHESION

0 1 N/A VS

Do Staff relate well (get on well) with each other? Please provide reasons for your answer.

2.11 EVIDENCE OF COLLABORATIVE CULTURE: EFFECTIVE CONFLICT RESOLUTION

How are issues between staff resolved? 0 1 N/A VS

2.12 EVIDENCE OF COLLABORATIVE CULTURE: STAFF/MANAGEMENT COHESION.

0 1 N/A VS

Do staff and management relate well (get on well) with each other? *Please provide reasons for your response.*

2.13 EVIDENCE OF COLLABORATIVE CULTURE: CONFIDENCE IN LEADERSHIP/ MANAGEMENT.

0 1 N/A VS

Do you have confidence in your manager/s? *Please provide reasons for your response*

2.14 EVIDENCE OF COLLABORATIVE CULTURE: CONFIDENCE IN STAFF

0 1 N/A VS

Do you have confidence in your staff team? *Please provide reasons for your response.*

2.15 EFFECTIVE RESPONSE TO ISSUES THAT AFFECT SERVICE DELIVERY

0 1 N/A VS

Does the service respond promptly to issues/problems that affect the quality of service delivery? Please provide reasons for your response.

2.16 EVIDENCE OF INNOVATION

0 1 N/A VS

Are you encouraged to be creative in your work? (If yes) please provide examples.

2.17 EVIDENCE OF STAFF SATISFACTION

0 1 N/A VS

Have staffing levels remained the same in the past two years? (If not) please describe key changes in the past two years that could have contributed to staff turnover.

2.17 OVERALL STAFF ASSESSMENT

0 1 N/A VS

How successful has the service been in achieving its aims/goals? Please provide reasons for your response.

2.17 OVERALL STAFF ASSESSMENT

0 1 N/A VS

What works well in this service?

2.17 OVERALL STAFF ASSESSMENT

0 1 N/A VS

What doesn't work so well in this service?

2.17 OVERALL STAFF ASSESSMENT

0 1 N/A VS

What, if anything would you like to change?

Total Score (Out of 17)	Percentage Score (%)	Verification Score (VS)

PART B: QUALITY ASSURANCE STRATEGIES

Quality assurance mechanisms are useful for maintaining good quality standards of practice and adapting services to the needs of children and young people. This

assesses the facilities in place for enhancing the quality of service delivery. The key elements of quality assurance assessed are:

- 3: Professional Development Opportunities
- 4: Practice Evaluation Strategies

3. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES

3.1 SERVICE IS COMMITTED TO STAFF DEVELOPMENT

0 1 N/A VS

Is there service-level commitment to staff development? (If yes) please describe the arrangements in place.

3.2 STAFF TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES ARE AVAILABLE

0 1 N/A VS

Are staff training opportunities available? (If yes) please provide a description.

3.3 STAFF RECEIVE TRAINING ON INITIAL ASSESSMENT SKILLS

0 1 N/A VS

Have you received any training on how to conduct initial assessments? (If yes) please describe the training. How often is the training delivered? As a one-off or periodically to refresh staff skills?

3.4. STAFF RECEIVE TRAINING ON FOLLOW-UP ASSESSMENT SKILLS

0 1 N/A VS

Have you received any training on how to conduct follow-up assessments? (If yes) please describe the training. How often is the training delivered – as a one-off or periodically to refresh staff skills?

3.5 STAFF RECEIVE TRAINING ON HOW TO ADAPT INTERVENTIONS

0 1 N/A VS

Have you received any training on how to transform assessment outcomes into intervention plans? (If yes) please describe the training. How often is the training delivered – as a one-off or periodically to refresh staff skills?

3.6 THERE IS REGULAR CLINICAL/CASE MANAGEMENT SUPERVISION

0 1 N/A VS

Do staff undergo regular clinical/case management supervision? (If yes) how is this provided and how often? Who provides it?

3.7 STAFF RECEIVE ADEQUATE SUPPORT

0 1 N/A VS

Are staff's pastoral/emotional needs discussed during supervision? (If yes) what steps are taken to address identified needs?

3.8 STAFF SELF-EFFICACY IS PROMOTED

0 1 N/A VS

Are staff rewarded when they make good progress? (If yes) how is progress monitored and in what way is success rewarded?

******The next six items should be directed at the manager******

3.9 MANAGEMENT QUALIFICATIONS ARE APPROPRIATE

0 1 N/A VS

Could you please outline your professional qualifications?

3.10 MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCE IS APPROPRIATE

0 1 N/A VS

Could you please outline your experience in working with young people involved the justice system?

3.11 MANAGER IS INVOLVED IN CASE MANAGEMENT SUPERVISION

0 1 N/A VS

Do you supervise staff who deliver services (such as supervision, programmes, and other interventions) to young people? Please describe how you supervise them.

3.12 STAFF QUALIFICATIONS ARE APPROPRIATE

0 1 N/A VS

Could you please outline the minimum professional qualifications frontline staff should have?

3.13 STAFF EXPERIENCE IS APPROPRIATE

0 1 N/A VS

Could you please outline the level of experience staff should have?

3.14 STAFF SELECTION IS BASED ON SPECIFIC SKILLS

0 1 N/A VS

Are staff members selected on the basis that they possess specific skills? (If yes) please describe the skills considered relevant.

Total Score (Out of 14)	Percentage Score (%)	Verification Score (VS)

4. PRACTICE EVALUATION STRATEGIES

4.1 INTERNAL AUDITS ARE CONDUCTED

0 1 N/A VS

Are internal audits of practice conducted? Which aspects of practice are audited? How often are the audits conducted?

4.2 AUDIT OUTCOMES INFORM PRACTICE

0 1 N/A VS

Do the outcomes of internal audits inform practice? (If yes) please describe how this happens.

4.3 EXTERNAL EVALUATIONS ARE CONDUCTED

0 1 N/A VS

Do external evaluators assess the services you deliver to young people? (If yes) could you please provide examples of recent external evaluations and what they involved?

How often are external evaluations conducted?

4.4 EXTERNAL EVALUATIONS INFORM PRACTICE

0 1 N/A VS

Do the outcomes of external evaluations inform practice? (If yes) please describe how this happens

4.5 SERVICE GENERATES PROGRESS DATA

0 1 N/A VS

Does the service collect any data on the progress of young people whilst they are in the system? (If yes) what type of data and when is it collected and reviewed?

4.6 SERVICE ASSESSES CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE'S LEVEL OF SATISFACTION

0 1 N/A VS

Does the service generate feedback from children and young people to assess their level of satisfaction with the service they have received? (If yes) how and when do you generate this data?

4.7 FEEDBACK GENERATED FROM CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE INFORMS SERVICE DELIVERY

0 1 N/A VS

Do you adapt practices in line with service user feedback? (If yes) how is this done?

4.8 SERVICE GENERATES OUTCOME DATA

0 1 N/A VS

Do you collect any data on outcomes for children and young people after they complete their contact with the service? (If yes) what type of data and at what stage do you collect it?

4.9 SERVICE REVIEWS RESEARCH EVIDENCE

0 1 N/A VS

Do you review the academic literature/evidence-base? (If yes) what type of literature (texts, journals etc.) is consulted? What do you do with the information generated?

