

A REVIEW OF STATE GUIDELINES FOR RECREATION IN JUVENILE JUSTICE
FACILITIES

A Thesis

by

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ABSTRACT

Quality recreation programs have been shown to strengthen protective factors in youth to mitigate risk factors, ultimately improving youth outcomes and reducing juvenile delinquency. How recreation is employed within this unique setting has been unknown until this point. This study is the first step to understanding how recreation programs can enhance the rehabilitative efforts of the juvenile justice system by reviewing the legislative and administrative regulations related to recreation practices in juvenile justice facilities in the United States. The research questions that were asked include: 1) whether or not a legislative and/or administrative authority exists that governs a minimum amount of recreation time for youth in juvenile justice facilities (including the type of written authority and how recreation is defined), 2) the *type, frequency, location and length* of recreation allowed for youth while in confinement, and 3) the circumstances in which youth can be denied access to recreation.

A systematic review of the written authorities was conducted by searching state websites, legal and government databases. A survey was developed to capture archival data elements and utilized to review the documents. Among other discoveries, we found that seven different types of written authorities exist, and only 40% of states include a purpose for the recreation services that are offered to youth in confinement. We found that the terms *recreation, leisure* and *exercise* are used interchangeably and 70% of states require that recreation is available to youth on a daily basis. The results of this

investigation present implications for policy-makers, recreation professionals and the public alike. These include the need to advocate for the provision of recreation services in the juvenile justice system, establishing an appropriate minimum standard for recreation programs in juvenile justice, and communicating the positive impact recreation programs can have for youth and the community.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Within the context of juvenile delinquency, recreation tactics that have garnered the greatest attention are those that are the “hoods in the woods,” wilderness or boot camp programs that are antithetical to the everyday lifestyles of the young people who are enrolled. The intention of this study is not to disqualify the efforts or the contributions that these types of programs can make in a young person’s life; rather we are pointing out that these programs are not the widespread response to juvenile delinquency. Later in this paper we will discuss in greater depth the surge of afterschool programs as preventative measures with the intention to divert youth from crime.

A former warden, Garrett Heyns, expands on the purpose of correctional institutions to help individuals change and “if we are to aid the inmate in preparing for satisfactory social living, we must be concerned with all aspects of social living... (including) the wise use of leisure” (1957). Not only do recreation programs provide personal benefits to the young participants in the juvenile justice system, but as I will discuss, public safety is increased when young people are participating in quality recreation programs. Furthermore, when rehabilitative treatments are enhanced, the reintegration process is beginning before young people are released on parole. The skills and abilities youth gain from recreation programs allow them to navigate through different contexts and establish a sense of self that will benefit them in areas outside of recreation programs throughout their lives (Roe, 2015).

Recreation is understood by scholars to be an activity that an individual participates in of their own volition, is personally enjoyable and is restorative to one's mind, soul, and body (Kelly & Freysinger, 2000). Although there is not a universally accepted definition of recreation, the aforementioned elements are those that have consistently emerged in discussions of the concept.

The role of recreation within the context of human development is growing and is now being understood as contributing to a person's overall quality of life. Quality of life is related to the belief that the quality of a person's life goes beyond the absence of disease, and includes the promotion of wellness. This includes the provision of parks and recreation departments that provide and maintain opportunities for individuals in the community to be in the outdoors and engage in social interactions with their neighbors. Ray Oldenburg (1989) explains that as our lives have become increasingly independent of one another, there is a vital need for "third spaces," inclusive places for people to gather that are the basis of thriving communities. On an individual level, recreation contributes to the healthy development even in infants and toddlers. The popularization of play as a therapy has increased the awareness of play as essential to the development of motor skills in young children and social skills for those with special needs (Patterson, 2007).

Most individuals can point to an experience with an extracurricular program or sport that had great meaning to them in their adolescent years. This type of anecdotal evidence is confirmed as significant by the research that recognizes the impact that participation in youth programs can have on an individual. For example, young people

who participate in extracurricular activities are 400 times more likely to attend college (Putnam, 2016). Acknowledging the lifetime benefits associated with a college degree are contingent on the individual attending college, the importance of participation in recreation programs during the teen years is heightened.

Previous neurological research has shown that adults in prison had inconsistent play opportunities in their childhood (Frost, 1998), however we must be clear that correlation does not prove causation. The improvements in technology have allowed scientists to produce evidence that there is a relationship between the recreation and leisure experiences of a young person and the development of their brain.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to build a foundation that helps us understand the current state of recreation in the U.S. juvenile justice system by examining the written authority from each of the 50 states. Understanding the legal constraints and allowances that service providers are faced with is a small piece, but an important first step to examining how recreation is understood and being used in the juvenile justice system.

There are three specific questions in this study:

1. *Does a written authority exist that governs a minimum amount of recreation time for youth held in juvenile facilities?*
 - a. *If yes, what type of written authority exists?*
 - b. *If a written authority exists, how are recreation, leisure and exercise defined?*

2. *What is the type, frequency, location and length of recreation allowed for youth in the juvenile facility?*
3. *Under what circumstances can youth be denied access to recreation time?*

Importance of this study

This study is significant because it is the first of its kind to assess the foundation of provision for recreation programs in the juvenile justice system. The results of this study provide a context for understanding the recreation programming that takes place in juvenile justice facilities by examining the macro-level systems in which juvenile justice facilities are situated. The findings of this study can be used to compare the legal minimums in each state and inform future policy decisions regarding recreation services and juvenile justice services. This study is beneficial to stakeholders in the recreation and social service sectors because of the interdisciplinary nature of youth development, and the far-reaching consequences of juvenile delinquency. This study is an important first step in addressing recreation within juvenile corrections in order to produce better outcomes for young people and to promote public safety.

Study Context

As much as we want to be clear in explaining what the intended purpose of this study is, it is just as important to articulate that this study is not an evaluation of the current recreation programs in American juvenile justice settings. This is a bird's eye view of the minimum requirements that are outlined by the state. We recognize that this study does not capture the extent of the important work that is being done on a daily

basis by committed juvenile justice professionals across the nation. This study is not an evaluation of the implementation of the guidelines and is not an evaluation of recreation practices across the states. This study is intended to provide an understanding of the minimum requirements set by state authorities in order to provide a foundation for future research that examines the recreation practices that occur in this setting.

Overview of Thesis

This thesis is divided into chapters that can be found in the table of contents. Chapter I begins with an introduction of recreation and its relationship to juvenile justice. This is followed by a literature in Chapter II. I discuss the methods utilized in this study in Chapter III and the results in Chapter IV. In Chapter V, I discuss conclusions from this study. I conclude this thesis in Chapter VI with recommendations and future directions.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the literature that informs the current study. The first section will review the theories and models involved with out-of-school time programs, youth development, and the juvenile justice system. After discussing the key features associated with positive youth development programs, I will discuss a brief history of juvenile delinquency in the United States and the current trends of youth crime. This section will be followed by the present day structure and organization of juvenile justice systems in the United States and the economic costs associated with youth incarceration. I then discuss recreation programming as a context for youth development to address juvenile delinquency.

Youth development theories, models, and out-of-school time programs

The theories, models and concepts that I discuss in this section include Positive Youth Development, Ecological Systems Theory, Social Justice Youth Development, Social Learning Theory, Risk & Protective Factors, and Prevention. Examining the juvenile justice system through these lenses of these theories and frameworks is helpful to understand the complex dynamics of the interacting systems that impact youth. There are additional theories and frameworks in the youth development field that can be applied to the juvenile justice context but were not used in this study.

There is an enormous amount of anecdotal evidence that reflects the significant impact that out-of-school time programs can have on a young person's life. It is not uncommon for adults to reflect on their lives and cite a particular drama teacher or coach that changed the trajectory of their life when they were younger; this is part of the reason adolescence is often referred to as the "formative years" (Giedd, 2015). Only with the modern advancements of technology and commitment to scientific rigor have researchers been able to examine the components of youth programs and the impact they can have on development. The shift away from an insulated view of development that was largely deficit-based has grown to be multi-disciplinary and is often referred to as "Positive Youth Development."

Positive Youth Development

Positive Youth Development (PYD) stresses that young people are assets in the making, and focuses on strengthening the protective factors to mitigate the negative impact of risk factors in their life (Catalano, Berglund, Jean, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2004). This is a shift away from the former mindset that young people are "problems to be solved" (Witt & Caldwell, 2005). Attention is now given to the strengths and opportunities for growth in a young person and the contributions they can make to their own development and community gain. Consensus is growing among practitioners, policy makers and developmental researchers that young people experience better outcomes when programs are not concerned with a single problem behavior focus (Catalano et al., 2004). This approach takes into account that young people are situated in multiple settings, and the ecological perspective helps us understand the influence that

risk and protective factors from each level interacting can have on a young person (Lerner & Castellino, 2002). In the following section, I begin this literature review by presenting the major conceptual frameworks that have influenced positive youth development theories, research and programs.

