

Effective Inner-City Community Delinquent Prevention Programs

Approved: Dr. Cheryl Banachowski-Fuller Date: September 30, 2011

Effective Inner-City Community Delinquent Prevention Programs

A Seminar Paper
Presented to the Graduate Faculty
University of Wisconsin-Platteville

In Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirement for the Degree
Master of Science in Criminal Justice

Krystle A. Lorenz
September 2011

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to thank the Lord for granting me life, wisdom, and making all things possible. Whenever I had difficult times he has always comes through for me by giving me the strength to overcome obstacles.

Next, I would like to thank my family. Without their support and understanding I would not be where I am today. I would like to thank my mother and father for everything they have done for me, and continue to do for me. They have encouraged me to be successful in my life, and their love and faith have been driving factors during my educational pursuits.

Lastly, I would like to thank professors I had throughout my education. The professors at the University of Dubuque gave me the confidence and encouragement to pursue a graduate level degree, while the professors at University of Wisconsin-Platteville helped me refine my criminal justice interests and future goals. The professors at University of Platteville were just as great, each professor that I inquired during my journey has given pieces of knowledge to guide me where I am at in the present day academically. A special thanks to Dr. Cheryl Banachowski-Fuller for the support and guidance of graduate education process all together, from scheduling classes to providing me with help on my thesis paper. Her support has made this a invaluable learning experience.

Abstract

Effective Inner-City Community Delinquent Prevention Programs

Krystle. A Lorenz

Under the Supervision of Dr. Cheryl Banachowski-Fuller

Statement of the Problem

Even though juvenile crime throughout the United States has had a decrease in violent crime, the effect of violence on America's youth will remain to be a terrifying and severe problem. The media has focused on youth killings in white suburban and rural areas. White suburbia crime is what catches media's attention and reminds society that youth violence happens anywhere. However, street crime and homicide are not sporadically happening in all different neighborhoods, these violent crimes have been mostly linked within inner city areas. America's inner-cities have been saturated with so much violence that they have been described as war zones (Temple, 2000). Higher juvenile delinquency has been covering inner city neighborhoods for years in the 1930s research identified neighborhood and community characteristics that foster delinquent conduct. In subsequent years theorists like Travis Hirschi (1969) and Robert Sampson (1993) found that community context was essential to understanding and preventing antisocial or criminal behaviors in the younger population (Jenson, 2007). According to the Institute for Juvenile Research, Department of Psychiatry, the increased youth violence in happening amongst the children of struggling families residing in inner-city neighborhoods with high levels of social organization. This institute did a research study which had 249 African American and Latino male participants ages 13-years old in Chicago Illinois. The results suggest that violence exposure is related to poor family functioning only in communities that are very impoverished

(inner cities), which plagues social problems with their children. Children living in poor, inner city communities are at risk to fall into crime because of their contact of violence and much of it is very serious. Previous studies have found that 50% to 90% of inner city children have witness community violence in their lifetime (Gorman-Smith & Tolan, 1998; Miller et al., 1999). In a study of 6-10 year-old-boys in New York City, 35 % witnessed a stabbing, 33% saw someone get shot, 23% had seen a dead body in their neighborhood, and 25% had seen someone get killed (Miller et al, 1999).

The exposure to violence in the inner city areas is ultimately hurting the youth, and this is why they are having higher crime rates than suburban type areas. According to the FBI's Incident-Based Reporting System, one in five violent crimes committed by juveniles happens between 2:00p.m. and 6:00p.m. on school days. Many parents, teachers and people of the community searched for ways to counteract this problem, and they succeeded with different forms of after-school programs (Gasman & Thompkins, 2003). After school programs provide a positive alternative for youth during non-school hours that allows participants to develop dynamics that they might be lacking, such as caring relationships with adults, the ability to resist negative peer pressure as well as building positive self-esteem while foster resiliency (Gasman & Thompkins, 2003).

Inner city youth programs across the United States use different styles. Some found to be ineffective and others are simply lacking components. A panel convened by the National Institute of Health has conducted that detention centers and similar programs aimed to scaring youth into having positive behaviors are ineffective. These programs were found to put youths in close contact with peers who may have more seriously delinquent tendencies, increasing the likelihood that they may commit more serious transgressions (Cavanagh, 2004). Unlike

detention centers, mentoring research suggest that most of these programs struggle to recruit adequate numbers of mentors to meet community needs. In addition to this as many as half of volunteer relationships do not last much longer than a few months and some fail to provide youth with the most needed forms of guidance and support. (DuBois & Rhodes, 2006). Youth from backgrounds of environmental risk and disadvantages are most likely to benefit from participation in mentoring programs, but recommendations need to be made to poorly implemented programs that adversely affected such youth (DuBois, 2002). Recommendations must be made to focus on the development of positive relationships and effective program practices, related to screening, training, and ongoing support because not all mentors or mentoring programs are equally effective (Sipe, 2002).

DARE programs that have been used for a number of years in different schools across the country have been proven to be risky and possibly doing more harm (Black, 2007). For instance, in relation to the social cognitive theory the certain conditions of situations, environment, and expectations foster observational learning between an officer and the students (Black, 2007). DARE programs have good components, but also have components they are lacking as well, same goes for after-school programs. Recent evaluations found that After School Programs failed to find positive results and they found that young people attending ASPs displayed greater increases in delinquency, rebelliousness, variety of drug use, and exposure to peers who used drugs from the beginning to the end of the program relative to a comparison group (Cross, Gottfredson & Solue, 2007).

Methods of Approach

Secondary data will be used to review empirical and theoretical findings, and will serve to address the topic to prevent and reduce current youth inner city crime, and to ground recommendations on how existing programs can change their strategies in order to have effective results. The data will come from accredited journals, credible websites, and government websites such as the National Criminal Justice Reference Service and the Bureau of Justice Statistics. The methods of approach are going to analyze and gather information on the current inner city youth programs that are available, juvenile delinquency within inner cities versus other areas, recidivism rates, risk factors and what it takes to make the programs that have ineffective traits change to make them to be effective.

Based on what the findings show, recommendations will be provided to assist the existing problems associated with inner city youth programs such as mentoring or boot camp style programs. There will also be psychological factors and theories used to support why the recommendations need to be made to have an effective program. In particular there will be cognitive theories used for recommendations because the cognitive position has become the most dominant is psychology, and which has been found to reduce recidivism (Abadinsky, 2009).

Results of the Study

Current inner-city delinquency programs are designed to help the youth stay out of trouble, different programs focus on different forms of doing this, and however the goal is not being reached for various reasons. Some programs fail to have effective methods because they place troubled youth in contact with more seriously delinquent children, which further the problem (Cavanaugh, 2004). Other programs have complications that are within the staff, such as mentoring programs. Not all mentor programs hire staffs that have what it takes to give the

needed forms of guidance and support to the youth (DuBois & Rhodes, 2006). After School Programs fail to have positive results and it was found that their intentions of keeping children out of problematic behaviors is not happening, some program even show greater increases in delinquency (Cross, Gottfredson & Solute, 2007).