Total Score (Out of 9)	Percentage Score	Verification Score (VS)

PART C: QUALITY ASSURANCE MECHANISMS



This part of the YJEl assesses key elements of frontline practice. It comprises the following:

- 5. Assessment practice and interventions
- 6. Practice skills
- 7. The voice of the child



5. ASSESSMENT PRACTICE AND INTERVENTIONS

5.1 SERVICE USES VALIDATED TOOL TO CONDUCT ASSESSMENT

0 1 N/A VS

Do you use an assessment tool to assess the factors that are associated with offending behaviour? (If yes) please describe the tool.

5.2 ASSESSING NEED: TRIGGERS OF OFFENDING BEHAVIOUR ARE ASSESSED

0 1 N/A VS

Do you collect information about the triggers of offending behaviour? (If yes) what are the key triggers you assess?

5.3 ASSESSING NEED: FAMILY CIRCUMSTANCES ARE ASSESSED

0 1 N/A VS

Do you collect information about the child or young person's relationship with his/her parents or carers? (If yes) how is this done? What is done with the information?

5.4 ASSESSING NEED: PARENTS/CARERS PARTICIPATE IN ASSESSMENT

0 1 N/A VS

Do parents/carers contribute to the assessment process? (If yes) please describe how they contribute.

5.5 ENABLING PARTICIPATION DURING ASSESSMENT: CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN ASSESSMENT

0 1 N/A VS

Do children and young people participate in the assessment process? (If yes) describe how they participate and how their participation informs decision-making.

5.6 ASSESSING STRENGTHS: POSITIVE FACTORS ARE ASSESSED

0 1 N/A VS

Do you collect information about the positive aspects of the child or young person's life? (If yes) how is this done?

5.7 ASSESSING STRENGTHS: PERSONAL GOALS ARE ASSESSED

0 1 N/A VS

Do you generate information about the child or young person’s goals for the future? (If yes) how is this done? What is done with the information?

5.8 ASSESSING STRENGTHS: STRENGTHS AND CAPABILITIES ARE ASSESSED

0 1 N/A VS

Do you collect information about the child or young person’s strengths? (If yes) how is this done? What is done with the information?

5.9 ASSESSING STRENGTHS: PROTECTIVE FACTORS ARE ASSESSED

0 1 N/A VS

Do you collect information about the factors that build the child or young person’s resilience? (If yes) how is this done and how is this information used?

5.10 ASSESSING INDIVIDUAL NEEDS: THE CHILD OR YOUNG PERSON’S ABILITY TO ENGAGE IS ASSESSED

0 1 N/A VS

Do you assess the child or young person to identify factors that might affect their ability to engage with interventions? (If yes) how is this done? What is done with the information?

5.11 ASSESSING LEVELS OF MOTIVATION: THE CHILD OR YOUNG PERSON'S MOTIVATION TO ENGAGE IS ASSESSED

0 1 N/A VS

Do you assess the child or young person's motivation to engage with the intervention? (If yes) how is this done? What is done with the information?

5.12 ASSESSMENTS INFORM STAFF ALLOCATION

0 1 N/A VS

How are cases generally allocated? Are children and young people allocated to staff who have the skills required for responding to their individual needs?

5.13 ASSESSMENT OUTCOMES INFORM CASE/INTERVENTION PLANNING

0 1 N/A VS

What do you do with the information that is generated during the assessment process?

5.14 REASSESSMENTS ARE CONDUCTED

0 1 N/A VS

Are assessments reviewed and updated as the order progresses? (If yes) how frequently and for what purpose? Please name the instrument you use for reassessments.

5.15 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN REASSESSMENT PROCESS

0 1 N/A VS

The child or young person participates in the re-assessment process: Do children and young people participate in the reassessment process? If yes, please describe their role in the process.

5.16 INTERVENTION PLANS ARE AMENDED AFTER REASSESSMENTS

0 1 N/A VS

If young people's needs are reassessed, are intervention plans amended to incorporate the outcomes of reassessments?

Total Score (Out of 16)	Percentage Score (%)	Verification Score (VS)

6. THE VOICE OF THE CHILD

*****ALL THE QUESTIONS IN THIS SECTION SHOULD BE DIRECTED TO THE CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE (NOT STAFF OR MANAGEMENT)*****

*****THE ASSESSOR SHOULD ASK ICE-BREAKER QUESTIONS BEFORE THE INTERVIEW STARTS, TO PUT THE CHILD AT EASE (SEE MANUAL)*****

THE INTERVIEW

6.1. CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE ARE AWARE OF THEIR RIGHTS

0 1 N/A VS

Do you know children have specific rights/Do you know of any rights you might have? (If yes) please name three of the rights. Where did you find out about your rights?

6.2 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE ARE NOT EXPOSED TO DISCRIMINATION

0 1 N/A VS

Does anyone here treat you differently from other children/people? If yes, please give me an example of when you were treated differently.

6.3 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE ARE NOT EXPOSED TO DISCRIMINATION

0 1 N/A VS

Has anyone here said anything that made you feel different from other children/people? If yes, please give me an example of what was said.

6.4 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE ARE NOT EXPOSED TO DISCRIMINATION

0 1 N/A VS

Has anyone here said you cannot have something that was given to other children? If yes, please give me an example of what they said you could not have.

6.5 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

Have you attended any meetings? If yes, please give me some examples.

6.6 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

Did anyone tell you what would happen at the meeting?

6.7 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

Did you have to fill out a form before the meeting? If yes, how easy was it for you to understand what was in the form?

6.8 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

What did you do at the meeting?

6.9 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

How easy was it for you to understand what was going on in the meeting?

6.10 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

At the meeting, did anyone ask you what you want to happen? If yes, please give me examples of what you were asked. When the people at the meeting made decisions did they listen to what you said?

6.11 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

Did anyone give you any support to help you give your views during the meeting?

6.12 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

Was it clear in the meeting what decision had been made?

6.13 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

Did anyone tell you what would happen next about the decision that was made?

6.14 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

What was the best thing about the meeting?

6.15 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

What was the worst thing about the meeting?

6.16 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

What should be changed to make meetings better for children?

6.17 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE PARTICIPATE IN DECISION MAKING

0 1 N/A VS

Do you feel you have a say in what goes on here? If yes, please give me an example of how you have a say.

6.18 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE ACCESS RELEVANT SERVICES

0 1 N/A VS

If you need help with things to stay out of trouble, has your worker introduced you to people who can help you? Can you remember the names of the people the worker introduced you to? What kind of help did you get from those people?

6.19 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE HAVE A SAY IN SERVICE SELECTION

0 1 N/A VS

Did you have a say in deciding where to go to get the help you need? Please provide the reasons for your answer.

6.20 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE IDENTIFY THEIR GOALS

0 1 N/A VS

Have you been asked what you want to do in the future? (If yes) when were you asked? Can you explain how they used the information to support you?

6.21 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE IDENTIFY POSITIVE FACTORS THAT AID CHANGE

0 1 N/A

VS

Have you been asked to talk about things you are good at? Did your key worker talk to you about how you can use the things you are good at - in a good way? (If yes) when were you asked? What has been done to help you use those things in a good way?

6.22 CHILDREN IDENTIFY PROTECTIVE FACTORS

0 1 N/A VS

Have you been asked to describe the things that make you avoid any behaviour that might get you into trouble? (If yes) when were you asked? What has been done with the information?

6.23 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE HAVE A GOOD RELATIONSHIP WITH THEIR WORKER

0 1 N/A VS

Do you get on well with your worker? Please tell me why you feel this way.

6.24 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE SHARE GOOD RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE WORKERS

0 1 N/A VS

Have you ever asked to have a different worker? What happened?