Ecological Systems Theory

The Ecological Systems Theory developed by Urie Bronfenbrenner discusses the interactions between the systemic levels (micro-, meso-, macro-, exo-, and chrono-) that shape the experience and development of the individual, requiring that programs understand the environment the young people involved in their program are coming from. Acknowledging the interrelatedness of youth to their familial, racial, ethnic, cultural, community, and regional contexts presents an opportunity to develop and implement prevention and intervention strategies.

Social Justice Youth Development

Social justice youth development describes the power dynamics that are present in the interactions of the systems (Ginwright, Cammarota & Noguera, 2005). Ginwright et al. (2005) contend that the actions of urban youth need to be understood in the context of their community because their actions are not a response is not to an isolated situation, but a reaction to the systemic dynamics that influence their experience. The principles of social justice youth development are all the more salient when the demographic characteristics of the juvenile offender population are considered. Social justice is defined as the “critical awareness of the systems and institutions that promote or hinder progress toward social equality and respect for human dignity” (Ginwright et

al., 2005). Conceptualizing recreation programs to be a space for young people to be active agents in their personal development and that of their community is at the heart of this study.

Social Learning Theory

Alfred Bandura uses the Social Learning Theory that suggests that meaningful interaction and engagement serves to precipitate the adoption of attitudes and beliefs (Bandura, 1971). The interactions of the individual with their environment shape the attitudes and beliefs that youth form. Again, the implications of each of these theories for recreation programmers is that they must examine the meaningful interactions that the young people have in other ecological contexts they occupy and evaluate how those interactions have shaped their present attitudes and beliefs; programmers must ensure that programs are engaging and facilitate meaningful interaction among peers and with adult leaders. By nature, recreation programs are designed to engage young people. This makes youth recreation programs powerful and effective spaces to catalyze young people for social and systemic change.

Protective & Risk Factors

At this time, it is important to understand protective and risk factors in the field of youth development. Risk factors are “individual or environmental hazards that increase an individual’s vulnerability to negative developmental behaviors, events, or outcomes, such as alcohol and drug abuse, early unprotected sexual activity, delinquency and violence, and school failure” (Witt & Caldwell, 2005). Risk factors include systemic and structural circumstances, and for many delinquent youth, poverty is a major risk

factor (Lerner & Galambos, 1998). A review of the most common individual risk factors of incarcerated youth found that “mental health, personality, psychological issues, emotional-behavioral and social challenges, cognitive-intellectual development, academic achievement, victimization history, and substance use” were all characteristics associated with incarcerated youth (Pyle, Flower, Fall & Williams, 2015). Protective factors are those that “buffer, modify, or ameliorate an individual’s reaction to an adverse situation that, in ordinary circumstances would lead to maladaptive outcomes (Witt & Caldwell, 2005). Similar to the nature of risk factors, protective factors can be found both within and outside of the individual. Three types of protective factors include dispositional attributes, affectional ties, and external support systems (Witt & Caldwell, 2005). The premise of positive youth development programs is that enhancing the protective factors in and around a young person will decrease the influence of risk factors.

Prevention

As described in the mission statement of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, one of the goals of the agency is to develop and implement prevention programs for youth. The current pressure for programmers to utilize evidence-based research requires prevention programs to be evaluated (Mowbray, Holter, Teague & Bybee, 2008). Due to the fact that effective programs take the setting of the program into account, identifying the core components of a program in order to maintain fidelity and achieve the intended outcomes is necessary for programs to be adapted for each community (Mowbray et al., 2008). In a review-of-reviews of

prevention programs targeting substance abuse, risky behavior, school failure, and juvenile delinquency, researchers identified nine characteristics of effective prevention programs (Nation et al., 2003). Table 1 is the list of the nine principles of effective prevention programs from reprinted from Nation et al. (2003). As you will see in the following discussion of out-of-school time programs that promote positive youth development, many of these principles are addressed and integrated into the program development and implementation.

Principle	Definition
Comprehensive	Multicomponent interventions that address critical domains (e.g. family, peers, community) that influence the development and perpetuation of the behaviors to be prevented
Varied teaching methods	Programs involve diverse teaching methods that focus on increasing awareness and understanding of the problem behaviors and on acquiring or enhancing skills
Sufficient dosage	Programs provide enough intervention to produce the desired effects and provide follow-up as necessary to maintain effects
Theory driven	Programs have a theoretical justification, are based on accurate information, and are supported by empirical research
Positive relationships	Programs provide exposure to adults and peers in a way that promotes strong relationships and supports positive outcomes
Appropriately timed	Programs are initiated early enough to have an impact on the development of the problem behavior and are sensitive to the developmental needs of participants
Socioculturally relevant	Programs are tailored to the community and cultural norms of the participants and make efforts to include the target group in program planning and implementation
Outcome evaluation	Programs have clear goals and objectives and make an effort to systematically document their results relative to the goals
Well-trained staff	Program staff support the program and are provided with training regarding the implementation of the intervention

Table 1 Definitions of the Principles of Effective Programs

Reprinted from Nation, M., Crusto, C., Wandersman, A., Kumpfer, K. L., Seybolt, D., Morrissey-Kane, E., & Davino, K., 2003

Each of these theories and frameworks contribute a different perspective that is necessary to understand the impact that effective recreation programs have on youth involved in the juvenile justice system. Utilizing this collection of frameworks addresses the range of desired outcomes of actors in the juvenile justice system by presenting a holistic view of the young person that considers the developmental stage they are in. What each of these models has in common is the comprehension that positive outcome for the larger community are contingent upon positive outcomes for the individual, in this case, effective positive youth development programs for incarcerated youth in turn promote positive outcomes for the public.

Out-of-School Time Program Features

The importance of out-of-school time programming in youth development is composed of not only developmental outcomes, but also the features in program settings that contribute to those outcomes. Research has illustrated that both contexts are needed to have positive impact on the development of young people into adulthood. These features are not unique to the type of out-of-school time programs and as a result can be implemented in programs in multiple ways. Establishing an awareness of the components of effective positive youth development programs is vital to ensuring that programs produce favorable short and long-term outcomes.

Catalano et al. (2004) conducted a literature review and discovered 15 constructs that are central to the program goals that promote positive youth development. From their 2004 work, “Positive Youth Development in the United States: Research Findings

on Evaluations of Positive Youth Development Programs” the 15 foci of quality youth programs include:

1. Promotes bonding
2. Fosters resilience
3. Promotes social competence
4. Promotes emotional competence
5. Promotes cognitive competence
6. Promotes behavioral competence
7. Promotes moral competence
8. Fosters self-determination
9. Fosters spirituality
10. Fosters self-efficacy
11. Fosters clear and positive identity
12. Fosters belief in the future
13. Provides recognition for positive behavior
14. Provides opportunities for prosocial involvement
15. Fosters prosocial norms

Jacquelyne Eccles and Jennifer Appleton also identified eight “features of positive developmental settings” in their book *Community Programs to Promote Youth Development* (2002). These principles are similar, yet broader, than those identified by Catalano et al., and are more descriptive of the environment that is necessary for the constructs from Catalano et al. to manifest. They are:

1. Physical and psychological safety
2. Appropriate structure
3. Supportive relationships
4. Opportunities to belong
5. Positive social norms
6. Support for efficacy and mattering
7. Opportunities for skill building
8. Integration of family, school, and community efforts

The first of the features outlined by Eccles and Gootman is physical and psychological safety and is the foundation upon which all other features from both lists are contingent (2002). The perception of safety can have an effect on the immunity and brain development of young people (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Dr. Nadine Burke Harris explains that Adverse Childhood Experiences produce toxic stress that limit the brain's ability to think and can have long-term health implications for adults if they are never addressed (Garrett, 2014). Schools have begun to teach students stress regulation techniques, especially in communities that have high rates of violence, and are seeing positive results with their students (Garrett, 2014). Although the majority of these initiatives are taking place in schools, recreation programs must be aware of these discoveries as member organizations of the community in order to serve its youth effectively.

Ensuring that a recreation program has appropriate structure for young people is essential and needs to be consistent in the identification and enforcement of rules and

guidelines. This stability reduces the stress that young people may experience outside of the program and allows for the cognitive structures to be established (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Research suggests that delinquency is only decreased when programs are structured and provide supervision (Weinstein, Fuller, Mulrooney, & Koch, 2014). Not surprisingly, guidelines are the most effective when they are consistent throughout the various spaces a young person occupies.