Since a majority of inner city youth are placed at a high rate of witnessing crime in their younger years and grow up under unhealthy lifestyles it is important for the programs to adjust and understand what they are going through to give them appropriate support. Giving the suitable staff the proper training and education will help them understand the importance of their role as a mentor or staff in different programs. Lastly, this change will make for better programs that will prevent the inner-city youth getting involved in criminal activities.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
TITLE PAGE.....	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT.....	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	iv

SECTIONS:

I.	INTRODUCTUION	
	a. The Need For Effective Inner-City Community Delinquency Prevention Programs.....	1
II.	LITERATURE REVIEW	
	a. Criminal Behaviors of Inner City Youth.....	6
	b. Statistics on Criminal Behavior within Inner Cities.....	7
	c. Problems with Current Mentoring Programs.....	9
	d. Problems with Current D.A.R.E Programs.....	10
	e. Problems with After-School Programs	12
III.	THEORETICAL APPLICATION	
	a. Social Disorganization Theory.....	15
	b. Observational (Social Learning) Theory.....	19
IV.	EFFECTIVE INNER-CITY COMMUNITY DELIQUENCY RESEARCH AND PREVENTION PROGRAMS	
	a. Artist in the Making Program.....	23
	b. Powerhouse Mentoring Program for Foster Youth.....	24
	c. Dare Plus Project.....	26
V.	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EFFECTIVE INNER-CITY DELIQUENCY COMMUNITY PREVENTION PROGRAMS	
	a. Effective After School Programs Consists of.....	28

i.	Appropriate timing.....	28
ii.	Appropriate Settings for After School Programs.....	29
iii.	Appropriate Hiring Process/Training.....	31
b.	Effective Mentoring Consists of.....	32
i.	Appropriate Education/Training.....	32
ii.	Family Skills Training for Mentors.....	33
iii.	Peer Communication Training for Mentors.....	34
iv.	Integrate Classroom Achievement with Mentoring.....	35
c.	Effective Educational Curriculum Consists of.....	35
i.	Peer Education Programs.....	35
ii.	Parent and Teacher Involvement.....	37
VI.	CONCLUSION.....	39
VII.	REFERENCES.....	41

SECTION I INTRODUCTION:

THE NEED FOR EFFECTIVE INNER-CITY COMMUNITY DELINQUENT

PREVENTION PROGRAMS

Regardless of recent Justice Department reports of the United States nationwide drop on violent crime, the effect of violence on America's young remains a serious and terrifying problem. The media catches the American eye on youth crime when they focus on White suburban and rural area youth killings, (e.g.; Littleton, Colorado and Paducah, Kentucky) and this is what makes people aware that violence amongst youth can happen anywhere (Temple, 2000). On the other hand, criminal activity is ongoing for the inner-city youth daily, it's saturated with so much violence that they have been linked to war zones (Temple, 2000). In particular, Black youth are far more likely to die by homicide than are their White counterparts; homicide is the leading cause of death for African American youth (Bell & Jenkins, 1993 & Beletsky et al, 2009). The reason for this is because the population of Black youth compared to White youth living in inner city hoods are higher. When living in the hood areas it creates an extraordinary disadvantage for normal development because of the risk factors that are involved in the surroundings (Richters & Martinez, 1993). In the vast majority of United States cities with a population over 100,000 do African American and white youth live in the same situated neighborhood environments (Sampson and Wilson, 1995 & Beletsky et al, 2009). The racial difference in youth-violence outcomes are related to the number of single-parents household and intense poverty which surround inner city neighborhoods (Sampson, Morenoff, and Raubdenbush, 2005 & Beletsky et al, 2009)

According to the Institute for Juvenile Research Department of Psychiatry, increased youth violence is happening amongst the children of struggling families residing in inner-city neighborhoods with high levels of social disorganization. The institute did a research study which had 249 African American and Latino male participants' that were 13 years old and lived in Chicago Illinois. The results found that violence exposure is related to poor family functioning only in communities that are very impoverished (inner-cities), which plagues social problems with their children. This joined with other risk factors such as inadequate access to health care, educational inequities, easy access to weapons, and exposure to a violence saturated culture, the community may prove contaminated, mainly for young people who appear to be highly vulnerable to such environments (Garbarino, 1999). Previous studies found that 50% to 90% of inner city children witnessed community violence in their lifetime (Gorman, Smith & Tolan, 1998; Miller et al.,1999). Another study completed on 6-10 year-old-boys in New York City found that 35% witnessed a stabbing, 33% observed someone get shot, 23% had saw a dead body in their neighborhood, and 25% were eyewitnesses to somebody getting killed (Miller et al, 1999). The exposure to violence within the inner city areas are ultimately hurting the youth and this is why America is seeing higher crime rates within inner-cities in comparison to suburban areas.

According to the FBI's Incident-Based Reporting System one in five violent crimes committed by juveniles happens on school days between 2:00p.m. and 6:00p.m. Many parents, teachers and people of the community searched for ways to counteract this problem, and they succeeded with different forms of after-school programs (Gasman & Thompkins, 2003). Each inner city in the Unites States contains a number of programs that focus on helping the youth of

America today. After-school programs are quickly growing in low-income inner city areas because of the public concern of children's out-of-school time. After-school programs are typically designed to keep youth busy since they have an excessive amount of free time and for a number of youth this time lacks adult monitoring and supervision. The intentions within these programs supposed to be accommodating, but they are not good enough for an adequate functioning program. Current evaluations have found that after-school programs are having a difficult time discovering positive results and found that youth attending ASPs displayed greater increase in delinquency, rebelliousness, variety of drug use and exposure to peers who used drugs from the beginning to end of the program relative to a comparison group (Cross, Gottfredson & Solute, 2007). After-school programs are missing the presence of staff to assure individualized attention to children; an adequate level of staff literacy to help children with learning support needs; sufficient facilities and equipment, and nutritious snacks for the children (Halpern, 1999). The existing evidence proposes that although programs for low-income children vary on these attributes, there is a concern about present-day programs (Halpern, 1999).

Present day inner city youth programs that America uses is wholly designed to help the youth stay safe, keep them out of trouble or give them a certain category of support that they are not receiving in within the household. The programs cannot meet these requirements because current programs are not hiring the adequate staff to get the give the youth the services that they need. Staff that are employed do not apprehend the importance of their position and as many as half of volunteer mentor relationships will dissolve after only a few months and some will fail to provide the youth with the most needed form of guidance and

support (DuBois & Rhodes, 2006). Various inner-city youth programs including mentoring are serving a population with special needs, and by not having consistency within their mentors will lead to youth who do not benefit from participation in traditional mentoring programs (DuBois & Rhodes, 2006).

Most present-day programs do not have a strong communication between the programs and parental involvement. A vast majority programs that have been reviewed have included a parent involvement component, but the type and amount of parental involvement is not ample enough (Johnson & Randolph, 2008) For example, in various cases parent involvement occurred merely informal (for example, Herrera, 2004) and was not a part of structured expectations. In other cases, parents were only encouraged but not mandated to participate in special group events (Johnson & Randolph, 2008).

This paper will examine United States inner-city youths programs ineffectiveness and effectiveness. Every single inner-city program has a start to help the youth of inner cities; however they are not having their fallback as well. There are common factors among inner-city youth, such as poor family structure and exposure to violence in which these programs try to reverse negative outcomes by creating programs. Previous research shows that complications lie within after school programs, mentoring programs and delinquency programs. Secondary data will be used to review empirical and theoretical findings, and will serve to address the topic on how existing programs can change strategies to give the programs effective results on the youth population. Based on the findings, recommendations will be made to help assist the existing youth programs. Making certain changes within current components in each program will go a long way with the children of our future. Concentrating on specific time frames,

consuming smaller sizes of groups, and hiring educated/trained staff will go a long ways in making existing programs operate successfully. The mentors to youth within inner cities can go a long ways in making changes to a vast majority of the individuals. This will happen by expanding the horizons, which entails integrating family skills training and creating peer communication in the classroom setting.

Section II. Review of Literature

Inner City Youth Crime and Lack of Effective Community Delinquent Prevention Programs

This section of the paper is separated by five main sections. In the first section, the criminal behaviors of inner city youth are discussed. Secondly, the statistics of crime that inner city youth have witnessed and personally experienced are deliberated. Next, an explanation of different issues that three programs used within inner city is given. Each program is broken down into separate sections and different barriers that the programs face of examined.

Criminal Behaviors of Inner City Youth

Many American inner cities are facing enduring problems of delinquent acts by young people. Even though recent Justice Department reports state that there is a nationwide decline in violent crime (Temple, 2000) neighborhood risk factors still remain. Living in a high risk inner city neighborhood reveals children to community violence which has an effect on their individual development. Many of the children living in poor, urban communities are exposed to many violent events and to a variety of types of violence, and much of this violence they are exposed is to the extreme of measures. This exposure has been associated with a variety of behavioral and psychological problems such as aggression, depression, PTSD, school failure, risky sexual behavior and anxiety disorder (Sheidow, 2001; Spano, 2006 & Tiet, 2010). Living in a violent neighborhood and a violent home is creating children that have an extraordinary disadvantage for normal development.