6.25 REINTEGRATION AND RESETTLEMENT SUPPORT IS IN PLACE

0 1 N/A VS

Do you know if any plans have been made to help you when you don't have to see your worker/case manager anymore (or 'be here' if in secure accommodation)? If yes can you please tell me what these plans are.

6.26 OVERALL ASSESSMENT: CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE EVALUATE THEIR EXPERIENCES POSITIVELY

0 1 N/A VS

Please tell me what your worker/s can do to make things work well for you.

6.27 SATISFACTION LEVELS ARE ASSESSED

0 1 N/A VS

Have you been asked if you are satisfied with how things are done here? (If yes) how did they ask you (e.g. did you fill out a form? Verbally? Etc.) Did anything change when you gave them this information? (If yes) what changed.

--

Total Score (Out of 27)	Percentage Score	Verification Score (VS)



7. PRACTICE SKILLS

This section of the Youth Justice Evaluation inventory is a validated checklist that has been used internationally in several jurisdictions including Spain, Romania and France, and research shows that people supervised by practitioners who score highly on this checklist achieve reductions in their rate of reoffending and level of assessed risk (see, Raynor et al. 2014; Ugwudike et al. 2014).

The checklist identifies a number of different things which might happen in an interview, or which the practitioner might do. Not all of them will be appropriate in a particular interview, and there is no assumption that an interview which does not contain them all is necessarily a bad interview. The aim is to develop an overall picture of the range of practices, methods and skills used by practitioners in a range of interviews. The skills listed in the checklist are drawn from a wide range of research on skills and methods used in the supervision of offenders. It has been designed to ensure that it is user-friendly but based on the research evidence of effective practice skills

RELATIONSHIP/COMMUNICATION SKILLS

SET-UP OF INTERACTION

7.1 Privacy assured to encourage the child or young person to be honest and open about themselves

0 1 N/A VS

7.2 Confidentiality – assured

0 1 N/A VS

7.3 Seating – appropriate proximity – the child or young person is not crowded or uneasy 0 1
N/A VS

7.4 No distractions (or minimal distraction and the practitioner apologises for the distraction)
 0 1 N/A VS

QUALITY OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

7.5 Practitioner is facing the child 0 1
N/A VS

7.6 Practitioner has an open posture / arms legs uncrossed 0
1 N/A VS

8.7 Practitioner is attentive to child or young person 0 1
N/A VS

7.7 Adequate eye contact (both parties)

0 1

N/A VS

7.9 Appears relaxed (both parties)

0 1

N/A VS

QUALITY OF VERBAL COMMUNICATION

7.10 Practitioner uses mostly Open Questions

0 1

N/A VS

7.11 Practitioner does not use leading questions

0 1

N/A VS

7.12 Practitioner shows understanding

0 1

N/A VS

7.13 Practitioner displays warmth (not stiff / cold / formal)

0

1 N/A VS

7.14 There is enthusiastic dialogue between the practitioner and the child or young person

0 1 N/A VS

7.15 Practitioner is polite / respectful (e.g. not sarcastic, rude, dismissive)

0 1 N/A VS

7.16 Practitioner promotes flexible dialogue (e.g. does not dominate or interrupt)

0 1 N/A VS

7.17 Practitioner uses humour to engage

0 1 N/A

VS

7.18 Practitioner is optimistic about possibility of change 0 1 N/A

VS

7.19 There appears to be mutual liking

0 1 N/A

VS

EFFECTIVE USE OF AUTHORITY

7.20 Practitioner does not argue / 'changes track' with reflective question 0 1 N/A VS

1 N/A VS

7.21 Practitioner encourages collaboration during decision making 0 1 N/A VS

1 N/A VS

7.22 Practitioner's positive comments outweigh negative (ratio should be 4:1 respectively)

0 1 N/A
 VS

7.23 Practitioner is firm but fair 0 1 N/A VS

7.24 Practitioner clarifies role and responsibilities 0 1 N/A VS

N/A VS

MOTIVATIONAL INTERVIEWING

7.25 Practitioner paraphrases, nods, maintains eye contact 0

1 N/A VS

7.26 Practitioner make's empathic comment/s 0 1

N/A VS

7.27 Practitioner avoids argument / rolls with resistance 0 1

N/A VS

7.28 Practitioner uses reflections / develops discrepancies 0 1

N/A VS

7.29 Practitioner uses reflections to counter resistance or improve understanding

0 1 N/A
 VS

7.30 Practitioner promotes self-efficacy 0 1

N/A VS

7.31 Practitioner adapts approach to the child or young person's location on cycle of change

0 1 N/A
 VS

7.32 Practitioner elicits self-motivating comments

0 1

N/A VS

7.33 The child or young person becomes less resistant as interview/discussion progresses

0 1 N/A VS

ENCOURAGING PRO-SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

7.34 Several examples of modelling (by the practitioner)

0 1
N/A VS

7.35 Several examples of praise (from the practitioner)

0

1 N/A VS

7.36 Praise refers to specific behaviour or thinking

0

1 N/A VS

14.37 Practitioner challenges offending behaviour or thinking in a positive way (e.g. emphasizes strengths) not confrontational or over critical

0 1 N/A VS

7.38 Child or young person is encouraged to practice more prosocial behaviour / thinking

0 1 N/A VS

ENCOURAGING PRO-SOCIAL THINKING

7.39 Practitioner encourages children and young people to identify anti-social thinking in relation to a specific problem

0 1 N/A VS

7.40 Practitioner works with children and young people to identify alternatives to anti-social thinking

0 1 N/A VS

7.41 Practitioner models alternative thinking

0 1

N/A VS

7.42 Practitioner encourages children and young people to practice alternative thinking

0 1 N/A

VS

7.43 Children and young people are given opportunities to practice alternative thinking

0 1 N/A

VS

PROBLEM SOLVING

7.44 Practitioner identifies evident need/s.

0 1 N/A VS

7.45 Focus is on the child or young person's assessment of what should be done to address mutually identified needs.

0 1 N/A VS

7.46 Plans / goals / actions / options discussed, evaluated and agreed are all based on the child or young person's assessment of what should be done to attain mutually agreed goals and aspirations.

0 1 N/A VS

7.47 Problem Solving is Solution focused

0 1 N/A

VS

7.48 Practitioner is optimistic about possibility of change 0 1 N/A

VS

7.49 Practitioner acts as advocate / makes referral where appropriate

0 1 N/A VS

7.50 Practitioner provides details of referral agency where an appropriate referral has been made

0 1 N/A VS

7.51 Practitioner and the child or young person discuss the benefit of a referral to a service where an appropriate referral (for example to a substance misuse service) has been made.

0 1 N/A VS

Total Score (Out of 51)	Percentage Score (%)	Verification Score (VS)



OVERALL RESULTS

Overall Score (Out of 143)	Percentage Score	Verification Score (VS)	
Excellent (%)	Good (%)	Adequate (%)	Unsatisfactory (%)

EVALUATION

*****THE QUESTIONS BELOW SHOULD BE DIRECTED AT ALL THE PARTICIPANTS (APART FROM THE CHILDREN)*****

Why did you decide to get involved in this evaluation?

Did you find the questions relevant to your practice? Please provide reasons for your answer.

What should be changed to make the questionnaire relevant to your practice?

What should be changed to improve the questionnaire?

What is your overall assessment of the questions you were asked?