Supportive Relationships are another feature that is needed in programs that promote positive development and is central to the emerging research on the adolescent brain. When adults involved with the program and have “youth-centered” relationships that provide emotional and instrumental support marked by warmth, connectedness, stability, respect and communication, youth participants have better outcomes (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). The connection young people have with adults is a determinant of their ability to adapt to change (Catalano et al., 2004). Instilling the capacity to adapt and react to stress appropriately is how programs foster resilience (Catalano et al., 2004). Resiliency is a particularly essential characteristic to develop in young people in the juvenile justice system because it serves as a protective factor that can keep youth from “adopting problem behavior” (Catalano et al., 2004). Recreation programs that promote resiliency and encourage bonding with adults play a significant role in the reintegration process because they are equipping young people to respond in appropriate ways to situations that could otherwise potentially result in crime.

Related to self-efficacy is the opportunity for skill building. Adults can scaffold activities to help youth acquire new knowledge and skills, including soft-skills, that can

become habits that contribute to their overall well-being throughout their life (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). The development of skills is broken down into different competencies by Catalano et al. (2004): social, emotional, cognitive, behavior and moral competence. When young people develop each of these competencies that have immediate and long-term benefits, they have increased optimism about their future (Catalano et al., 2004). Programs that provide opportunities to develop at least one of these competencies are also encouraging a sense of hope for their future. Adults in recreation programs can help foster self-efficacy and recognize positive behavior in their interactions with the young people. Taking time to recognize the accomplishments and prosocial behaviors of the young people reinforces that positive behavior (Catalano et al., 2004). When young people accomplish tasks they perceive as challenging, they develop a healthy sense of autonomy.

Another one of the key features of quality programs is the provision of opportunities to belong. Giving young people a place where they feel recognized and valued has been shown to decrease the likelihood that they will engage in risky behavior and increase character traits like responsibility and self-competence (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Catalano et al. (2004) explain that providing the opportunity for prosocial involvement allows them to practice interpersonal skills that allow youth to make a positive contribution to the group. Consequently, these interactions enhance a sense of belonging and prepare youth to form healthy bonds with peers throughout the rest of their life. Research into belonging has shown that youth who are grouped together with the intention of addressing a problem behavior show an increase in problem behaviors

instead of a decline (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). With consideration to the population of juvenile offenders we are discussing, it would appear that it may be advantageous to provide opportunities within facilities that are not primarily concerned with addressing the negative behavior of the young people. Recreation programs provide a chance for this to occur, as there is opportunity to debrief the experience without honing in on a particular deviant behavior. By providing young people space to interact with one another, they are given the opportunity to bond with one another and establish prosocial norms. We recognize that there is evidence that suggests young people learn how to commit crimes when they are in detention with other young people, the opposite of rehabilitation. Opportunities to leverage the influence of peers in the rehabilitation of youth in juvenile justice can be found in recreation programs. Positive youth development recreation programs create an environment that is developmentally appropriate and responsive to the needs and maturity of the young people involved that will put them in positions to be able to establish these prosocial norms. This is done through scaffolding, a youth development practice that requires adults to provide support to the young people as they are presented with a challenge of increasing difficulty as their skills develop (Morgan, Sibthorp, & Wells, 2014).

When the young people themselves, under the guidance of caring adults, contrive prosocial norms they are likely to adhere to them in other areas of their life (Catalano et al., 2004). As youth internalize these norms, they begin to achieve moral competence (Catalano et al., 2004). Spirituality and moral competence are connected in their development, but spirituality is “relating to, consisting of, or having the nature of spirit;

concerned with or affecting the soul; of, from, or relating to God; of or belonging to a church or religion” (Catalano et al., 2004). A result of this sense of self is carried out through the demonstration of self-determination, “the ability to think for oneself and to take action consistent with that thought” (Catalano et al., 2004). Fostering self-determination and spirituality in young people promotes autonomy and allows each young person to discover a healthy positive identity. This sense of self is critical for individuals to navigate the different contexts successfully (Catalano et al., 2004).

The integration of family, school and community efforts is recognized as a necessary feature of youth programs that produce positive outcomes for youth (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). In their evaluation of youth programs, Catalano et al. (2004) found that programs that worked in collaboration with one another had more successful outcomes for youth. The application of this concept will be discussed in greater detail in the results and recommendations of the paper, but evidence for this feature points to the research that finds problem behaviors are more likely to occur when the values of the family, community and program are discordant (Catalano et al., 2004; Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Developing programs with structure and guidelines that are culturally appropriate and have congruent values with the community it is located in will improve the outcomes of participants. Involving young people in the creation of programs is an effective method to achieve this unity and increase the likelihood that youth will comply with the rules that are established.

Juvenile Justice in America

History of juvenile delinquency in the U.S.

Historically, recreation has been a battleground between groups of different principles and priorities. Throughout our nation's history, recreation has been a point of contention between young people and adults, dating back to the late 1700s when Puritans believed that "idle hands are the devil's workshop" and youth need to be occupied in order to avoid being left to their own devices. When children and youth misbehaved, the appropriate response was for them to be placed in a highly structured family environment where they would be instilled with the protestant work ethic. In the late 1800s and early 1900s when children were required to work in the factories as industrialization spread, juvenile crime was an increasing problem. There was some recognition that this was a result of limited opportunity for children and youth to expel their energy throughout the day, a problem compounded by sparse physical spaces that allowed for this. This was an issue particularly for those who came from poor and immigrant communities.

A prime example of the response to this issue through recreation is found in Jane Addams and the work done through the Hull House in Chicago. Situated between immigrant communities, Addams advocated and created opportunities after work and school for young boys and girls to participate in programs that would continue the education beyond their formal education.

Addams recognized the children played in the muddy street in order to expel energy that built up while they spent the day working in sweatshops and factories

(Fradin & Fradin, 2003). Over time, the Hull House expanded to provide playgrounds and gymnasiums in poor communities that were predominantly immigrant families that needed their older children to work. Programs at the Hull House were scheduled for after work and allowed these young people to continue their education, as well as participate in leisure activities that were typically reserved for the upper class (Linn, 2000; Addams & Brown, 1999). Through the services and facilities provided by the various initiatives of the Hull House, young people gained life skills in an engaging environment that kept them from becoming bored and participating in delinquent activities (Addams & Brown, 1999). Not only did programs include language and reading skills, but Hull House programs included art and music, leisure pursuits typically reserved for those of higher social classes. The Hull House established high quality gyms in locations that were accessible to youth from poor neighborhoods.

As more social institutions were established, there was an emergence of youth culture founded on the common experiences of youth and its distinction from other life stages during the 1920s and 1930s. Gangs in New York became more prominent as low-paying jobs became increasingly available, appealing to young people who were orphans and runaways (Youth Culture, 2004). The Great Depression led to a decrease in youth entering the workforce and increase in the number of youth attending high school (Youth Culture, 2004). High school students were recognized as consumers in the 1940s, and became a target market for media and marketing outlets (Youth Culture, 2004). In the 1950s there was widespread fear across the United States of a youth rebellion fueled by the media that promoted sexual immorality and deviancy (Cohen, 1997; Youth Culture,

2004). As suburbanization spread in the 1950s and 1960s, so did the rise of crime in the middle class (Cohen, 1997). This period is marked by the contentious relationship between adults and youth as adult fear of the media became more pervasive and appealing to youth through television, movies, magazines, and comic books (Cohen, 1997). As more families bought automobiles, new social opportunities emerged, including the drive-in movie theatre (Youth Culture, 2004). The 1960s also saw the rise of youth subcultures engaging in organized political protests and rallies on college campuses that rejected the politics of the previous generation in a way that had not been done before, prompting engagement in the Civil Rights Movement as well (Youth Culture, 2004). In the 1970s, drug use proliferated as part of the music and festivals that were held throughout the country.

Since the 1980s, and the advent of the Internet, youth culture now includes on-line subcultures that are not limited by the constraints experienced by previous generations (Youth Culture, 2004). During this time, the War on Drugs was declared, when strict drug laws were developed and began to be enforced, particularly impacting the poor, and communities of color (Bobo & Thompson, 2010). While there has been a recent realization of the injustice that these laws allowed, the attitudes of this time are still pervasive and communities are still dealing with the detrimental effects of these laws. As young black and brown men were targeted, fathers were removed from their households and generations of children in minority communities grew up without a father (Bobo & Thompson, 2010). The 1980s and 1990s also saw an influx of after-school programs that were targeted to reach “at-risk” kids (Weinstein et al., 2014). We

will discuss in further detail the implications for the present day population of youth in the juvenile justice population of these laws, but these widespread laws contributed to the continued public perception of the “superpredator,” disregarding the data indicating juvenile crime rates have declined since 1994 (OJJDP, 2017; Zimring, 2013).