Youth living in these neighborhoods have a number of other risk factors, such as poverty, limited access to health care, educational inequities and easy access to weapons (Temple, 2000 & Tiet, 2010). All of these factors together may prove toxic, particularly for young people who are highly susceptible to such environments. Exposure to negative family functioning is a risk factor for these inner-city youths as well. When children are exposed to relationship problems and violent behaviors they have more of a chance of continuing the “cycle of violence” (Vazsonyi, 2006). The exposure of violence from the family is not the only factor that has been linked to the cycle of violence, but when it is occurring in their own home they are more likely to engage in violent behavior. Although not all children that are exposed to the violence in these areas continue the cycle, a growing body of evidence suggests that today’s victims are at increased risk of becoming tomorrow’s perpetrators in violent behaviors (Vazsonyi, 2006 & Sheidow, 2001).

Statistics on Criminal Behavior within Inner Cities

Youth violence amongst urban inner cities is widespread around the United States. As in many American cities, violence is a continuous problem as it is in Indianapolis, Indiana. Exposing the children of our future to violence leaves them likely to be future victims of violence and more likely to commit a crime, particularly a seriously violent crime (Hayward et al, 2011). Exposure to firearm violent activity’s increases the risk that a youth will commit a crime 2-fold within 2 years and serious assault injury risk is 40 times greater than in youth that were not exposed to assault injury (Hayward et al, 2011 & Sheidow et al, 2001). The youth of Indianapolis reported their experiences with guns and their concerns living in these circumstances. Over 60 percent of respondents in a study done by the Educating Kids Against

Gun Violence program (EKG) stated that to know someone who had been the victim of a crime with gun, 55 percent reported seeing other youths carrying guns in their neighborhood, and 51 percent reported seeing other youths being seriously wounded or killed by a gun, knife or other weapon (Hayward et al, 2011). Similar rates were of witnessing stabbings and shootings found in a study of 7-15-year-old-African American school age children in Chicago (Sheidow et al, 2001). Research contained in Chicago showed that 45% reported that they were a spectator of more than one violent event, and 30% had seen three or more such events (Sheidow et al, 2001). Seventy-one percent of participants in the EKG study mentioned that they were drugs dealers and 65 percent reported gangs were in their neighborhood. In the inner-city area of New Orleans studies found that 26% of a sample of nine to twelve year old children witnessed a shooting and over 90% had witnessed at least one act of violence in the community (Spano, 2006). In another sample of predominantly African Americans from ages 14 to 23 year olds, over one third had seen someone shooting a gun and almost 20% had witnessed a fight where somebody is using a knife (Spano, 2006). With the percentages being this extreme over half of the people openly admitted that they were worried about getting shot (Hayward et al, 2011).

Problems with Current Mentoring Programs

Mentoring has been used for a number of years to encourage inner city youth against delinquency, school dropout, teen pregnancy, unemployment and other underclass life outcomes (Blechman, 1992). Mentoring involves the commitment of time and specific effects by an experienced person to develop a mutual beneficial, supportive and nurturing relationship with someone of less experience. As a whole mentoring creates an optimistic impression,

having a positive role-model for those who lack this in their daily experiences can be life altering. On the other hand there are problems that arise with this approach as well; most mentoring programs struggle to recruit adequate numbers of mentors to meet community needs (DuBois & Rhodes, 2006). In addition, as many as half of volunteer mentor relationships do not last more than a few months, while others are unsuccessful with providing youth with the most needed forms of guidance and support (Dubois & Rhodes, 2006).

The relationship between a caring adult and a young person is at the heart of mentoring, but when mentors are coming and going into a young person's life it makes them hard to open up to the next person which makes mentoring less effective. Many mentoring programs are serving a population with special needs. When there is no consistency with their mentors this leads to instances where these youth do not benefit from participation in traditional mentoring programs (DuBois & Rhodes, 2006). The national Big Brothers Big Sister program was analyzed and in 2002 they found that the effects of mentor relationships varied with their duration. During this analysis it was found that youth who were in mentoring sessions that terminated within the first 3 months experienced significantly larger drops in feelings of self-worth and lower perceived scholastic competence than youth who never received any mentoring at all (DuBois & Rhodes, 2006).

No matter how mentoring programs are organized, it simply will not achieve its full benefits if it is lacking the training and organizational supports to carry out what its needs are. A lack of systematic standards for training and support could be a reason to explain the growing difficulties with volunteer retention, a troubling trend which has adverse effects associated with breakdowns of relationships (Rhodes & Lowe 2008). Not having the correct training

breaks down into more difficulties in the programs such as the misuse of power, inappropriate boundaries (e.g., breaching confidentiality, improper disclosures), and communications breakdowns (e.g., breaking commitments) (Rhodes & Lowe 2008).

Even though mentors are used to “empower” youth, sometimes the power is taken too far in the misuse of power without acknowledgment of it. Mentors may not even be aware of the social inequities such as class and cultural backgrounds that can play out in interpersonal relationships. Mentors may express beliefs or opinions that are at odds with experiences, values and beliefs with the younger person and this can cause conflict with them. If a mentor has positive intentions to build a relationship with the youth that are in need it is good, but not good enough it is more complex. Being absent minded and showing no consideration of ethical issues has many pitfalls, and could ultimately lead to poor and even harmful decisions. To better serve youth mentor programs needs to be conceptualized, designed, and implemented effectively in order to produce consistent and positive outcomes, but unfortunately this doesn’t happen.

Problems with Current D.A.R.E Program

Drug Abuse Resistance Education, D.A.R.E is a publicly funded program that uses law enforcement officials to help children resist drugs, alcohol and gangs. It also targets at-risk groups and solicit information for police consideration. This program has been a controversial topic for a while and has been criticized by many researchers. This program started in 1983 with the Los Angeles Police Department collaborating with the Los Angeles Unified School District (Perry et al, 2000). By 1997 this program existed in a number of school and was presented to 33 million children worldwide, typically of those in the fifth to sixth grade (Perry et all, 2000).

Many evaluations have been studied of the core D.A.R.E program and found it not to be effective. D.A.R.E. prevention programs are not holding up the reputation that they intended for themselves as well, some say they do not essentially work (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services). This program is one that could perhaps do more harm than good because it ignores the basic youth development, education, or violence prevention theories (Black, 2007). A model of this is in relation to the social cognitive theory the certain conditions of situations, environment, and expectations foster observational learning between an officer and the students (Black, 2007). For example, D.A.R.E officers wear service weapons into the classroom, which may unintentionally role model gun carrying. Impressionable students, such as bully victims with access to a gun and beliefs that guns get a person attention and respect could theoretically, learn that taking a gun to school provided them with esteem (Black, 2007).

D.A.R.E is also found to have a lack of effectiveness. The program is commonly criticized for its limited use of social skills training and for being developmentally inappropriate (Youth Violence: A Report of the Surgeon General, 2001). D.A.R.E is taught to children at too young of an age, it is hard to give grounding to dealing with pressure of drugs and alcohol to children who have not gone through puberty. This results in no long-term effectiveness of the DARE elemental school curriculum for this population. According to a study completed on DAREs elementary school curriculum shows no significant differences in drug use between DARE and non-DARE students. There were six control groups in this study, three of the six reported that they did not receive DARE prevention education and the other three did receive the program. Each of the six evaluations, conducted at intervals ranging from 2 to 10 years

after the fifth or sixth grade students initially surveys, suggested that DARE had no statistically significant long-term effects preventing them from drug use.(Kanof, 2003).

Problem with After-School Programs

After-school programs are offered within inner-city areas to give children the opportunity to spend their after-school time doing homework, something they otherwise wouldn't necessarily do without the structured environment which is accessible by the programs. However, there are some challenges that after school programs run into such as, time, space and material resource constraints, also they lack of staff skill and experience in fostering these children.