Appendix 2. CPAI-2010 Feedback Interview Schedule

Evaluation Responsivity

1. What are your thoughts on using an instrument such as the CPAI-2010 to evaluate practice?
2. What did you think about the questions the CPAI-2010 asks?
 - a. Did you find the questions relevant to your practice?
3. How did you find the observations?
4. How did you find the CPAI-2010 evaluation process?
 - a. Were there any issues or concerns that you had during the evaluation?
 - i. If yes, what were they?
 - b. How did you feel during the evaluation?
 - c. What did you think about the verbal feedback that was given?
 - d. What did you think about the CPAI-2010 scoring system?
 - e. Do you think any aspects of the CPAI-2010 evaluation could be improved?
 - i. If yes, how?

Appendix 3. Swansea University Ethical Approval Form

Application for Standard Ethical Approval

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FORM USING TYPESCRIPT

(hand-written applications will not be considered)

Principal Investigator	Gemma Morgan
Date	30/05/2014
School/Department	Criminology
E-mail address	[REDACTED]
Title of Proposed Research	A Multi-Dimensional Evaluation of Youth Justice Practices and Outcomes
Type of Researcher (please tick)	Undergraduate student Postgraduate student <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Member of staff Other, please state:
Name of supervisor	

1. Briefly describe the main aims of the research you wish to undertake, including a statement of the intended benefits of the research. Please use non-technical language wherever possible.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the services delivered by youth offending teams (YOTs) across Wales in two dimensions: programme integrity and programme outcomes. This research will initially pilot the Correctional Program Assessment Inventory - 2010 (CPAI-2010)⁹; an evidence-based assessment tool to evaluate the quality of service delivery. As Canadian based academics developed the CPAI-2010, the instrument may need to be adapted to suit practice contexts in Wales. Therefore, as part of the Swansea Service Evaluation Team's (SSET) wider research agenda, the proposed study will pilot the CPAI-2010 in several YOTs across Wales, with the overall objective of developing a new instrument that will be more suitable for practice settings within Wales; the Swansea Service Evaluation Instrument (SSEI). Nevertheless, both the CPAI-2010 and SSEI will be used to assess programme integrity, which is; the degree to which a programme adheres to principles of effective practice¹⁰. In terms of programme outcomes, the effectiveness of programmes will be measured through a quantitative analysis of recidivism rates and levels of assessed risk of the young offenders. The study will give the participating YOTs the opportunity to explore practices that have been shown to produce positive results such as reduced reoffending. There will also be opportunities for the services to identify areas of practice that may be improved to produce positive results.

In summary the main aims of the research are to:

1. Develop a new evidence-based assessment tool (SSEI) for criminal justice agencies that is suitable for service settings in Wales and England.
2. Evaluate the services delivered by youth offending teams across Wales by assessing two dimensions: programme integrity and programme outcomes.
3. Identify strengths, limitations and key areas for improvement in the services delivered by YOTs across Wales.

⁹ Gendreau, P., Andrews, D. A. & Thériault, Y. (2010). *Correctional Program Assessment Inventory – 2010 CPAI-2010*. Ottawa.

¹⁰ Andrews, D. A. & Bonta, J. (2010). *The Psychology of Criminal Conduct, 5th edition*. New Providence, NJ: Anderson.

1. Briefly describe the overall design of the project

Cross-sectional

1. Location of the proposed research (i.e., Departmental labs, schools, etc.)

YOTs across Wales.

1. Describe the participants: give the age range, gender, inclusion and exclusion criteria, and any particular characteristics pertinent to the research project.

The research will involve a range of different people. Predominantly participants will be youth offending service (YOS) practitioners; some participants will also be young people who offend. Participants will therefore be aged 10 years old over and will include both females and males.

1. How will the participants be selected and recruited?

Purposive sampling. The CPAI-2010 and SSEI should only be used to evaluate practice with offenders who are assessed as medium/high risk. Therefore, the research will primarily involve young people who have received a Statutory Order and thus, practitioners who work with young people receiving such orders.

1. What procedures (e.g., interviews, computer-based learning tasks, etc.) will be carried out on the participants?

As part of the CPAI-2010 evaluation the researcher must:

- Conduct structured interviews with YOT practitioners and young people.
- Review documents including risk assessment tools, case records, programme manuals and policy and procedure manuals.
- Observe one-to-one and/or group work with the YOT practitioners and young people.
- Obtain a survey completed by staff members prior to the fieldwork.

Additionally, data related to recidivism rates will be collected (i.e. any further convictions for new offences committed by intervention programme participants during the follow-up period of 2 years) will be collected and correlated against programme evaluation scores.

Also, focus groups will be conducted with the participating YOT practitioners to gain their feedback of the evaluation process and the CPAI-2010, which will be used to develop the SSEI.

1. What potential risks to the participants do you foresee and how do you propose to ameliorate/deal with potential risks? For instance, provide contact details of counselling services and/or relevant community support organisations etc.

One potential risk of this research is in relation to gaining informed consent from the young people. This research will adapt a triple lock approach where consent will be firstly be sought from the young person's parent/guardian by sending them an opt-out form which can be administered by the YOS. The form will consist of an information sheet that will provide clear details about the research, which will have a tear off portion that the parents can sign to opt their children in or out of the study. This will protect the children and also provide reassurance to the parents/guardians that the child's welfare is paramount, if they young people are not in the care of their parent or legal guardian loco parentis will be sought from the relevant agency. Additionally, informed consent will be sought from the YOS as they have a duty of care to the young people. Irrespective of whether parental or YOS consent is granted the young people will have the choice to opt of the research without penalty, gaining consent from the young people will be based on the Gillick Principle¹¹. The information about the study will be presented to the young people in a child friendly manner and will be as clear as possible, if there is any doubt about the young person's competency before or during the interview, they will not be asked to participate, or the interview will be terminated immediately. Additionally, prior to starting the interview the young person will again be taken through the informed consent process. This will involve going through the firmed consent form with them and giving them the opportunity to opt out of the study if they wish. The objective will be to empower them so that even after their parent/guardian has given their consent, the young person still has the power to opt out; aall research conducted with the young people will be compliant with the UNCRC¹².

Also, t there must be consideration how the interviews and observations may affect the practitioners and in particular the young people. As the CPAI-2010 does not ask any personal or sensitive questions, it is unlikely participants will be caused any distress. However, if the young people become distressed or report any information indicative or risk to self or others, the interview will be terminated. The researcher will act in accordance the *All Wales Child Protection Procedures*, as stated 'if any person has knowledge, concerns or suspicions that a child is suffering, has suffered or is likely to be at risk of harm, it is their responsibility to ensure that the concerns are referred to social services or the police, who have statutory duties and powers to make enquiries and intervene when necessary' (2008: 73). As YOTs have statutory duties the relevant person(s) within the YOT will be informed immediately (i.e. safeguarding officer and/or the case manager) and the relevant safeguarding policies with be followed. Additionally, the young person can then be referred or signposted to specialist counselling services related to emotional health or referred to the YOTs mental health nurse. Additionally, in order to make the young people feel more comfortable and minimise power imbalances, the researcher will explain the aims of the research and how it might benefit them, put them at ease by stating that their participation is voluntary and giving them the option to opt out at any stage, reassure them that opting out will have no repercussions, assure them of confidentiality and limits to confidentiality and employ the techniques suggested by Alderson and Morrow (2011)¹³ (see page 39-40) i.e. sitting at eye level, not too

close or too distant, in a quiet, comfortable, private place; look and sound interested etc.