Current data on juvenile crime types, rates & incarceration costs

As mentioned previously, juvenile crime peaks in the afterschool hours (OJJDP, 2015; Weinstein et al., 2014). Weinstein et al. (2014) analyzed data of juvenile offenses to identify the time of day that specific crimes are most likely to occur. The following is directly from their 2014 analysis.

- Kidnapping [3:00pm]
- Robbery [3:00-9:00pm]
- Aggravated Assault [3:00-6:00pm]
- Simple assault [3:00pm]
- Intimidation noon [3:00pm]
- Arson [4:00-7:00pm]
- Purse snatching [3:00pm]
- Shoplifting [3:00-7:00pm]
- Theft from building [12:00noon-4:00pm]
- False pretenses [4:00-6:00pm]
- Credit card fraud [3:00-4:00pm]
- Statutory rape [3:00-4:00pm]
- Betting [3:00-4:00pm]

- Operating gambling [2:00-4:00pm]
- Prostitution [5:00-6:00pm]
- Promoting prostitution [3:00-4:00pm]

Weinstein et al. (2014) report that the 16.8% of juvenile crime takes place at home, followed by a roadway or alley (8.7%), department or discount store (8.5%), school or college (6.8%) and an elementary or secondary school (5.4%). Again, despite popular opinion, data on juvenile crime rates confirm that since 1994, the juvenile rate has steadily declined and reached an all-time low in 2012 (OJJDP, 2017).

The demographic characteristics of the current juvenile justice population are the result of the historical evolution of juvenile delinquency and the systemic social barriers faced by marginalized communities. In October 2014, 50,821 juvenile offenders were held in residential facilities (OJJDP, 2016). Seventeen year olds are the largest age group that is represented in residential placement facilities, however because 11 states consider 17-year olds legal adults, they are processed in the adult criminal justice system and are not included in the group of 15,100 17-year olds in 2013 (OJJDP, 2015). At the end of 2014, there were just over 5,200 17-year olds in adult jails and state prisons (OJJDP, 2015). In residential placement, the rate of placement for female offenders is 16% and 11% in public facilities (OJJDP, 2015). In 25 states, female offenders made up 15% of the juvenile offenders in placement (OJJDP, 2015). There is a growing belief that more girls are entering the juvenile justice system, however it is more accurate to say that female offenders now make up a larger proportion of juvenile offenders because the

decline in the number of males in the juvenile justice system is faster than females (Puzzanchera, 2017).

In 2013, minority youth accounted for 68% of youth in residential placement, almost double the proportion of minority youth in the overall youth population (OJJDP, 2013). In twelve states, the proportion of minority youth in placement was greater than 75% (OJJDP, 2013). The national ratio of minority to white youth placement rate was 2.7:1 (OJJDP, 2015). In 34 states, this ratio was higher than the national average, in 20 states, and the District of Colombia, the ratio of minority to white youth exceed 4:1 (OJJDP, 2015). The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention reports that “in all but 13 states and the District of Colombia, the residential placement for black juvenile offenders exceeded the rate for other race/ethnicity groups” (OJJDP, 2015). In 1992, an amendment was made to the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act to address disproportionate minority confinement, and in 2002, the Act was reauthorized that made the core requirement “disproportionate minority contact” that requires states to develop and implement plans to address disproportionate minority contact at each point of contact in the juvenile justice system, not just confinement, if they receive federal funding (OJJDP, 2012).

At this point, we would like to continue the discussion of the effects of the war on crime on youth. We mentioned that the war on drugs resulted in African American and Latino fathers being removed from their homes and that there remain present day ramifications (Bobo & Thompson, 2010). In the study of Adverse Childhood Experiences, also known as “ACES,” it was found that youth in the juvenile justice

system “are disproportionately victims of trauma, abuse, neglect, and maltreatment during childhood” (Evans-Chase, 2014; Fox, Perez, Cass, Baglivio, & Epps, 2015). Parental incarceration is an ACE, and while it is experienced by 10% of children in the general population, up to 50% of youth in the juvenile justice system report having at least one parent who has been incarcerated (Evans-Chase, 2014). Incarceration limits a parent’s opportunity for employment, limiting their economic ability to avoid poverty and exposure to violence, both ACEs that youth in the juvenile justice system experience at a disproportionate rate (Evans-Chase, 2014). This understanding of trauma and its influence on the communities that young people in the juvenile justice system come from is critical to establish a clear justification for recreation programs.

Organization of juvenile justice in the U.S.

The operations of juvenile justice systems are governed by individual states, however the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention is the federal agency that provides leadership and resources to state agencies. The mission statement of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention is to provide *national leadership, coordination, and resources to prevent and respond to juvenile delinquency and victimization. OJJDP supports states and communities in their efforts to develop and implement effective and coordinated prevention and intervention programs and to improve the juvenile justice system so that it protects public safety, holds justice-involved youth appropriately accountable, and provides treatment and rehabilitative services tailored to the needs of juveniles and their families* (OJJDP, 2017).

Each state has its own unique mission statement, but all share the principles of offender accountability, rehabilitation and the promotion of public safety. To achieve these ends, OJJDP collects and provides resources that serve the various actors in the juvenile justice system and provide information to the public.

Although OJJDP provides leadership, there is no national agency that establishes minimum standards that must be followed in each state. The American Correctional Association (ACA) has published standards that pertain to a wide variety of correctional facilities, but there is no requirement that mandates state facilities to adhere to these standards. To understand the scope of impact of these standards, it is important to distinguish that ACA accredits facilities on an individual basis, and of the 1,852 juvenile justice facilities in the United States, only 9.6% are accredited. This does not mean that states are without guidelines for recreation, we point this out only to make clear that there is not presently a national standard, legitimizing the need for this study.

At this point, we would like to acknowledge the implications of a review of state written authorities. There is a range of written authorities we found that provide guidelines for recreation in juvenile justice facilities and we have included an explanation of the terms used to identify written authorities to aid in the interpretation of our findings. However, due to the disparity of authoritative power each document has across states, it is a challenge to responsibly determine the level of regard of the types of written authorities. We will discuss this more thoroughly in the results of our screening.

There is variability of juvenile justice facilities in the country and within local jurisdictions. We recognize that states and locales have responded to juvenile crime in

creative ways appropriate to the immediate context, resulting in a range of treatment opportunities for young offenders that are dependent on their location. Furthermore, there are different governing bodies that influence operations depending on the type of facility. For example, recreation programming in a county detention center will likely look different than that of a high-security private juvenile correctional facility. This study is not reviewing the programs that are currently being operated; rather it is a review of the minimum requirements that states have outlined for juvenile justice facilities in their written authorities.

Economics of juvenile crime

The estimation of the lifetime cost of a criminal is estimated to be between \$2.1 and \$3.7 million dollars (Weinstein et al., 2014). There is no consensus of how to calculate the losses of a victim and the costs of crime. The “bottom-up” approach calculates this by taking into account the costs for victims, criminal justice, and production losses (Weinstein et al., 2014). Victim-related costs include “lost productivity, pain and suffering, lost quality of life, etc.,” and criminal justice costs are the “police, courts and corrections” (Weinstein et al., 2014). Additional costs from juvenile offending include policing, trials, sentencing, incarceration, parole, probation, victim restitution, medical care, and tax revenues (Belfield & Levin, 2009). Belfield and & Levin (2009) describe additional losses come from the cost to victims, avoidance costs by victims, and productivity losses. Weinstein et al.’s (2014) evaluation of multiple methods of cost assessment includes the “top-down” approach to estimating the cost of crime that involves accounting for crime, constrained behaviors, and remaining

community costs. Cohen et al. (2004) reported the average household was willing to pay \$104 for a 10% reduction in burglary and \$146 for a 10% reduction in murder. DeLisi et al. (2010) estimated that the average cost per murder is upwards of \$17.25 million when combining victim and societal costs. Nagin et al. (2010) found that the public was willing to pay for rehabilitation for youth if reduced crime rates were guaranteed.

Recreation, Youth Development Juvenile Delinquency

Given that up to 40% of a young person's day is considered "leisure," and the average adult has approximately 5.7 hours of leisure per day, it is imperative that young people are equipped with the skills and abilities to use this time responsibly (Caldwell & Witt, 2011; Russell, 2009). Recreation programs have long since been the response to juvenile delinquency. In 1926, the police chief in Los Angeles argued for the provision of playgrounds in urban spaces as "more essential to the police department than any other agency dealing with our citizens" (Caldwell & Witt). In 1955, the Los Angeles Times reported that for the cost of incarcerating one youth for a year, "wholesome recreation" could be provided for 100 children at a municipal playground (Caldwell & Witt, 2011).

Brenda Robertson (2001) explains that it is the responsibility of the juvenile justice institution to return youth to their communities as "better functioning individuals," which includes possessing the knowledge and ability to properly use their free time.