Space for after-school programs is important for those who engage, but is limited most of the time. Typically, teachers are using their classrooms to prepare for the next day's classes or they are providing extra help to selected students, sports teams are practicing in the gym or using outside facilities and in the summer the building are being used for summer school programs. This leaves the after-school programs with limited space and what space they may use they are competing for it with other events, particularly the gym or computer labs. Not having the appropriate space for the programs affects the type and quality activities that can be offered (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001). If the program is offered a traditional classroom or a single multi-purpose room, such as a cafeteria it makes it difficult and is problematic because it is hard to run several concurrent activities (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001 & Halpern, 2006). For instance, if a group of children need to work on homework, some have story time and others have dance class in one limited area it does not work. The number of activities alone that go on in standard after-school programs cannot be constrained by a small singular

space, there has to be more availability. Not only are programs having troubles finding a space to use for the inner-city youth, they are struggling with using school equipment; they have been restricting the use of special rooms such as computer labs, libraries auditoriums and gyms with newly coated floors (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001). Schools are given tight budgets and principals to operate under; this makes it difficult for schools and programs to coordinate together. If the school hours are open later then more funds will be needed to maintain school facilities and the equipment will be used more intensively, this carries on to financial issues. With longer hours there is more custodial support that will be needed, and this adds to cost issues as well. For example, if a program uses space that normally isn't used during the day, extra cleaning demands are needed. This builds on to added costs of the programs, which is already limited, so in turn this affects the programming.

Transportation has been well-known to be one of the most complex and formidable challenges faced by school-based after school-programs (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001). This then breaks down into effecting the hours of programs, which effects the participation and the cost of the program. When there is limited space after-school programs have to move to a facility that is non-school based. This brings on the issue of inner-city youth struggling to find transportation from their school to the after-school facility and home again at the end of the day. The nature of most inner-cities is not one that parents would want their children walking the distance from school to a program that is not typically walking distance, so bussing the students would be a considerable option. Still, buses and drivers are limited and also have an additional cost. Having transportation issues then leaves those students out who do not live within walking distance and those who do not have parents that can pick them up. Even when

children do live within walking distance from the school, many parents would not want to have their children walk home alone in the dark at 5:00p.m. or 6:00p.m.

Thus, as suggested by the research, inner city community delinquent prevention programs have been lacking effective components in their make-up. Therefore the goal of this research is to compare and contrast several existing programs in hope to give recommendations for an ideal community delinquent prevention program; one that includes such components as appropriate staff training and educations, suitable timing, appropriate hiring process and appropriate settings for the programs to take place in. Social Disorganization Theory and Social Learning Theory will serve as the theoretical framework to give support and rationale for those recommendations.

Section III: Theoretical Framework

In order for inner city youth programs to be effective, an understanding of social disorganization and social learning (observational) theories must be known. Through many ways both of these theories have a high impact in understanding criminal behavior as a whole. This segment of the paper has been separated into 2 sections. The first section of the paper explains the social disorganization theory and the common elements that environment plays on the social world around it. Secondly, observational learning is discussed which explains how deviant behaviors are learned from other human beings.

Social Disorganization Theory

The theory of social disorganization was applied to the reasoning of crime, delinquency and other social problems by sociologists at the University of Chicago in the early years of the 1900's. As an expanding industrial city, increasingly populated by new immigrants and diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds, the city of Chicago provided a Sociology Department at the University of Chicago. With the booming industrial settings and the changes in the environmental surroundings the examination of the urban environment became a focal point in this new department.

Sociologist Ernest Burgess and Robert Park started by the general studies of the roots of a broad spectrum of social problems by describing Chicago's growth as a pattern of concentric zones (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). The core of the zones consisted of the Chicago's central business district, or downtown area. The city was expanding due to new transitions and the

city developed in a pattern of circles radiating from the core. The downtown area was occupied with commerce and industry areas and the faraway suburbs were occupied by wealthy families. That left the lower-income migrants to Chicago to settle down in transition zones between the core and more distant areas. Parks and Burgess concluded that there were five concentric zones in Chicago: Zones I and II were the inner core and transition area; a distance out zone III were homes of the working-class families, zone IV moved on to the middle-class residents, and zone V was a suburban or outer area (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). Each of the zones had a number of dissimilar areas. Both

The concentric zones that were used in Park and Burgess study was later used in Clifford Shaw and Henry McKay's research in their *Juvenile Delinquency and Urban Areas* (1942) study (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). They studied arrest rates of juveniles all through the city of Chicago during the years of 1900-06, 1917-23 and 1927-33 (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). During their studies it was found that rates were higher for all groups in core areas and transition zones. When Shaw and McKay compared rates over time it was discovered that foreign-born families moved to outer zones and delinquency rates remained lower in those areas than in inner zones (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). The explanation of the "social disorganization theory" shows that there is a pattern of delinquency rates not only remained constant over time, but also corresponded to the natural urban inner-city areas, shown in the concentric zone models of Park and Burgess. Mutually the theorists came to the decision that delinquency rates always remained high for certain regions of the city, no matter what immigrant population lived there.

The theory fell out of favor in proceeding years, but gained interest in which allowed its revival in the past two decades beginning with influential works of multiple theorists, Ruth Kornhauser (1978), Rodney Stark (1987), Robert Bursik (1988), Robert Sampson and Walter Groves (1989), Robert Bursik and Harald Grasmick (1993), and Charles Kubrin & Ronald Weitzer (2003). From the start of the theories to the most recent shows that there has been tremendous growth within the social disorganization literature. For the most part in the beginning of the social disorganization studies they had assumed that social ties and social controls formed neighborhood crime rates. Social disorganization theory suggests that a quantity of variables such as residential insecurity, ethnic diversity, family troubles, economic position, populace size and the proximity to urban areas all have an influence on maintaining strong systems of social relationships. Burisk (1988) suggested that when the population of an area is changing frequently, it makes it difficult for residents to build strong, personal ties with one another or to engage in the communities organizations. The theory expects that ethnic diversity in diverse communities, as in urban areas would result in rates of juvenile violence increasing. According to Shaw and McKay (1942), the diverse ethnic lifestyles interfere with communication amongst adults which ultimately leads to absence of shared experience and mistrust. Research found that family disruption which can come from unshared parenting, which can strain parents resources of time, money, and energy can interfere with their ability to supervise their own children and communicate with other adults in the neighborhood lead to high delinquency rates (Groves, 1989). These urban areas are populated with families who are at the lowest average of socioeconomic status. In major urban areas, residential areas closest to the central business districts see a physical, economic, and social decline. These areas then

see all the poor population migrating to these areas because this is the only readily available area for the poor. As a result, areas that are populated with the poor will also have the ethnic diversity and living instability, which will result in social disorganization (Bursik and Grasmick, 1993). These areas become quickly overpopulated and they have negative population density. People living in high population density create problems in these areas and can give opportunities for offending (Sampson, 1993).

Researchers did further empirical examinations of these assumptions and they discovered that local friendship networks, participation in formal and voluntary organizations, and a community's ability to supervise and control teenage peer groups had an effect on characteristics on crime and victimization (Kurbin & Weitzer, 2003). In later years further research was completed by theorists (Elliott et al. 1996, & Sampson, 1997) and found evidence that proves social ties and social control help to lower crime rates (Kurbin & Weitzer, 2003).

Over periods of time and additional research completed from a number of theorists the social disorganization theory has experienced a renaissance within recent years. With time there is change, given increasing deindustrialization of central cities, high rates middle-class mobility, the amount of segregation and isolation of the poor, and the growth of different immigrants a crossed most American cities. With all the change the basics of the social disorganization theory remains to be true: an individual's social environment has a direct result on their behavior.

Observational (Social Learning) Theory

Observational (also known as social learning theory) theory was derived from the reaction to the behaviorism of the 1950's. Behaviorism was developed from the work of B.F. Skinner when he manipulated the actions of white rats in laboratories. The reason for Skinner's manipulation was to change human behavior. Human behavior is learned according to the behavior theory. The behaviors that are learned do not have to be a positive behavior; according to Bandura (1977), but the observed aggressive behavior in adolescents and the actions are learned. It has been discovered that environment, psychological processes, and behaviors were all intertwined with personalities (Bandura, 1986). Once a person realizes this behavior they will then imitate the desired behavior, which is to be considered modeling their behavior. Children pick up on this fast because they are continuously learning as they grow. They observe people around them behaving in various ways and repeat what they see.