Another potential risk for both adult and child participants is in regard to anonymity and confidentiality, however data collected will from the practitioners will not be individualised and no names or other demographic data will be recorded at all. The recidivism rates for all of the young people receiving a statutory order of a two-year period will also need to be collected, the researcher will ensure that there is no risk that any participant will be identifiable by their names or other features by using numerical pseudonyms that will be known only to myself and no one else. The information about these pseudonyms will be stored securely on an encrypted USB drive that will be password protected and stored in a locked filing cabinet. Other research related material will not be stored in that same filing cabinet to ensure that no links can be made between the pseudonyms and the study. As the study requires only cross-sectional data from the young people the only information required will be demographic data such as their age, gender and order - these will be used to form numerical pseudonyms in combinations that will be untraceable to any individual young person. Overall this research will benefit the young people, as it will enable YOS to identify areas of their practice that they need to improve in order to ensure that the young people receive the best possible service,

1. What potential risks to the interests of the researchers do you foresee and how will you ameliorate/deal with potential risks?

¹¹ Heath, S., Charles, V., Crow, G., & Wiles, R. (2007). Informed Consent, Gatekeepers and Go-Betweens: Negotiating Consent in Child and Youth Orientated Institutions. *British Educational Research Journal*, 33(3), 403-417.

¹² United Nations (1989). *United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child*. Geneva: United Nations

¹³ Alderson, P., & Morrow, V. (2011). *The Ethics of Research with Children and Young People: A Practical Handbook* (2nd Edn.). London: Sage.

There are no immediate risks to the researcher. The research will be conducted in YOS. Interviews conducted with the young people will also take place in a secure room in the YOS and the YOS staff will have the responsibility of managing any potential risk in regard to the young person. Additionally, a member of staff will always be made aware when and where interviews with the young people will take place and will be made readily available if any issues occur.

1. How will you brief and debrief participants? (Please attach copy of debrief information to be given to participants)

The briefing process will involve initial meetings with the YOS management and programme director. They will then be given an information sheet that will be sent to potential practitioner participants as well as a checklist of required documents prior to commencement of fieldwork. One the day the fieldwork is due to start, participants will also be briefed again verbally. An evaluation-debriefing meeting will be held with the YOS management participants who will be responsible for disseminating feedback relating to programme integrity to staff and offenders. Additionally, paper copies of the full evaluation report will then be given to the agency prior to the second phase of fieldwork – focus group with participants about their experience of evaluation.

1.	Yes (Please attach a copy of	✓
2. Will informed consent be sought from participants?	the consent form)	
	No	
If no, please explain below:		

1.	Yes (Please attach details of	✓
2. Will participants be informed of the proposed use of the data?	the information to be given to participants)	
	No	
If no, please explain below:		

1.If there are doubts about participants' abilities to give informed consent, what steps have you taken to ensure that they are willing to participate?

There may be doubts in relation to the young person's ability to give informed consent. However, the information about the study will be presented to the young people in a child friendly manner and will be as clear as possible. The young person's capability to give informed consent will be based on the Gillick Principle¹⁴, if there is any doubt about the young person's competency before or during the interview, they will not be asked to participate, or the interview will be terminated immediately.

1.If participants are under 18 years of age, please describe how you will seek informed consent. If the proposed research is to be conducted in a school, please describe how you will seek general consent from the relevant authorities and attach a copy of any written consent.

As discussed, a triple-lock approach will be adapted.

1.How will consent be recorded?

Informed consent will be sought from all participants and will be recorded by the means of an informed consent form signed by the participants.

1.Will participants be informed of the right to withdraw without penalty?	Yes	✓
	No	

If no, please detail the reasons for this:

1.How do you propose to ensure participants' confidentiality and anonymity?

Please state who will have access to the data and what measures will be adapted to maintain the confidentiality of research subjects and to comply with data protection requirements.

¹⁴ Heath, S., Charles, V., Crow, G., & Wiles, R. (2007). Informed Consent, Gatekeepers and Go-Betweens: Negotiating Consent in Child and Youth Orientated Institutions. *British Educational Research Journal*, 33(3), 403-417.

Individual practitioners and young people will not be identified at any point of the research; each participating YOT will be identified with a numerical pseudonym only made known to the researcher. All documentation relating to this research (including CPAI-2010 and SSEI scores and focus group data) will utilise this numerical pseudonym, thus maintaining confidentiality and anonymity. In terms of the recidivism rates collected, as mentioned the researcher will ensure that there is no risk that any young person will be identifiable by their names or any other features by also using numerical pseudonyms that will be known only to myself and no one else. The research will ensure that it fulfils the legal requirements of the Data Protection Act 1998¹⁵.

1. Please describe which of the following will be involved in your arrangements for storing data:

¹⁵ See <https://www.gov.uk/data-protection/the-data-protection-act>

Manual files (e.g. paper documents or X-rays)
Home or another personal computer
University computer
Private company or work-based computer
Laptop computer
Other (please define)

Please explain, for each of the above, the arrangements you will make for the security of the data (please note that any data stored on computer must have password protection as a minimum requirement):

Manual files (e.g. paper documents or X-rays) - Paper copies of the CPAI-2010 and SSEI evaluations will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the post-graduate research room 318 in the 3rd floor of Vivian Tower.

Home or other personal computer and University computer - Electronic data that is stored at home and in the university will be kept on an encrypted drive. Both paper-based and electronic data in line with Swansea University's guidelines for storing confidential data, and the Data Protection Act 1998.

1. Does your research require the written consent of a public or private body, e.g. school, local authority or company? If so, please attach letter of consent

Consent has been granted by the Youth Justice Board to undertake this research. To date 4 YOS have come forth and requested to be a part of this study on their own accord, however informed consent will be sought from the YOS manager and participating practitioners. Additionally, YOS Information Managers will be consulted prior to implementation of the research to ensure that they are aware of what is happening, and that any localized data protection and consent issues are resolved before data collection happens.

1.If your proposed research is with 'vulnerable' groups (e.g., children, people with a disability etc.), please attach a copy of your Criminal Records Bureau check (if UK) or equivalent non-UK clearance.

--

Appendix 4. Confirmation of Ethical Approval

On 4 Jun 2014, at 18:25, "[REDACTED]" > wrote:

Hello Gemma,

I am very glad, Sue Roberts has granted ethical approval for your study, and this completes the first stage of the ethical approval process. I will forward the form to Lowri to complete the final stage.

Best wishes
Pamela

Dr Pamela Ugwudike
Senior Lecturer in Criminology,
Centre for Criminal Justice and Criminology
College of Law, Swansea University, Singleton Park, Swansea, SA2 8PP

Available:

Ugwudike and Raynor (2013) What Works in Offender Compliance
(Palgrave Macmillan, September 2013)

<http://www.palgrave.com/products/title.aspx?pid=582142>

From: [REDACTED]
Sent: 04 June 2014 11:28
To: [REDACTED]
Subject: RE: ETHICAL APPROVAL

Hello Pamela

I've looked at the revised ethics form and also the documents forwarded in a previous e-mail. I would be happy to grant ethical clearance for this study.