In responding to juvenile delinquency in a manner that is aligned with positive youth development, it is essential to speak directly with the young people being

impacted, to honor their agency and respect their voice, affirming that they are more than a problem to be solved (Witt & Caldwell, 2005). In studies that have been done surrounding recreation in correctional settings, the incarcerated adults and youth have been asked what they believe would be helpful to keep them from re-offending. When asked what internal programs are the most helpful, 47.4% of youth reported that *recreational activities* are “Very Helpful,” and only 3.2% of youth describing them as “Not Helpful” (Killian, Brown & Evans, 2002). Additionally, *arts and crafts* and *books & reading materials* were identified as “Very Helpful” by 39.4% and 47.6% of youth, respectively (Killian et al., 2002). In Australia, adult inmates reported increased happiness, improved sleeping, reduced smoking, and reduced stress, anxiety and tension (Gallant, Sherry, & Nicholson, 2014). Participants identified the program as an outlet for anger and aggression and believed that participation would help them avoid recidivating (Gallant et al., 2014). The young people that participated in a study done by Brenda Robertson (2001) described their involvement in delinquent activities as a means to “build a connection with others, get a rush, and be challenged.” Each of these desires articulated by young people can be met through quality recreation programs.

Using recreation and leisure to promote Positive Youth Development

Recreation is grounded in the principle of re-creating and restoring oneself (Kelly & Freysinger, 2000, p.18). One of the basic tenants of recreation is that it brings personal satisfaction and is done during one’s free time (Russell, 2009). One individual may sign up at a gym for a rock-climbing trip as a recreational pursuit, but for the person leading

the excursion, the trip is work and not recreation. Recreation is activity-based, whereas leisure may not require physicality.

Caldwell and Witt (2011) describe leisure activities as those in which young people are self-reflective and experience freedom. Leisure defined by Cohen-Gewerc and Stebbins (2007) is "un-coerced activity undertaken during free time" (p. 1). The simplicity of this definition presents challenges to achieve a universal definition because the inherent nature of leisure is unique to the individual (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999). Leisure does not necessarily have to be an active activity. A person might decide to sit in the sun during their leisure time, and while this may sound undesirable to another person, if it is un-coerced and brings satisfaction, it qualifies as leisure. Robert Stebbins (2005) challenges the notion that leisure is defined on individual choice, saying that individuals only have the perception of choice, but do not have complete freedom because of the barriers that limit their choices contingent on where they are situated. There remain semantic debates within the academic community surrounding the nuances of the definitions of leisure and recreation and we will discuss the implications brought on by the challenges of defining recreation and leisure in the results of this study.

The outcome for youth in recreation programs in multiple studies found that youth with more risk factors gained more from the program than their counterparts with fewer risk factors (Weinstein et al., 2014). We know that 75-93% of the young people that are involved in the juvenile justice system have experienced trauma and have more risk factors, and incarceration itself is a traumatic experience (Adams, 2010); Burrell, 2013). The impact of trauma on development is only beginning to be realized with the

advances of technology and depth of understanding from neuroscience. Trauma impedes development of the brain that poses an added challenge for youth to develop the ability to judge risks and rewards (Geidd, 2015). Risk taking behavior is most likely to occur when youth are experiencing high emotion, peer pressure, and they believe there will be an immediate reward (Winters & Arria, 2011). Recreation programs have the potential to appropriately respond to the trauma that young people, particularly those from marginalized communities, have experienced. Specifically, the presence of a consistent and caring adult in the life of a young person can be a buffer for stress and reduce the impact that trauma has had on the brain (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2015).

While the principles of Positive Youth Development that we have just discussed are applicable to all youth development programs, it is important to clearly establish why it is so important that juvenile justice facilities have quality recreation programs. The cost of programs includes start-up costs, operations, facilities, and costs associated with capacity building like planning, evaluation, training, transportation, etc. (Weinstein et al., 2014). Another barrier to determine an accurate cost of afterschool programs is the failure to include in-kind resources that can make up to 40% of total program costs (Beckett, 2008; Weinstein et al., 2014). The hourly cost of an afterschool program can range from \$3 to \$9, however the actual cost incurred by programs is slightly lower because the number of youth enrolled in a program is greater than the number of youth who attend each day (Grossman, Lind, Hayes, McMaken, & Gersick, 2009).

Studies that look at the fiscal benefits of afterschool programs conclude that the financial return for a program that serves 100 young people over four years costs \$1,118,000 and has a return of \$28,437 per child, or \$3.68 for every dollar spent (Hahn, 1994). These figures were contrived by measuring the value of a high school degree, two-year degree, a four-year degree, and having fewer children as a parent (Weinstein et al., 2014). In Los Angeles, a program evaluation of the LA BEST Afterschool Program estimated the cost per child was \$568, made up of direct program costs, volunteers, and administrative costs (Goldschmidt & Huang, 2007). They found the return on each dollar spent yields a benefit of \$2.50 by calculating the costs of adjudication, probation and costs incurred by victims (Goldschmidt & Huang, 2007).

On the other hand, the cost of incarceration of a young person who has made contact with the police at least six times, a group that commits 50% of all crimes, is between \$4.2 and \$7.2 million (Weinstein et al., 2014). If a 14-year old with six or more contacts with the police ceases to commit crime, there is a lifetime savings between \$3.2 and \$5.8 million (Weinstein et al., 2014). There is clear financial incentive to promote preventative recreation programs.

The provision of recreation services is essential to the successful rehabilitation and reintegration of incarcerated youth. Quality youth recreation programs are a cost effective mechanism to enhance positive development and produce outcomes that benefit the young person, their family, the community and the public. Recreation programs that are developmentally appropriate enhance the presence of protective factors in a young person that enable them to appropriately negotiate circumstances they

will encounter in the juvenile justice facility and upon return to their communities. This study is the first step to understanding how recreation is currently being provided for in the United States by reviewing the written authorities of recreation in each state.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Methods

To review the current state of recreation in the U.S. juvenile justice system, the methodological approach was to conduct a systematic review of the written authorities that exist in the 50 states.

Database

Data collection was conducted by searching each state's respective juvenile justice website as well as the LexisNexis Academic and Thomas Reuters Westlaw databases.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

In order to keep the review manageable, it was limited in several ways. First, this study was limited to the 50 states in the United States of America and did not include any territories controlled by the US. Second, only written authorities that were available at the time of data collection have been included. Each state has a unique organizational hierarchy and youth placement process based on the criteria they screen for. As a result, not all placement options are available in every state. The findings of this study therefore are general and do not target a specific facility type or security level. Finally, during this process it was discovered that some states contract out residential facilities or delegate the responsibility of developing recreation guidelines to the individual facility. In states where care is contracted out, the written authorities for justice-involved youth were the

same for foster care homes and other out of home child placements. These sites were included in the study.

Survey Development

A broad categorization of public written authorities relevant to this study were utilized for understanding the conceptualization and use of recreation in juvenile justice facilities. To begin with, a framework for understanding “written authority” was developed to structure the review and to make sense of the large and diverse policies. In order to keep our review manageable given the large amount of written authority data possible, each document was reviewed by the researcher utilizing a survey developed in Qualtrics that captured archival data elements. These elements included: the department affiliation, type of written authority, stated purpose of recreation program, terms that were used in the written authority, definitions used for recreation, leisure & exercise, a daily or weekly mandatory minimum of time for recreation, staffing qualifications, whether or not specific activities are required, whether or not specific activities are prohibited, whether or not there is designated space for recreation, whether or not outdoor time is required, exceptions to providing recreation services, and special guidelines for weekends and holidays.

Data Analysis and Reporting

The data from the survey document review was exported to Microsoft Excel for further analysis.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Question 1

An analysis of the fifty states was conducted to evaluate the presence and content of written authorities. Each of these documents was analyzed through a survey to arrange the data that was used to create this research study. First, the survey provided an overview of the departments that juvenile justice agencies belong to. In addition, this study was established to provide a conceptual understanding of how varying states define the words *recreation*, *leisure*, and *exercise*. Finally, the survey captured whether or not which, if any, of the three concepts were found in each of the documents, and whether or not a definition was provided.