The general start of the Social Learning theory was developed Robert Burgess and Ronald Akers (1966), and was later elaborated by Akers (1973). This theory started as a revision of the Edwin H. Sutherlands differential association theory and it is compatible with the theory but focuses more on the explanation of deviant behavior. Akers (1973) focused more on the idea that behavior is shaped by the stimuli, which are consequences of the behavior. Social behavior is acquired from four concepts: imitation or modeling, differential reinforcement, differential association and definitions. This is the start of Social Learning Theory and how humans learn deviant behaviors.

Additional foundations of the modern Social Learning Theory is from Bandura's "Bobo Doll Experiment" in 1961. The purpose of this study was to focus on patterns of behavior

associated with aggression. In this experiment they took a group of children who watched a film, some had aggressive adult model scenarios and others had non-aggressive adult models. In the aggressive scenario the Bobo doll was hit, kicked, punched, sat on and beaten by an adult. In the non-aggressive video the adult simply played with small toys. Once the children were done watching the film they were allowed to go into a room where there were lots of toys, including a Bobo doll. The children who watched the violent acts proceeded to show aggressive behaviors compared to those who watched the video that was non-aggressive. Dr. Bandura found that the children that watched the aggressive video grew an attraction to toy guns that were never modeled in the video. Bandura performed this experiment in relation to the Social Learning Theory in search for an explanation for aggression. This specific study was to prove that aggression is learned through observing and imitating others (Bandura, 1961).

In developing the Social Learning Theory, Albert Bandura identified a “modeling” process which consists of four-steps to outline the person's behavior: attention, retention, reproduction and motivation (Bandura, 1977). These steps are the components that influence an observer when learning modeled behavior. The steps of observation learning consist of:

- First step: *attention*
 - In order for any behavior to be learned, the observer must see and pay attention to the modeled behavior.
- Second step: *retention*
 - This is when the observer will recognize and remember the behaviors that were modeled.

- Third step: *reproduction*
 - A response is shown to the modeled behavior. The observer will show in a way that they were capable of producing action to what they observed.
- Fourth step- *motivation*
 - This is when the observer will imitate a behavior when they have the presence of reinforcement or punishment that the person envisions (Bandura, 1977).

Adolescents would start to mimic aggressive behaviors they witness from adults. For example this could happen in a household with spousal abuse. When a child witnesses one parent hitting the other parent it makes them more likely to become abusive towards others themselves. Environmental experiences are a high influence of social learning amongst violence in youth. When youth live in a high crime area they are more likely to perform violently than those who are in a low-crime area (Bandura, 1977). Ultimately the Social Learning Theory shows that the youth who witness negative behaviors are prone to repeat those behaviors. This is one reason why juvenile delinquency is in present society.

Both theories that are explained give reasoning on why juveniles are more vulnerable to criminal actions. When neighborhoods are filled with negative atmospheres it has an influence on the youth that live in the areas. This results in more negative behaviors from juveniles. If there is no change in the communities the behaviors will be imitated from the individuals and this will remain an ongoing issue.

Section IV. Effective Inner-City Community Delinquent Research and Prevention Programs

Although there are inner-city youth delinquent programs that have difficulties with making progress, some programs have had done the exact opposite. There are three programs: Artists in the Making, Dare Plus and the Powerhouse that are all had positive outcomes in their programs. Each of these programs are briefly described and their positive achievements are discussed in this section.

Artists in the Making Program

Research tells us that children are more prone to temptations of problematic behaviors around the hours of 2:00p.m. and 6:00p.m. These are the hours when youth get out of school and parents are not home from work yet. Children seem to get themselves into mischief during this time by engaging in behaviors that injure their health by using tobacco, alcohol and drugs. A number of youth will engage in premature, unprotected sex during this time. Those who live in urban and rural poverty inner-city areas face a high level of risk of participating in these actions (Gasman & Thompkins, 2003). Artist in the Making (AIM) program uses art to motivate inner-city youth to reduce the risk factors that contribute to gang activity, drug substance abuse, teen pregnancy, violence and juvenile delinquency (Gasman & Thompkins, 2003). This program was created within an inner-city community and provides opportunities for youth during non-school hours.

Artist in the making is located in Ella Austin Community Center, which is found on the east side of San Antonio, Texas. The areas of this town are economically depressed and mainly consist of African American and Mexican American families (Gasman & Thompkins, 2003). This

neighborhood community was plagued with high crime and gang action and received little attention by city's business community. Given the area that these children live, learn and mature programs can help continue to a child's bright and promising future. The staffs that work at AIM consider their efforts to be a grass root attempt to counteract the negative forces that surrounded this area with positive interventions (Gasman & Thompkins, 2003).

Lastly, AIM is effective for this population of youth because the staffs are knowledgeable of the difficulties that the inner-city children face and are capable of handling them. The quality of the inner city youths life's are jeopardized by poverty, lack of employment opportunities, poor health care, crime, single-parent homes and crime. With all these factors playing a role in their life's it is important that AIM helps youth people build social competence and effective problem-solving skills (Gasman & Thompkins, 2003). Staff also assists them in building coping strategies so the children can better handle conflict situations. Staff handles all the disciplinary issues and behavioral issues with the students in this program. For youth coping with anger and frustration, as well as having appropriate discipline within their life offers a positive alternative to destruct behaviors (Gasman & Thompkins, 2003).

Powerhouse Mentoring Program for Foster Youth

Mentoring is a widespread approach that has been used to help inner city youth overcome many obstacles that they face through ought their younger years. Even though research on the impact of mentoring on youth is still limited, present day evidence shows that youth can learn how to develop positive relationships involving trust, support and care. Also, mentors can build basic social skills to help them improve positive peer relationship and help them become more confident (U.S. Department of Education, 2009). As the foster youth move

from being adolescents to a young adult mentors can continue to give ongoing support that they have missing from their life.

Over the years, Powerhouse had developed a mentor training program that helps staff serve the mentees with the best meaningful and positive relationship with the youth. The training starts right from the start of first contact with the prospective mentors, straightforward, realistic information about the mentoring experiences of this program. The people in charge of running the Powerhouse are not afraid to let the mentors know the considerable amount of training that is spent to serve this population and the issues that they face (U.S. Department of Education, 2009). Providing this information upfront will let prospective mentors know the process of mentoring, which they may realize is really is not a good fit for them or it may eliminate some of their nervousness about the program. After the mentor has gone through the intensive screening process of the Powerhouse program they go through an initial training which focuses on youth. This is broke down into them understanding the youth they serve, their history, culture, challenges, and strengths (U.S. Department of Education, 2009). They continue to learn about the policies and procedures of the program as well as understanding the foster care system, the culture of foster care, and successful mentoring of foster youth. The last phase in the mentor screening process is an extensive interview with the Powerhouse's mentor match case manager. This gives the mentors and staff one additional chance to discuss and answer questions they may have, voice concerns and learn more about each other (U.S. Department of Education, 2009). Once the mentor's start work they continue to have ongoing trainings and individual support over time. All mentors are expected to attend the formal training sessions.

Powerhouses trainings sessions have been used to serve a particular population, but a similar approach can be used to serve other mentoring programs. Most mentoring programs like Powerhouse provide services for youth who are at-risk and face many challenges in their life. To be successful, all mentors must be sufficiently ready to fill their role. In doing this they must complete trainings to provide them with the knowledge they need to be capable of the youth they will mentor on a daily basis.

Dare Plus Project

The Dare Plus Project is a continuous of the original Dare Program with supplementary components. It is a 10-session curriculum providing middle/junior high students with skills in recognizing and resisting influences to use drugs and how to handle violent situations (Perry et al, 2000). It is also used to provide the students with character-building and becoming positive citizens within their community.