Regards

Sue

From: [REDACTED]
Sent: Friday, May 30, 2014 2:28 PM
To: [REDACTED]
Subject: RE: ETHICAL APPROVAL

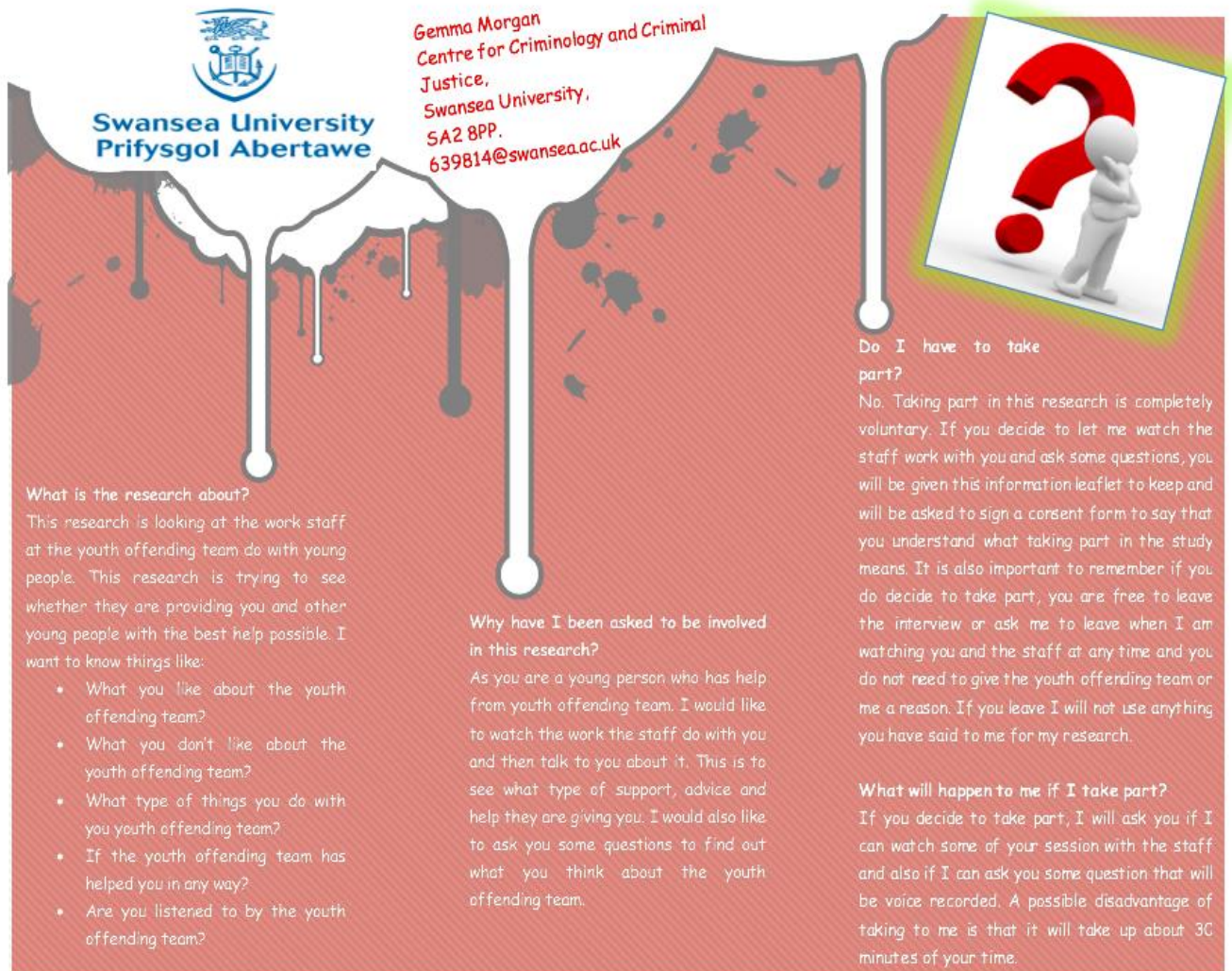
Hello Sue, I am sorry its me again. Gemma has revised her ethics form so I have attached the revised version to this email for your assessment. Please ignore the version I sent you yesterday. The informed consent form and access forms I sent you are the final versions.

Best wishes
Pamela

Dr Pamela Ugwudike
Senior Lecturer in Criminology,
Centre for Criminal Justice and Criminology
College of Law, Swansea University, Singleton Park, Swansea, SA2 8PP

Appendix 5. The Young Peoples' Information Sheet for the CPAI-2010 Evaluations

The information sheet folds into a leaflet.



Swansea University
Prifysgol Abertawe

Gemma Morgan
Centre for Criminology and Criminal
Justice,
Swansea University,
SA2 8PP.
639814@swansea.ac.uk

What is the research about?
This research is looking at the work staff at the youth offending team do with young people. This research is trying to see whether they are providing you and other young people with the best help possible. I want to know things like:

- What you like about the youth offending team?
- What you don't like about the youth offending team?
- What type of things you do with you youth offending team?
- If the youth offending team has helped you in any way?
- Are you listened to by the youth offending team?

Why have I been asked to be involved in this research?
As you are a young person who has help from youth offending team. I would like to watch the work the staff do with you and then talk to you about it. This is to see what type of support, advice and help they are giving you. I would also like to ask you some questions to find out what you think about the youth offending team.

Do I have to take part?
No. Taking part in this research is completely voluntary. If you decide to let me watch the staff work with you and ask some questions, you will be given this information leaflet to keep and will be asked to sign a consent form to say that you understand what taking part in the study means. It is also important to remember if you do decide to take part, you are free to leave the interview or ask me to leave when I am watching you and the staff at any time and you do not need to give the youth offending team or me a reason. If you leave I will not use anything you have said to me for my research.

What will happen to me if I take part?
If you decide to take part, I will ask you if I can watch some of your session with the staff and also if I can ask you some question that will be voice recorded. A possible disadvantage of taking to me is that it will take up about 30 minutes of your time.



Will what I say in the study be kept private?

Everything you say will be kept private between me and you - I will not share it with anyone else. What you say will also be kept anonymous - no one will be able to tell that you said certain things to me. I will do this by making sure your name or any recognisable characteristics will not be used during the research. This will be done by giving you a number that you will be identified by for example 23. Only I will know what your number is. However, if at any point during the interview you say that you might hurt someone, or someone might hurt you. For your safety, I must tell the person in the youth offending service who works with you I will talk to you before. I tell your case worker and it will be done respectfully.

What are the positives of taking part?

This study will give you the chance to talk openly and privately about the experiences you have had with the youth offending team. Your thoughts and feelings are very important to help me understand whether the youth offending team are giving you the best help and support possible. This could help make youth offending teams all over Wales better at working with young people.

What will happen to what I say?

What you say will be used in my studies to help me gain a PhD qualification and may be used in other things I write like articles. If you would like to see what I write I can email you a copy when I am finished.



Appendix 6. The Practitioners' Information Sheet for the CPAI-2010 Evaluations

Gemma Morgan
Swansea Service Evaluation Team
Centre for Criminology and Criminal Justice
Swansea University,
SA2 8PP
Email: [REDACTED]



A Multi-Dimensional Evaluation of Youth Justice Practices and Outcomes

You have been invited to take part in a research study which will form the basis of my PhD thesis. Before you decided whether or not to take part in this study, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

What is the purpose of the study?

This study seeks to pilot the Correctional Program Assessment Inventory-2010 (CAPE-2010). This is an evidence-based evaluation tool developed by Canadian academics, which assesses programme integrity; which is, the degree to which an intervention adheres to the principles of effective practice. Numerous research findings have shown that interventions that score highly on the CPAI have lower rates of recidivism. However, as the CPAI-2010 was developed by researchers based in Canada the instrument may need to be adapted to suit practice contexts in Wales. As part of Swansea Service Evaluation Team's (SSET) wider research agenda, the proposed study will pilot the CPAI-2010 in several YOTs across Wales, in order to assess its suitability for practice settings in Wales.