State Departments & Agencies

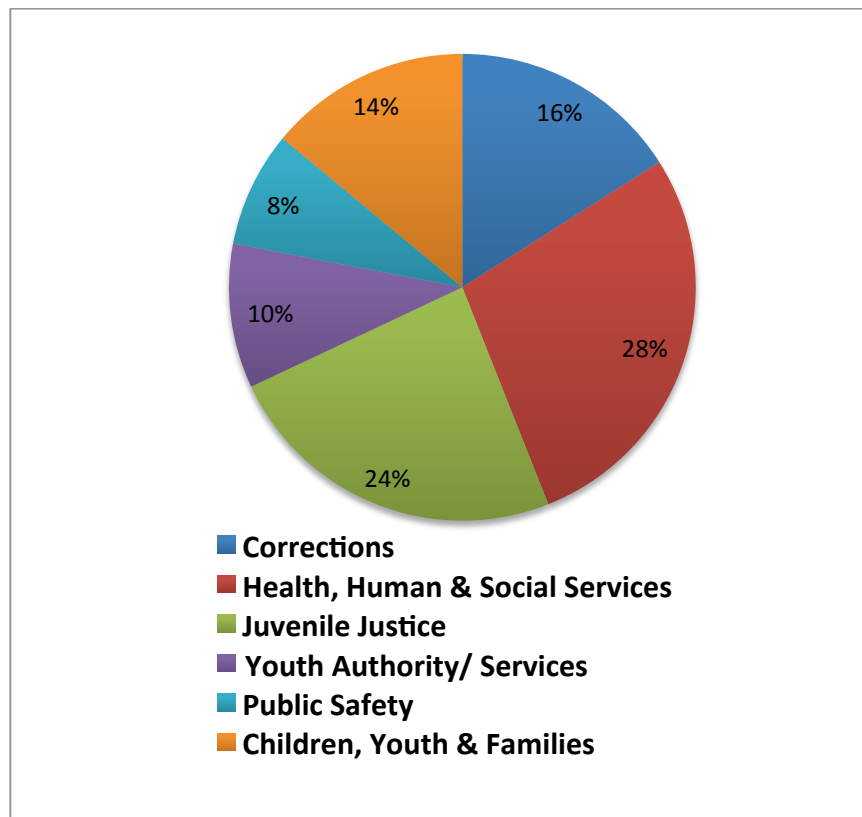


Figure 1 Juvenile justice agencies by department affiliation

The state departments and agencies that handle juvenile justice detention vary across states, as seen in Figure 1. Over half of all states are housed in departments of Health, Human and Social Services, and Juvenile Justice. Although there are only twelve independent state agencies found in this study, many states have established Offices and Commissions for juvenile justice within larger departments.

Variation in (or “Types of”) Written Authorities

To provide a foundation of understanding and establish common language with which to communicate the findings, a brief introduction to the definitions of the legal terms found is discussed. I also want to be clear that the types of documents are not labeled equivocally. Written authorities were categorized into types based on the title of the document. Additionally, states attribute varying levels of significance to each type of authority. For this reason, it is difficult to compare the legal weight of written authorities across states.

Administrative Code

Administrative Codes are created by an office or agency of the state that has been granted authority by the legislature (Tobacco Control Legal Consortium, 2015). Administrative codes have the effect of law and are made up of rules and regulations (Tobacco Control Legal Consortium, 2015). These rules and regulations are the agency’s interpretation of the law. The implementation, enforcement, and penalties may vary between statutes and administrative codes. Administrative codes make up the largest single category of written authority in this study.

Standard

Duhaime’s Law Dictionary (2017) defines a *standard* as “the technical or performance specifications in regards to a product.” Standards are developed by the state as well as governing bodies that include professional associations. The American Correctional Association (ACA) establishes the set of standards included in this study.

Four states identified that they used these standards as their written authority exclusively; while it likely that there are more states that use these standards.

Statute

Statutes are laws that have been enacted by a legislative body (Tobacco Control Legal Consortium, 2015). Animal Protection of New Mexico (2017) explains that statutes are applied throughout the whole state and are the highest legal authority behind the constitution. Statutes cannot violate the state or federal constitution or federal law. Statutes are permanent acts of legislation and differentiate from laws that are sometimes temporary.

Regulation

Regulations are issued by a state agency in order to carry out the laws and policies (Animal Protection of New Mexico, 2017). Regulations guide the activities of an agency and ensure uniformity. Regulations have the effect of law yet are designed to allow for flexibility that includes the opportunity for public input (Animal Protection of New Mexico, 2017). Regulations are useful to provide information regarding the implementation of a policy or statute by outlining the details such as who, where, when, etc.- essentially, rules that have been approved by the legislature (Key Differences, 2015).

Rule

A *rule* is an established standard or guide that governs the conduct, procedure, or action of an individual or organization (Key Differences, 2015). Rules are established by

individuals, agencies or organizations but are not approved by the legislature, and therefore are not legally binding (Key Differences, 2015).

Policy

Policy is a broad term that communicates the intention of the government. Laws are the procedures that are established to implement the goals of the policy. Policies are documents that do not have the legal authority that laws carry (Tobacco Control Legal Consortium, 2015).

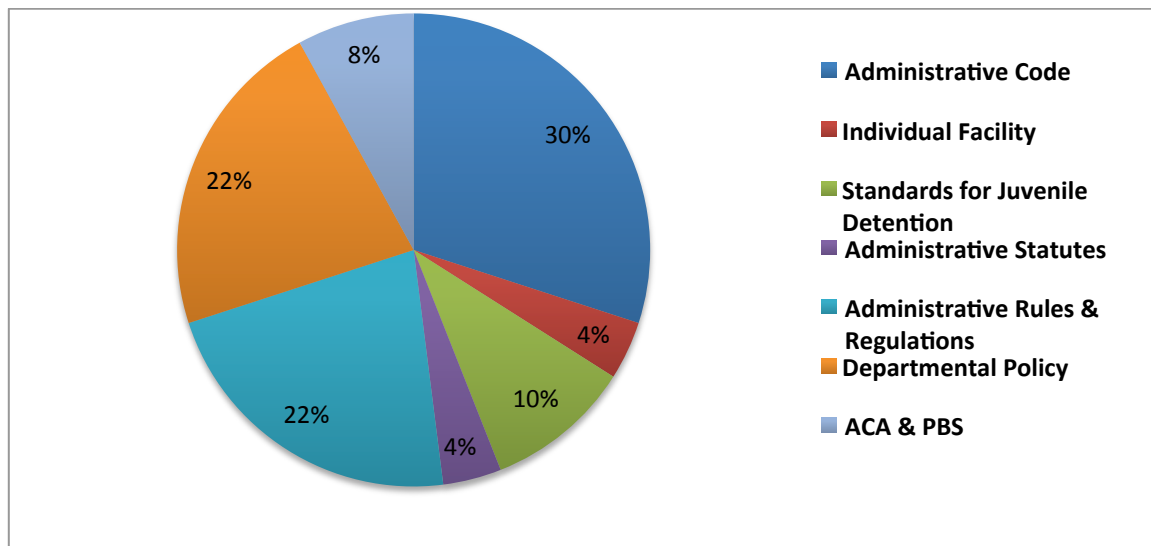


Figure 2 Types of written authority

Administrative codes were the most common type of written authority among the 50 states, followed by *Administrative Rules & Regulations* and *Departmental Policies*. Ten percent of states had approved *standards* for juvenile detention facilities, and eight percent cited standards from an external organization as their written authority. Four percent cited standards from an external organization as their written authority. Four percent of states designated out the responsibility to the individual facilities. Another

four percent of states have included recreation requirements in the administrative statutes. It is significant that 34% of states do not have a written authority that has been approved by a legislative body and has legal effect while only four percent are included in the highest written authority of the state. Figure 2 displays the different types of written authorities that were found in the document analysis.

How does the purpose of recreational activities in juvenile detention services differ across the 50 states?

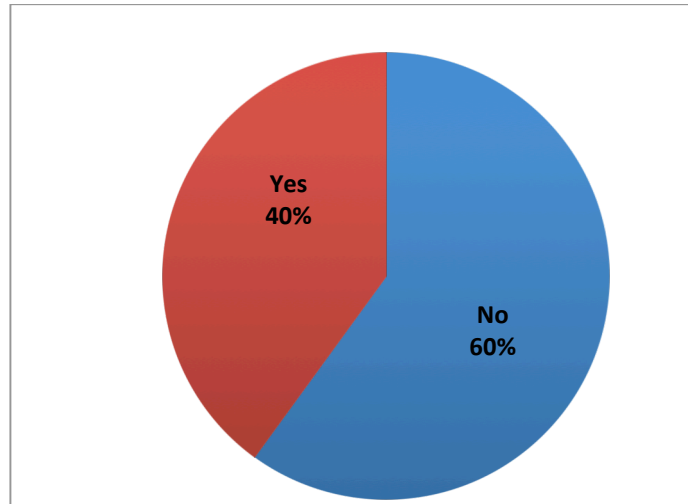


Figure 3 Percentage of states with stated purpose in written authority

The intention of this paper was to identify how *recreation* is being used in juvenile justice facilities, however we discovered that the terms “leisure” and “exercise” were used interchangeably throughout the documents. Based on this discovery, we decided to expand our analysis to include those terms when they appeared in the documents in place of recreation. Twenty states included the purpose of recreation within juvenile detention centers in their governing documents as shown in Figure 3. The purpose statements were coded to identify commonalities and generate themes; as well as unique reasons for recreation were also noted.