Examining past curriculums content the staff decided to add emphasis on peer influence and parental involvement with the Dare Plus Project intervention model. The first component is titled “On the Verge” or “Verge”, this is a peer-led classroom program implemented by trained teachers. “Verge” started as a teen magazine and the classroom activities focus on influences and skills related to peers, social groups and media (Perry et al, 2000). The peer-led sessions have 5-6 peer leaders per classroom. The second component of Dare Plus involves after school activities for students. The peer lead Dare Plus group uses a approach which is based off of prior work on the participation programs and other youth

teams. Peer participation groups keep students busy in extracurricular activities, ensuring activities that are student drive, rather than adult planned (Perry et al, 2000).

The components of these programs are intended to change the social environment of the youth, supported by the classrooms, school, and home and in the neighborhoods surrounding the school (Perry et al, 2000). It is important that the teachers, parents, peer and police officers all work together to construct a “safety net” for the adolescents (Perry et al, 2000). Having parental involvement is important in providing consistent and coordinated support to keep youth from not using drugs and resisting violence.

The participation of the young people in delivering the “Verge” program, collaborating with their parents and creating after school activities allows them to advance skills to have a healthier environment from themselves and other young people (Perry et al, 2000). The determination of this program is envisioned to be successful and give a supportive community environment, which will hopefully lead to fewer dichotomies between what is taught in the classroom, what is observed on the streets, and in their schools and neighborhoods.

SECTION V : RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EFFECTIVE INNER-CITY DELINQUENCY COMMUNITY

PREVENTION PROGRAMS

The underlying issues of each inner city youth program is complex for many reasons. Problems are associated with the location, staff, and appropriate trainings and how the programs are structured. All of the programs have the chance to be successful to make this happen the problems need to be addressed and need structures need to be applied. This section of the paper is broken down into three sections: effective After School Programs, effective mentoring and effective educational curriculum. Each sections has brief descriptions of recommendations that need to be used to decrease inner city youth criminal behaviors.

Effective After-School Programs Consists of

Appropriate Timing

Most after-school programs are typically made up of the same structure, an assortment of homework, snack time, activity time, arts and crafts and free time. This is what people see on the outside of the program, but as the programs breaks down into specifics there are details of importance that are behind closed doors. After school programs are intended to be a safe place for children out of school, so many areas aspects focused on to be considered to make it this way. The staff that are hired to engaged with the youth, the timing and the sizing of the after school programs are need to be carefully looked to make each program maximum effectiveness.

Today in America there are millions of young people alone and unsupervised during the after school hours because their parents are at work. This leaves the children at a high risk of getting themselves into a bad situation, such as juvenile crime, substance abuse, premature, unprotected sexual activities, and other problems. All adolescents face these hazards, but those who live in urban inner-cities and rural poverty areas face a higher level of risk (Gasman & Anderson, 2003). Parents are aware of the free time their children have it leaves them at their job nervous about their children when they should be focused on their work.

According to the FBI's National Incident-Based Reporting system, one in five violent crimes committed by a juvenile is done between the hours of 2:00p.m. and 6:00p.m. (Department of Justice, 2001). This is the time when police chiefs, sheriffs, prosecutors, victims of violence, teachers and parents have all noticed risky behaviors- smoking, drinking, drugs and other criminal actions. During these hours more than five million children spend their time unsupervised; however students who participate in after school programs are less likely to engage in these behaviors (Dodd & Bowed, 2011). After school crime stems from children having too little supervision during the hours following classes. These children have decreased availability of constructive activities so they take it upon themselves to find something to do.

Many teachers, parents, community leaders and citizens took the facts into consideration in search for ways to counteract this problem. One approach that would work to decrease the amount of unsupervised time of children after school would be to have the programs start directly after school. These programs should take place right after school so it does not give the option for youth to look for something to do without an adult approval or

appearance. This will eliminate their free time from being unsupervised, as well as lower crimes rates and improving homework and tests scores.

Appropriate Settings for After School Programs

Children that live within inner-city areas do not experience the attachments and roots of playing in community space as those who live in suburban areas. It is essential to have children play and build childhood memories in particular places. This plays a role from the younger years to their foundation of adulthood. Adults seeing children play out and about in the community is a positive evident look as well. When people can see the quality of life in their own community it brings positive feelings in the area. When the children play in these community open spaces is brings them together collectively and adults see this as an investment in the community.

School grounds are typically reserved for other activities or not available and children and adults cannot compete for public space. To solve this issues inner city After School Programs need to be afforded an area of space. Feasible, older children, adolescents and parents should be able to take part in the use and design of a public area (Halpern, 2006). This should then be developed and policies should be made because healthy communities need children outside playing in public spaces that have the space for multiple activities. This way the area can be used for physical activities and other activities such as homework help in one area that is specifically reserved for the program. This space would need to be used wisely and sufficiently since resources such as computers and libraries will not be easily accessible. For example, simply creativity by the workers is a form of keeping the financial funds down.

Working on creative writing, making homemade cookbooks, doing book reports and helping them with their assignments and school work are an effective form of literacy. After School Programs in an open park area can also do word-rich bulletin boards, with words to unscramble, riddles to solves, brain teasers, etc. (Halpern, 2006). It would be allowed for community access outside of scheduled program times. There has been small-scale efforts on inner city efforts on claiming or re-claiming land for public purposes led by community corporations or land use groups(Halpern, 2006). The efforts included the people refurbishing playgrounds, to create community gardens or park type settings (Halpern, 2006).

Literacy, homework and physical activities are found to be purposeful during the after school hours. Using a closed to public area and creating it into a place for After School Programs is ideal. The area is not supposed to be a strict or a school-like setting, but more of a less orderly and relaxed. Staff is still helping and checking homework, but other activities are being implemented on a regular basis as well. Overall this type of After School Programs should strengthen the youth free time into a psychological climate, motivational structure and an all-around helpful atmosphere.

Appropriate Hiring Process/Training

After school programs have an extensive range of workloads to keep up with. This can lead to high burnouts and high turnover rates. The workers also get paid a low rate and sometimes the awards are achievements are not recognized. To create quality in After School Programs to counter these dilemmas there needs to be more offered to the workers as well as

an interview process that helps determine if the staffs have the potential and skills to work with youth and children.

Staff should fill a line of requirements before they start the job work with an after school programs, most importantly those including

- Personnel requirements
- Staff training
- Meaning of a school-age care program

It is important to follow the requirements to have a excellence in a after school program.

Trainings are required to keep continuous program quality and success with staff. Training should be continuously done throughout the year for each staff. The programs should start staff off with CPR trainings and mandatory reporting then moving them into trainings that are more in depth which will be focused on vital skills. Follow up training are needed maintain the effectiveness of the staff members. Numerous staff members are overloaded with initial trainings as the start of their job and do not remember much of what they were trained on. Some also feel unprepared when the challenges arise during the line of work. Prior research has found that trainings sessions on program quality tend to diminish over time (Sheldon et al, 2010). Middle of the year trainings need to take place on basic skills that are used in the program, specialized skills and the programs goals.

Meetings should be held with the staff and other advisors to train and supervise staff. During this time the senior staff or advisors can talk to them about strengths and weaknesses and areas that could use additional training. After school program jobs tend to attract a

younger population which they need to develop skills to help them handle different types of situations that take place in this line of work. Having meetings and trainings with each staff is a form of reviewing and handling situations so the turnover rate is reduced and they can make sure staff has what it takes to fit the program's needs.

Effective Mentoring Consists of

Appropriate Education/Training

To have a successful mentoring program you need to have qualified Staff. Staff is the people who interact daily with the volunteers, youth, parents and teachers. Staffs are the face of programs; the foundation is built off of these individuals. According to the National Mentoring Center (2008) a careful process of hiring is crucial in youth mentor programs, being selective and investing in these individuals is vital.

One of the biggest issues in mentor programs is the struggle with the staff turnover. Youth mentor programs need to do what they can to find and keep quality staff. Each program should have a list of qualifications that are expected, including minimum qualifications, knowledge, skills and experience. The program coordinator should already have extensive knowledge or receive extensive training in youth mentoring and nonprofit management (National Mentoring Center, 2008).