Why have I been invited to participate?

As you are YOS practitioner you have been invited to participate in order to pilot the CPAI-2010 in order to gain your views on the CPAI-2010 itself and the evaluation process. This information will then be used to determine the CPAI-2010's suitability for practice settings in Wales and how it can be developed.

Do I have to take part?

Taking part in this research is completely voluntary. If you decide to participate, you will be given this information sheet to keep and will be asked to sign a consent form. It is also important to remember if you do decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. If you withdraw, any data collected from yourself will not be used.

Gemma Morgan
Swansea Services Evaluation Team
Centre for Criminology and Criminal Justice
Swansea University
SA2 8PP

Email: [REDACTED]



Swansea University
Prifysgol Abertawe

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you decide to participate you will be asked to take part in a CPAI-2010 evaluation. Additionally, you will be asked to participate in an interview with myself. A possible disadvantage to participating in this research is that it would involve you taking an hour out of your working day to complete the interview.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The study will give the participating YOS the opportunity to explore practices that have been shown to reduced reoffending. There will also be opportunities for the services to identify areas of practice that may be improved to produce positive results.

Will what I say in this study be kept confidential?

All information collected from yourself will be kept strictly confidential. Privacy and anonymity will be ensured in the collection, storage and publication of research material. Anonymity will be ensured by using a number specific to yourself which you will be identified by.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of this research study will be used to evaluate the CPAI-2010, additionally they will be used in my PhD thesis and future publications. If you would like to see the results you may request a copy from myself.

Who has reviewed the study?

The research has been approved by the University Research Ethics Committee; Swansea University and by the Youth Justice Board. The research will also be supervised by Dr. Pamela Ugwudike, a member of academic staff from Swansea University who is overseeing the piloting process of the CPAI-2010.

Contact for Further Information

My contact details are:

Gemma Morgan – [REDACTED]

The contact details of my supervisor are:

Dr. Pamela Ugwudike [REDACTED]

Thank you for taking the time to read the information sheet and for considering to participate in this study.

Appendix 7. Parental/Guardian Information Sheet and Informed Consent Form for the CPAI-2010 Evaluations

Gemma Morgan
Centre for Criminology and Criminal Justice,
3rd Floor, Van Tower,
Swansea University,
SA2 8PP
Email: [REDACTED]



Parental/Guardian Consent: A Multi-Dimensional Evaluation of Youth Justice Practices and Outcomes

Dear Parent/Guardian,

I am a researcher from Swansea University who has been contracted by the Youth Justice Board Cymru to examine the practice and services provided to young people across Wales by Youth Offending Teams. As a result, has been invited to take part in a research study which will be primarily evaluating the quality of the services and supervision the Youth Offending Team provides to young people using a specially designed evaluation tool. This study is being conducted by myself Gemma Morgan and will form my PhD thesis, which, I am undertaking at the Centre for Criminology and Criminal Justice, Swansea University, under the supervision of Dr. Pamela Ugwu-dike; a member of the academic staff. The extent of participation will involve their normal day-to-day supervision and interaction with the Youth Offending Team's workers being observed by myself and another evaluator from Swansea University. Additionally, will be asked to participate in a recorded interview with myself, to discuss their views and opinions about the services and supervision they have received from the Youth Offending Team. The information disclosed in the interview will remain strictly anonymous and confidential and will not be shared with the Youth Offending Team or any other associated organisations. The Youth Justice Board and local Youth Offending Team have given permission for the study to be undertaken and it has been through a vigorous ethical clearing process via the Swansea University Ethical Clearance Board to ensure that it is conducted in a professional and ethical manner with the appropriate safe guarding procedures put in place. Additionally, will be provided with information about the study and asked whether or not they would like to participate, their participation is completely voluntary, and they are able to withdraw from the study at any point without prejudice and do not need to provide myself or the Youth Offending Team with a reason for doing so.

If you **DO NOT** wish for to participate in the study please could sign the slip below and send it back to myself at the address provided at the top of the page. If you have any further questions, please feel free to contact me via the email address which is also provided above.

Thank you for your time,
Gemma Morgan

I the parent/guardian of **DO NOT** consent for them to participate in the study: A Multi-Dimensional Evaluation of Youth Justice Practices and Outcomes.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 8.

The Young Peoples' Informed Consent Form for the CPAI-2010 Evaluations

Gemma Morgan
Swansea Service Evaluation Team,
Centre for Criminology and Child Justice
swansea.university
SA2 8PP
Email: [REDACTED]



A Multi-Dimensional Evaluation of Youth Justice Practices and Outcomes

Please tick
the box

I have read and understand the information leaflet for the study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to leave the study at any time, without giving reason a to Gemma or the Youth Offending Team.

I agree to take part in the study.

I agree for the interview to be audio recorded.

I agree that the information I provide in this study may be stored securely (after it has been anonymised) and may be used for future research.

I agree that the information I provide may used as anonymised quotes in publications such as journal articles.

Name of Young Person

Date

Signature

Name of Researcher

Date

Signature

Appendix 9.

The Practitioners' Informed Consent Form for the CPAI-2010 Evaluations

Gemma Morgan
Swansea Service Evaluation Team,
Centre for Criminology and Criminal Justice,
Swansea University,
SA1 8PP
Email: [REDACTED]




Swansea University
Prifysgol Abertawe

A Multi-Dimensional Evaluation of Youth Justice Practices and Outcomes

- | | Please tick
the box |
|--|--------------------------------|
| I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I agree to take part in the study. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I agree for the interview to be audio recorded. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I agree that my data gathered in this study may be stored securely (after it has been anonymised) and may be used for future research. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Name of Researcher	Date	Signature

Appendix 10. The Young Peoples' Information Sheet for the YJEl Evaluations



What do you think about the Youth Offending Service?

Will what I say in the study be kept private?

Everything you say will be kept private between me and you - I will not share it with anyone else. What you say will also be kept anonymous - no one will be able to tell that it is you that has said certain things to me. I will do this by making sure your name or any recognisable characteristics will not be used during the research. This will be done by giving you a number that you will be identified by for example 23. Only I will know what your number is. However, if at any point during the interview you say that you might hurt someone or someone might hurt you for your safety I must tell the person in the youth offending team who works with you. I will talk to you before I tell your case worker and it will be done respectfully.

What are the positives of taking part?

This study will give you the chance to talk openly and privately about the experiences you have had with the youth offending service. Your thoughts and feelings are very important to help me understand whether the youth offending service are giving you the best help and support possible. This could help make youth offending service all over Wales better at working with young people.

What will happen to what I say?

What you say will be used in studies to help me gain a PhD qualification and may be used in other things I write like articles. If you would like to see what I write I can email you a copy when I am finished.



Thank you for your time, if you have any more questions feel free to contact Pamela or Gemma by email.
Dr. Pamela Ugmudike
p.ugmudike@soton.ac.uk
Gemma Morgan
g.h.morgan@swansea.ac.uk



What Do You Think About the Youth Offending Service?

If you have any more questions, feel free to contact Pamela or Gemma by email.

Dr Pamela Ugwudike - p.ugwudike@soton.ac.uk

Gemma Morgan - g.h.morgan@swansea.ac.uk



What is the research about?