Theme (n=20)	State	%
Promote Health, Wellness	AL, AZ, CO, GA, LA, MD, ME, MI, MS, NH, OR, TN, UT	65%
Character Development	CO, IL, MI, NC, NH, OR, FL	35%
Alleviate Idleness & Boredom	CA, CO, GA, LA, OR, NH	30%
Teach New Leisure Time Skills	CO, GA, LA, NH	20%
Improve Self-Esteem	OR, NH	10%
Maintain Good Morale	GA, LA	10%
Meet Needs	MN, NM	10%
Meet Interests	MN, NM	10%
Incentivize Good Behavior	NC	5%
Assessment In Natural Environment	NH	5%
Educational	FL	5%
Non-Punitive Environment	NJ	5%

Table 2 Themes found in purpose statements of written authorities

The promotion of health and wellness is cited as the most common purpose for recreation within juvenile correctional facilities (65%) of those with a stated purpose. These states include Alabama, Arizona, Colorado, Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, Maine, Michigan, Mississippi, New Hampshire, Oregon, Tennessee, and Utah. Character development was coded in 35% of purpose statements and includes concepts like sportsmanship, cooperation, and social skills. For example, the state of Illinois indicated “activities must be used in a total time schedule to enhance sportsmanship, the ability to participate as a team member, leadership qualifications, coordination, anger threshold, acceptance by peers, and other personal characteristics.”

The states that indicated meeting “needs” as a reason for recreation do not specify what “the needs” of the young people are that are being met through the

recreation programming. Three examples of purpose statements are included to display the variability of purpose statements among the twenty that had them. It is worth mentioning again that although some states have poor definitions and purposes, 60% of the states do not have any.

State	Purpose Statement	Written Authority
New Hampshire	a. Develop healthy interests; b. Enable the program staff to assess the child in a natural environment; c. Teach ways to spend leisure time; d. Develop social skills and peer interaction skills; e. Provide a positive outlet for aggressive energy; and f. Build self-esteem.	<i>New Hampshire Code of Administrative Rules Ch. He-C 6300</i>
Maryland	Promote physical and mental health.	<i>Maryland Standards for Juvenile Detention 4.5</i>
New Mexico	Meet the needs of juveniles of various ages, interests and abilities.	<i>New Mexico Juvenile Detention Standards Title 8 Ch. 14 Part 14</i>

Table 3 Examples of state purpose statements

New Hampshire is an example of a state that includes soft skills as a goal of recreation programming in addition to physical health. The other two examples from Table 3 use broad terms but do not acknowledge the range of benefits that young people can gain from participating in recreation programs. While each of these two purpose statements have potential for being the foundation of quality recreation programs, it is likely that these programs do not receive the same amount of resources and support and

are more likely to be impacted by budget cuts if the intentions of the program are not explicitly stated in comparison to states like New Hampshire.

How is Recreation defined?

Recreation is defined as “organized activity with the purpose of the restoration of the wholeness of mind, body, and spirit” (Kelly & Freysinger, 2000, p. 18). The historical root of the word leisure is to “re-create,” and implies that a restorative process is taking place. As different as people are, so is the range of activities that qualify as recreation. There is no definition that is universally accepted, and part of the challenge is that an activity that one individual may consider enjoyable may feel like work for another person. (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). There are certain elements however that are considered essential in order to qualify as recreation, including that it must be an activity that involves action, is being done for the personal satisfaction of the individual and takes place during their free time (Brightbill, 1960; Russell, 2009).

Four of the fifty states have included some type of definition pertaining to recreation in their written authorities. Minnesota is unique in that it does not outline the activities that qualify for recreation, only the space in which it is designated to occur. Oregon offers the most inclusive and comprehensive definition. The traditional definition of recreation by Kelly (2000) captures the essence of Oregon’s definition and as you will see reflects aspects of the academic understanding of leisure. When compared to definitions utilized in the field of recreation, Oregon’s definition includes key concepts like *choice, satisfaction, and human development*. The Oregon definition of recreation is broad and can be argued that it more accurately describes leisure activities, however that observation in itself is an indication of the challenges in defining the concepts of recreation and leisure. Table 4 provides three examples of definitions

range of definitions across states. The fourth state with a definition of recreation only included designated space requirements for activities and did not include a description of activities.

State	Definition	Source
Oregon	Any play or leisure activity in which offenders participate, either structured or unstructured. Recreation activities are intended to refresh, offer sport, and/or pastime. Recreation is all those things that a person or group chooses to do in order to make leisure time more interesting, more enjoyable, and more personally satisfying. Purposeful recreational activities can be used to develop physical, cognitive, social, and emotional skills in juvenile settings. Such activities provide positive reinforcement and provide healthy pro-social alternatives to boredom and illegal behavior. Recreation develops concepts of cooperation and sportsmanship.	Oregon Administrative Code 416-500-0010.
West Virginia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Active Recreation</u>: utilizes large muscle movement including basketball, ping pong, volleyball, aerobic activity, walking, etc.; • <u>Passive Recreation</u>: done during leisure time including video, board and card games, television time, reading, arts and crafts, etc.; • <u>Therapeutic Recreation</u>: combines exercise with meaningful learning opportunities to improve or maintain physical, mental and emotional well-being by teaching social and/or coping skills in an effort to reduce depression, stress and anxiety 	West Virginia Division of Juvenile Services Policy Number 507.00
Georgia	Large muscle development through physical exercise.	Georgia Dept. of Juvenile Justice Policy Number 18.2

Table 4 State definitions of recreation

How is Leisure defined?

Georgia is the only state that includes a definition of leisure in its written authority as “leisure activities: structured time that promotes creativity and socialization.” The understanding of leisure put forth by Georgia contains aspects that leisure scholars may contest, although there is no single definition. A few of the key components that make up leisure outlined by Kelly and Freysinger (2000) are free time, an activity or non-activity, a state of mind, and a dimension of life. While each of these approaches towards defining leisure have multiple views, the central idea is that leisure is “freedom to” engage in an activity un-coerced, that is meaningful and enjoyable to an individual instead of “freedom from” specific contexts like work or home life (Kelly & Freysinger, 2000, p. 16; Stebbins, 2005). While creativity and socialization may be an outcome of leisure participation, in order to be leisure, the young people in the detention centers must engage in the activity of their own volition.

The idea of leisure and its role in adolescence is further complicated with the use of “unstructured” and “structured” time as it applies to the daily requirements for leisure and recreation among the juvenile detention center detainees. No definitions of “unstructured” or “structured” leisure time were provided. Maryland requires organized sports and games, small group leisure activities, creative activities and quiet individual activities be available to young people, and that activities be adapted if necessary. “Structured leisure time,” if structured appropriately, will provide opportunity for the young people to receive many of the benefits that were described earlier in the discussion of the benefits of recreation programs for youth that include hard and soft

skills. Aside from the phrases “organized” and “scheduled” there is not an indication of what differentiates “structured” activities from “unstructured” activities. California provides examples of “unscheduled activities” like reading, television, radio, music and video games, and Kansas requires that books, arts and crafts supplies, and current magazines be available to youth.

Recreation has been used to define leisure primarily through identifying the activity that someone engages in their free time (Russell, 2009). The structure and activity that are inherent to recreation differentiates it from play, which is spontaneous and provides immediate pleasure, and rest, although all are considered leisure (Brightbill, 1960). Although it cannot be planned, play is a catalyst to brain development and helping children gain the ability to make decisions, process information effectively, organize their thoughts and plan appropriately, and develop emotionally (Jacoby-Garrett, 2016). Early neuroscientists interested in the effects of play found that 90% of adult violent offenders experienced some type of “play abnormality” or “play deprivation” when they were a child and the size of the brain of these individuals is 20-30% smaller than the average adult (Frost, 1998). The best case scenario is that this unstructured leisure time is intended to allow play to happen; unfortunately that cannot be confirmed based on the information found in the written authorities. It should be noted that play can also occur during recreation time, depending on the activity as the essence of play is that it is free from constraints, including those that may be present in recreation (Russell, 2009).

Unstructured leisure has the potential to be very effective to the development of young people and the rehabilitative efforts of juvenile justice facilities. Establishing a definition of leisure helps the service providers to ensure that the programs and activities they are offering are aligned.

How is Exercise defined?