Youth mentoring programs need to plan ahead to avoid staff losses, which can rigorously disrupt the upkeep and supervision of mentoring relationships (National Mentoring Center, 2008). It is important to make the staff aware that their job should be committed to

them and their contributions every day are valued by their co-workers and mentees. To keep the success rate of quality work there must be trainings from the first day of employment. Providing youth mentor staff with ongoing trainings, professional development and programs support services will help develop professional staff and maintain a high quality of services to the youth who need it at most.

Family-Skills Training for Mentors

Family-skill training is an important area for mentors to learn about because when they lack the skills to work with families the overall motivation of mentoring is downgraded. Being involved with the families of mentees is important, therefore some skills need to be discussed and taught to the staff. The two goals of family skills-training are to improve the quality of communication and resolve child behavioral problems that are involved with the family (Blechman, 1992). A mentor who is well trained and has to knowledge of effective communication skills can solve multiple problems. Given the qualifications they have and trainings in family skills they will be able to spend time and mentor the whole family as well as the child they are appointed to help. During this time the mentor may encourage families in high-risk areas to talk to each other and teach them skills to improve the family as a whole.

Peer Communication Training for Mentors

The importance of youth learning to communicate to peers, adults and others is very imperative. Mentors need to have preparation on how to teach effective communication skills to high-risk socially unskilled children (Blechman, 1992). Training mentors in peer communication skills will help them run larger groups, have role plays or work individually on

shaping communication skills. In inner city areas children are coming from different ethnic and racial backgrounds, differences amongst communication skills will be different amongst one's self. Training mentors on how to teach communication skills is necessary because they need to be familiar to encourage this to mentees so they can receive these benefits. Communication is needed in high risk inner city children so they can make and keep friends, handle problem in a non-violent manner, control themselves and persuade others with words; not fists, and to receive and give messages accurately (Blechman, 1992).

Integrate Classroom Achievement with Mentoring

Mentors need to focus on the importance of education with the mentees and give them some positive incentives to keep them interested in having good school behaviors and grades. The mentors could use a system to involve the classroom, such as a note system or a good behavior game to encounter the message that school achievement is crucial. For example, the note system could work by having the teacher take a note to the mentor after each school day of their achievements in their classes toward their goals. If the news is good they will receive a prearranged award such as cookies or a small prize. The good behavior game can be very simple. The teacher will simply note if the child followed everyday rules (raising their hand before speaking). If these rules are followed they are recognized with a small reward.

Effective Educational Curriculum Consists of

Peer Education Programs

Peer education programs are centered on the rationale that peers have a strong guidance on individual behavior (Medly, 2009). Peer education programs remain popular and are being used by those of different ages, genders and demographic areas day-to-day. Peer education programs are used to increase awareness, impart knowledge and encourage behavior change among those of the same age group (Medly, 2009). Youth peer to peer education can happen on everyday interactions, but to be delivered in classroom settings would be the best fit for a formal delivery.

Youth are consistently having adults give them leadership. Having peer educators of the same age have a hidden access to reaching this population. Peer education is both empowering for the educator and the target group and is cost effective at the same time (Medley, 2009). Most educational curriculum programs rely on a highly professional staff (eg. Dare police officers) on these interventions.

There has been extensive research conducted to review the youth development from youth leadership programs. It has been found that strategies and practices have been made positive changes in the development of youth people (Edelman, 2004). Research that has been discovered on the peer education programs confirms that youth can protect their peers from negative behaviors and increase the chances of their peers to have positive changes in their behaviors and attitudes (Edelman, 2004). Other studies have found that the following outcomes were linked with peer lead youth programs:

- Improved self-esteem, increased popularity and higher sense of personal control;

- Enhanced life skills as leadership speakers, better decision making and increased responsibility;
- Heightened communication in the family
- Less psychosocial problems, such as loneliness, being shy, and depression;
- Decreased risky behaviors and juvenile delinquency;
- Amplified classroom achievements (Edelman, 2004).

All together research and reports have found positive developing outcomes of youth peer leadership. There is a number of support and opportunities that contribute to development of youth people when their peers are helping them. In recent studies it shows that leadership programs should be used within our inner city programs for a combination benefit of both the leaders and their peers. The outcomes and content will help youth learn specific knowledge and skills that teachers, police officers and parents cannot teach.

Parent and Teacher Involvement

Inner city children are faced with more stresses and exposed to violent behaviors at school and at their living surroundings. With the high levels of urban stresses and exposures programs call for increased parental management. Parents need to be keeping close monitoring on their children's whereabouts, activities and acquaintances. When parents lack monitoring of their children's behaviors they tend to have overly harsh punishments which subsequently will elevate the rates of adolescent delinquency, aggression and substance abuse (Anderson, Sabatelli & Kosutic, 2007).

Children spend 9 months of the year, 5 days a week and 7 hours out of that day in a school setting. Teachers see a lot of what is going in a child's life. They see their behaviors, friends and social interactions when their parents are not present. With their children spending more time at school there should be more parent-teacher communication going on. Youth who live in poor, crime ridden neighborhoods have been found to receive less parental support and supervision than those who live outside of inner city areas (Anderson, Sabatelli & Kosutic, 2007). Increasing the communication between parents and teachers will help the parents effectively raise their children because they are keeping closer track of what is going on with them.

The parental involvement with the students and the school is a dynamic one and can produce excessive rewards for behaviors. Teachers and other school staff do not always do what they should do to keep parents aware of what is going on with their children. School staff needs to understand that the lack of participation by parents does not mean the parents are neglecting their responsibilities of parenting. Inner city parents simply do not have the time because they work long hours or may not have the resources to engage as much as the teachers do daily. Teachers and parents communicating is a simple, inexpensive and effective way to decrease inner city youths problematic behaviors.

Section VI

Conclusion

The recent studies that are being discovered show that life-style surrounding has an impact on adolescents and their transition into young adulthood (Sheidown et al, 2001 & Sapno, 2006). Inner-city areas are so plagued with violence and destructive behaviors the children are even worried about their own safety. Surveys that have been conducted show that inner-city youth are concerned about making it home safe within their neighborhoods (Hayward et al, 2011). Inner city children face a great amount of community characteristics mixed in with violence, residential instability, poverty households, single female-headed households with children, living in multiunit housing projects and surroundings of disrupted social networks. Youth who grow up in the poverty ridden areas have a higher chance on increased risk of problem behaviors such as juvenile delinquency, school drop-outs, teenage pregnancy, and substance abuse.

For different reasons no one program or mentor is going to be the key to changing all children's lives. The truth is that nothing can compensate for the social neglect the children of inner cities live with. However, when communities work together they can be one of the central institutions for positive change and crime prevention. Families, schools, police and other community life need to work together are making a change. Current programs face their problems which are capable of being shaped and have higher success rates. For some children,

mentors, after-school programs or in school educational adjustments may indeed be critical resources for certain individuals.

The design of inner-city community delinquency prevention programs can be altered to better the whole community. For example, the importance of training mentors in high-risk communities is clear. This inner city youth population is coming from family backgrounds of poverty, single parents and high crime areas. Mentors need to be aware of the importance of their job and they need to know how to handle different situations when they arise with the mentees. In order to make these programs successful there needs to be a firm foundation laid that builds expansion and improvements of each program. Therefore, inner city programs must develop an approach to effectively train their staff and have appropriate places and timing for programs to be held. These minor changes will go an extensive ways in helping the children of our future. It is not difficult to make alterations in these programs which make them effective, all that has to be done is developmental change and troubled youth will reduce in due time.