This research is looking at the work staff at the youth offending service do with young people. This research is trying to see whether they are providing you and other young people with the best help possible. I want to know things like:

- What you like about the youth offending team?
- What type of things you do with you youth offending team?
- If the youth offending team has helped you in any way?
- Are you listened to by the youth offending team?

Why have I been asked to be involved in this research?

As you are a young person who has help from youth offending team, I would like to watch the work the staff do with you and the things you talk about. I would also like to ask you some questions to find out what you think about the youth offending team.

Do I have to take part?

No. Taking part in this research is completely voluntary. If you decide to let me watch the staff work with you and ask some questions you will be given this information leaflet to keep. You will also be asked to sign a consent form to say that you understand what taking part in the study means. It is also important to remember if you do decide to take part, you are free to leave the interview or ask me to leave when I am watching you and the staff at any time and you do not need to give the youth offending team or me a reason. If you leave I will not use anything you have said to me for my research.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you decide to take part, I will ask you if I can watch some of your session with the staff and also if I can ask you some question that will be voice recorded. A possible disadvantage of taking to me is that it will take up about 30 minutes of your time.

Appendix 11. The Practitioners' Information Sheet for the YJEI Evaluations

Southampton & Swansea Evaluation Team
Director: Dr Pamela Ugwudike
Email: [REDACTED]
Deputy Director: Gemma Morgan
Email: [REDACTED]



Evaluating Criminal
Justice Services
for Transformational
Impact

An Evaluation of X Youth Offending Service with the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEI)

You have been invited to take part in an evaluation of Pembrokeshire YOS. This will also form part of Gemma Morgan's PhD. Before you decided whether or not to take part in this study, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

What is the purpose of the study?

This study seeks to pilot the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEI). This is an evidence-based evaluation tool developed in collaboration with the Southampton & Swansea Evaluation Team (SSET) and the Youth Justice Board Cymru. The inventory promotes participatory evaluations of youth justice practices. The YJEI assess frontline-practices in order to identify key strengths in practice and areas of practice that require improvement. A key objective of the evaluations is to promote evidence-based approaches to working with young people.

Why have I been invited to participate?

As you are YOS practitioner you have been invited to participate in this evaluation in order to pilot the YJEI and assess how well front-line practices are aligned to the current evidence base. Additionally, we would like to gain feedback from yourself about your experience of being involved in a YJEI evaluation.

Do I have to take part?

Taking part in this research is completely voluntary. If you decide to participate, you will be given this information sheet to keep and will be asked to sign a consent form. It is also important to remember if you do decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. If you withdraw, any data collected from yourself will not be used.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you decide to participate you will be asked to take part in the YJEI evaluation. You will be asked to participate in an interview with Dr Pamela Ugwudike or Gemma Morgan.

Additionally, you may be asked to audio record your supervision sessions with the young people or have Dr. Pamela Ugwudike or Gemma Morgan observe your sessions. A possible disadvantage to participating in this research is that it would involve you taking an hour out of your working day to complete the interview.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The study will give the participating YOS the opportunity to explore practices that have been shown to reduced reoffending. There will also be opportunities for the services to identify areas of practice that may be improved to produce positive results.

Will what I say in this study be kept confidential?

All information collected from yourself will be kept strictly confidential. Privacy and anonymity will be ensured in the collection, storage and publication of research material. Anonymity will be ensured by using a number specific to yourself which you will be identified by.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of this research study will be used to evaluate the YJEL, additionally they will be used in my Gemma Morgan's PhD thesis and any future publications of SSET.

Who has reviewed the study?

The research has been approved by the University of Southampton and the University Research Ethics Committee; Swansea University and by the Youth Justice Board.

Contact for Further Information

Director of SSET and Principal Investigator:

Dr. Pamela Ugwudike – [REDACTED]

Deputy Director of SSET:

Gemma Morgan – [REDACTED]

Thank you for taking the time to read the information sheet and for considering to participate in this study.

Appendix 12. Parental/Guardian Information Sheet and Informed Consent Form for the YJEL Evaluations

Southampton & Swansea Evaluation Team
 Director: Dr Pamela Ugwudike
 Email: [REDACTED]
 Deputy Director: Gemma Morgan
 Email: [REDACTED]



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Parental/Guardian Consent: An Evaluation of X Youth Offending Service with the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEL)

Dear Parent/Guardian,

I am a researcher from Swansea University who has been contracted by the Youth Justice Board Cymru to examine the practice and services provided to young people across Wales by youth offending agencies. As a result, has been invited to take part in a research study which will be primarily evaluating the quality of the services and supervision the Pembrokeshire Youth Offending Service (YOS) provides to young people using a specially designed evaluation tool. This study is being conducted by Dr Pamela Ugwudike (Principal Investigator) and Gemma Morgan. The extent of participation will involve their normal day-to-day supervision and interaction with the YOS staff being observed by myself. Additionally, will be asked to participate in a recorded interview with myself, to discuss their views and opinions about the services and supervision they have received from the YOS. The information disclosed in the interview will remain strictly anonymous and confidential. The Youth Justice Board and YOS Manager have given permission for the study to be undertaken and it has been through a vigorous ethical clearing process via the Southampton and Swansea University Ethical Clearance Board to ensure that it is conducted in a professional and ethical manner with the appropriate safe guarding procedures put in place. Additionally, will be provided with information about the study and asked whether or not they would like to participate, their participation is completely voluntary, and they are able to withdraw from the study at any point without prejudice and do not need to provide myself or the Unit with a reason for doing so.

If you **DO NOT** wish for to participate in the study please could sign the slip below and send it back to myself at the address provided at the top of the page. If you have any further questions, please feel free to contact me via the email address which is also provided above.

Thank you for your time.

.....

I the parent/guardian of **DO NOT** consent for them to participate in the study: A Multi-Dimensional Evaluation of Youth Justice Practices and Outcomes.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 13. The Young Peoples' Informed Consent Form for the YJEI Evaluations

Southampton & Swansea Evaluation Team
 Director: Dr Pamela Ugwuoke
 Email: [REDACTED]
 Deputy Director: Gemma Morgan
 Email: [REDACTED]



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An Evaluation of X Youth Offending Service with the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEI)

Please cross
 the box (X)

I have read and understand the information leaflet for the study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to leave the study at any time, without giving any reason to Gemma, Pamela or the Youth Offending Service.

I agree to take part in the study.

I agree for the interview to be audio recorded.

I agree that my meetings with my case worker can be audio recorded.

I agree that the information I provide in this study may be stored securely (after it has been anonymised) and may be used for future research.

I agree that the information I provide may used as anonymised quotes in publications such as journal articles.

 Name of Young Person

 Date

 Signature

 Name of Researcher

 Date

 Signature

Appendix 14. The Practitioners' Informed Consent Form for the YJEI Evaluations

Southampton & Swansea Evaluation Team
Director: Dr Pamela Ugwuoke
Email: [REDACTED]
Deputy Director: Gemma Moran
Email: [REDACTED]



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An Evaluation of Pembrokeshire Youth Offending Service with the Youth Justice Evaluation Inventory (YJEI)

**Please tick
the box**

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.

I agree to take part in the above study.

I agree for the interview to be audio recorded.

I agree for my supervision sessions with the young people to be audio recorded.

I agree that my data gathered in this study may be stored securely (after it has been anonymised) and may be used for future research.

I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Name of Researcher

Date

Signature

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