References

- Akers, R.L. (1966). Social learning theory. In R. Paternoster & R. Bachman (Eds.) (2001). *Explaining criminals and crime: Essays in contemporary criminological theory* (pp. 192-210). Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury Publishing Company.
- Akers, R.L. (1973). *Deviant behavior: A social learning approach*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth. In R. Paternoster & R. Bachman (Eds.) (2001). *Explaining criminals and crime: Essays in contemporary criminological theory* (pp. 192-210). Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury Publishing Company.
- Anderson, S; Sabatelli, R & Kosutic, I. (2007). Families, urban neighborhood youth centers, and peers as contexts for development. *Family Relations* 56, 346-357.
- Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross, S.A. (1961). *Transmission of aggressions through imitation of aggressive models*. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 63, 575-582
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and actions: a social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Beletsky, L., Bluthenthal, R.N., Golinelli, D., Fain, F., Kofner, A., MacDonald, J., Sehgal, A., & Stoke, R.J. (2009). Neighborhood effects on crime and youth violence. *RAND Infrastructure, Safety, and Environment*, 1-139.
- Bell, C.C. & Jenkins, E.J. (1993). Community violence and children on Chicago's south side. *Psychiatry*, 56, 46-54
- Black, S. (2007). Evaluation of the Olweus bullying prevention program, how the program can work for inner city youth. The 2007 National Conference on Safe Schools.
- Blechman, E. (1992). Mentors for high-risk minority youth: from effective communication and bicultural competence. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 21 (2), 160-169.
- Bursik Jr., R.J. & Grasmik, H.G. (1993). *Neighborhoods and crime: The dimensions of effective community control*. New York, NY: Lexington Books. Cited in Osgood, D.W., & Chambers, J.M. (2000). Social disorganization outside the metropolis: An analysis of rural youth violence. *Criminology*, 38(1), 81-116.
- Chicago Press. Cited in Osgood, D. W., & Chambers, J.M. (2000). Social disorganization outside the metropolis: An analysis of rural youth violence. *Criminology*, 38(1), 81-116.
- Department of Justice. (2001). *FBI's National Incident-Based Reporting System*. Retrieved June 03, 2011, from <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/binrs.htm>.

Dodd, Arleen T.; Bowen, Lizette M.. Journal of Health & Human Services Administration, Jun2011, Vol. 34 Issue 1, p10-41, 32p, 7 Charts.

DuBois ,D., & Rhodes, J (2006). Introduction to the special issue: youth mentoring: bridging science with practice. Journal of Community Psychology, 34, (6), 647-655.

Edelman, A; Gill, P; Comerford, K; Larson, M & Hare, R (2004). Youth development and youth leadership. *National Collaborative on Workforce and Disability for Youth*. Retrieved from <http://www.nj.gov/dcf/behavioral/providers/YouthDevelopment.pdf> on June, 03 2011.

Elliott, Delbert S.,William JuliusWilson, David Huizinga, Robert J. Sampson, Amanda Elliott, and Bruce Rankin. 1996. The Effects of Neighborhood Disadvantage on Adolescent Development.. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency* 33:389-426.

Garbarino, J. (1992). Lost boys, why our sons turn violent and how we can save them. *New York: The Free Press*.

Gorman-Smith, D., & Tolan, P. (1998) The role of exposure to community violence and developmental problems among inner-city youth. *Development and Psychopathology*, 10, 101–116.

Grossman, J, Walker, K & Raley, R. (2001). Challenges and opportunities in after-school programs: lessons for policymakers and funders. *Lessons for Policymakers and Funders*.

Halpern, H. (1999) After-school programs for low-income children: promise and challenges. *The Future of Children When School is Out*, 9, 81-95.

Halpern, R. (2006).Critical issues in after school programming. Chicago: Monographs of the Herr Research Center for Children and Social Policy.

Hayward. T. Z.; Simons.C J.; John. W.; Watmire.M ; Stucky. D.. Impacting the problem of inner-city youth violence: “educating kids about gun violence” program. *American Surgeon*, Apr2011, (77) 4

Herrera. C. (2004). *School-based mentoring: A closer look*. Retrieved: June 12 2011 From: <http://www.ppv.org/ppv/publications>

Johnson, J., & Randolph, K. (2008). School based mentoring programs: a review of the research. *National Association of Social Workers*, 3, 177-185.

Kanof, Marjorie (2003). Youth illicit drug use prevention: dare long-term evaluations and federal efforts to identify effective programs. Youth Illicit Drug Prevention. United States General Accounting Office. Retrieved: 7/1/2011 from: http://www5.esc13.net/dpn/docs/120_publication.pdf

Kornhauser, R.R. (1978) *Social sources of delinquency*. Chicago: University of

Kubrin, Charis E. and Ronald Weitzer. 2003. Retaliatory Homicide: Concentrated Disadvantage and Neighborhood Culture. *Social Problems* 50:157-80.

Maxfield, M., & Babbie, E. (2008). *Research methods for criminal justice and criminology*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.

Medly, A; Kennedy, C; O'Reilly, K & Sweat, M (2009). Effectiveness of peer education interventions for hiv prevention in developing countries: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Aids Education and Prevention*. 21 (3), 181-206.

Miller, L.S., Wasserman, G.A., Neugebauer, R., Gorman-Smith, D., & Kamboukos, D. (1999). Witnessed community violence and antisocial behavior in high-risk, urban boys. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 28, 2–11.

Perry, Cheryl L.; Komro, Kelli A.; Veblen-Mortenson, Sara; Bosma, Linda; Munson, Karen; Stigler, Melissa; Lytle, Leslie A.; Forster, Jean L.; Welles, Seth L. The Minnesota dare plus project: creating community partnerships to prevent drug use and violence. *Journal of School Health*, Mar2000, Vol. 70 Issue 3, p84-88

Richters, P & Martinez, P. (1993). The NIMH community violence project: II. children's development: toward a research agenda for the 1990's. *Psychiatry*, 56, 22-35.

Rhodes, Jean; Lowe, Sarah Ryan. Youth mentoring and resilience: implications for practice. *Child Care in Practice*, Jan2008, Vol. 14 Issue 1, p9-17, 9p

Sampson, R. J., Morenoff J.D., & Raudenbush, S.W.(2005). Social Anatomy of Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Violence, *American Journal of Public Health*, 95 (2), 224–232.

Sampson, R., & Wilson, W.J. (1995) Toward a Theory of Race, Crime, and Urban Inequality. in John Hagan and Ruth D. Peterson, eds., *Crime and Inequality*, Stanford, Calif: Stanford University Press. 37–54.

Sheldon, Jessica; Arbretton, Amy; Hopkins, Leigh; Grossman, Jean Baldwin. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, Jun2010, Vol. 45 Issue 3/4, p394-404, 11p

Sheidow, Ashli J.; Gorman-smith, Deborah; Tohn, Patrick H.; Henry, David B Family and community characteristics: risk factors for violence exposure in inner city youth. *Journal of Community Psychology*, May2001, Vol. 29 Issue 3, p345-360, 16p

Spano, Richard; Rivera, Craig; Bolland, John. The impact of timing of exposure to violence on violent behavior in a high poverty sample of inner city African American youth. *Journal of Youth & Adolescence*, Oct2006, Vol. 35 Issue 5, p681-692, 12p, 3

Stark, Rodney. 1987. Deviant Places: A Theory of the Ecology of Crime. *Criminology* 25:893-909.
Temple, S. (2000). A clinical perspective on inner city youths' exposure to homicide community and policy implications. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 28 (6), 655-667.

The Hamilton Fish Institute on School and Community Violence & The National Mentoring Center at Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (2008). *Foundations of Successful Youth Mentoring*. Retrieved June, 03, 2001, from: <http://gwired.gwu.edu/hamfish/merlin-cgi/p/downloadFile/d/20699/n/off/other/1/name/foundationspdf/>

Temple, S. (2000). A clinical perspective on inner city youths' exposure to homicide community and policy implications. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 28 (6), 655-667.

Tiet, Quyen; Huizinga, David; Byrnes, Hilary. *Journal of Child & Family Studies*, Jun2010, Vol. 19 Issue 3, p360-378, 19p,

Vazsonyi, Alexander T.; Pickering, Lloyd E.; Bolland, John M.. *Journal of Community Psychology*, Jan2006, Vol. 34 Issue 1.

Youth Violence: A Report of the Surgeon General. Office of the Surgeon General (OSG). N.p., n. Retrieved: 6/5/2011 from : <http://www.surgeongeneral.gov/library>.