The World Health Organization (2017) defines exercise as “a subcategory of physical activity that is planned, structured, repetitive, and aims to improve or maintain one or more components of physical fitness.” The daily guidelines for children and youth between the ages five and 17 that are recommended by WHO are “at least 60 minutes of moderate to vigorous-intensity activity daily” and “should include activities that strengthen muscle and bone, at least three times per week” (WHO, 2017). These guidelines are important to recognize as a minimum standard for young people of all demographics to promote healthy growth and development. Two states have provided definitions of exercise, Utah and Georgia. Georgia defines exercise as “increased aerobic activity that stimulates and improves physical and mental health through the use of large-muscle activities such as walking, jogging in place, basketball, and isometrics.” Both specify “aerobic” in their definition of exercise and provide examples of activities that meet the qualifications for aerobic activity. Utah defines aerobic activity as cardiovascular endurance exercise that involves an equal supply and demand of oxygen in the working muscles. Aerobic exercise involves moderate intensity for prolonged duration i.e., at least 20 minutes. Examples of aerobic activity include: jogging, swimming, cycling, rowing, stair climbing or hiking, rhythmic dance etc.” Utah also defines muscular resistance exercise as “a strength training exercise that encourages muscular development.”

Recreation, leisure and exercise are the three terms that were found throughout the written authorities. Ninety-six percent of states include *recreation* in their written

authority, 60% use the term *leisure*, and 56% of written authorities used the word *exercise* in their document. Unfortunately, only 8.3% of states that used the term *recreation* included a definition, 3.4% of written authorities with the term *leisure* provided a definition, and 7.1% of states included a definition for *exercise* as shown in Figure 4.

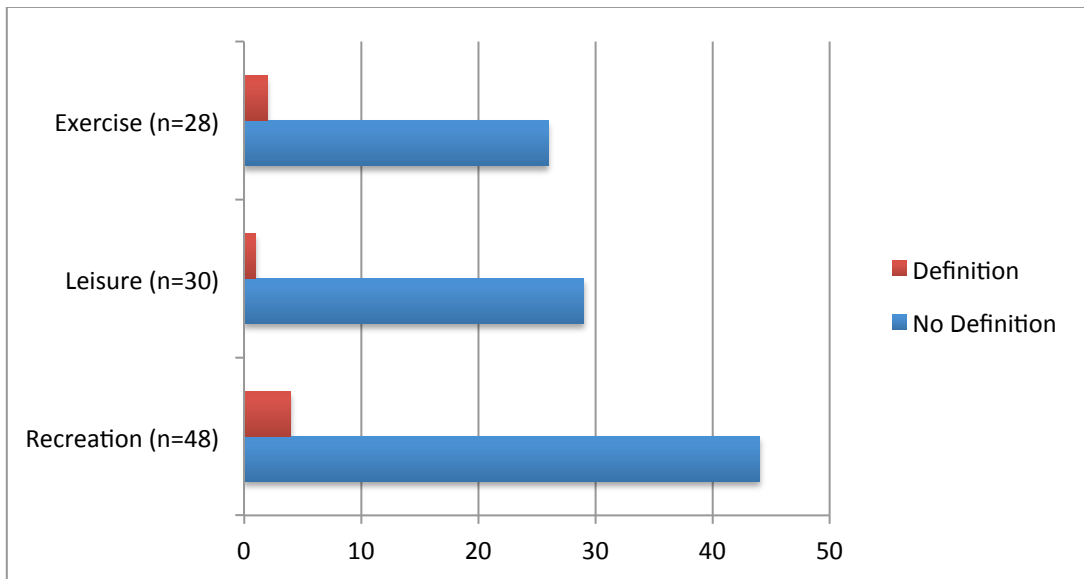


Figure 4 Number of written authorities with definitions

Overall, the number of states that provide definitions is disproportionate with the number of states that are using those terms. The lack of consensus among the written authorities presents a challenge in establishing a clear understanding of what activities are being offered to young people through the recreation program.

Question 2

In Question II, I ask the type, frequency, length and location of recreation that is allowed for youth while they are in placement at a juvenile justice facility. Various programmatic elements of recreation programs were screened for in the analysis. These elements help to describe the conditions of recreation programs in juvenile justice facilities. The *type* of recreation provides information about the nature of the activities that are being conducted (Table 5). In addition to identifying programs that must occur, some states also included prohibited activities and guidelines surrounding activities like television. The *frequency* of recreation examines how often the written authorities for states require recreation to be offered to youth. We screened for the *length* of recreation, or the duration of recreation programs and specific activities. The *location* of recreation is the space that is designated, if any for recreation program activities to occur. As you will see, some states include measurements of spaces for recreation, while others do not include this information.

Type

The type of recreation outlined by each state in their written authority varies from broad, inclusive terms to the requiring of specific activities. There are four states that do not include any guidelines in their written authority that outline specific activities that need to be conducted (8%). Table 5 displays the themes regarding the type of activities that occur during authorized recreation time based on states with specifications.

Type of Activity	States	%
Physical Exercise/ Active Activities	AK, AR, CA, KY, LA, MA, MI, MT,	38
	NC, ND, NE, NV, OH, SC, TN, UT, VT, WI, WV	%
Leisure/ Passive Activities	AK, CA, CO, ID, LA, MD, MA, MI,	30
	MS, NE, TN, WV, WI, WY, MT	%
Games	KS, MD, NM, NY, IA	10
		%
Arts & Crafts, Creativity	IA, KS, MD, WY	8%
Group	MD, NH, NM, VA	8%
Individual	MD, NH, VA	6%
Quiet Activity	MD, NM, NY	6%
Competitive	GA, NM	4%
Non-Competitive	CO, GA	4%
Adapted	MD	2%
Reading (Books, Magazines)	CA, KS	2%
TV (Regulations On News Programming & Movies)	CA	2%
Music	CA	2%
Video Games	CA	2%
Improve Exposure To Different Opportunities	DE	2%
Healthy Living	MA	2%
Social Awareness	CA	2%

Table 5 Types of activities described in written authorities

Physical exercise/ active activities are terms found in 38% of written authorities.

“Physical,” “Outdoor” and “Active” were all types of exercise that were found in the

documents. Utah includes the most specific types of physical activities that include stretching, aerobic exercise and muscular resistance exercises. Vermont specifies that recreation programs include gross motor activities for the young people. The majority of recreation activities included physical activities. LMA and LME are acronyms for “Large Muscle Activity” and “Large Muscle Exercise,” respectively, and are not included in the physical exercise and active activities category. The guidelines regarding LMA/LME will be discussed in a later section.

Examples of non-competitive activities were not found in the written authorities, however, Eccles and Gootman (2002) emphasize that it is important for recreation programs to include non-competitive activities that promote positive social bonding among peers.

The written authority of New Mexico includes that recreation programs must offer “competitive games.” There is no specification as to what games are considered “competitive” and whether or not the same activities can be done without being considered “competitive.” While non-competitive activities have positive benefits for young people, so does competition. Youth who participate in competitive activities report higher self-esteem and confidence, lower depressive symptoms, and greater enjoyment of the activity when they are participating as a group or team (Worrell et al., 2016).

Maryland and New Mexico both delineate that recreation time should include “quiet individual activities.” In these states, there is no requirement for young people to

be provided with books or magazines, but we presume these are the types of activities that would be considered a “quiet individual activity.”

In their respective written authorities, New Mexico requires “group play,” and Maryland requires “small group leisure activities” be offered to youth. Both states also include that the youth have opportunities to participate in competitive games (NM) and organized sports and games (MD). Although these activities are not specified to be “group” activities, it is likely that these activities are done in a group format. The number of youth that is considered a “small group” is not provided, however further research into the staff to youth ratios may provide further this information for each individual state.

As discussed previously, unstructured leisure time is made up of activities like “reading, television, radio, music, video and games” as described by the California Administrative Code. Some states provide even further guidelines for activities that involve media.

Prohibited Activities

Many states provided specific information regarding activities that are prohibited by the written authorities. Examples of these activities are shown below in Table 6.

What is most notable about the activities that are discussed is that Utah does not describe specific activities, but instead describes the nature or intention of activities that is not allowed. Activities that pose a high level of risk are those most often labeled prohibited.

Prohibited Activity	State
Boxing & Trampoline Activities	CO
High Chance Of Injury (Boxing, Tackle Football, Martial Arts, Weight Lifting, Etc.)	GA
Activities That Involve A Substantial Risk Of Injury	MI
Exercise As Punishment; Overly Intense, Beyond Abilities And Needs	UT
Free Weights, Softball, Tackle Football, And Horse Shoes	FL

Table 6 Prohibited activities identified in written authorities

Frequency

The frequency of recreation is the number of times a week youth are to be provided opportunities for recreation. Ten states do not specify how often recreation programming is required. This may be attributed to a number of reasons such as being contracted out or individual facilities setting their own requirements. Of the states we were able to obtain frequency data from, 35 of the 40 states had daily mandatory minimum recreation requirements and five states had weekly minimum standards (Figure 5).

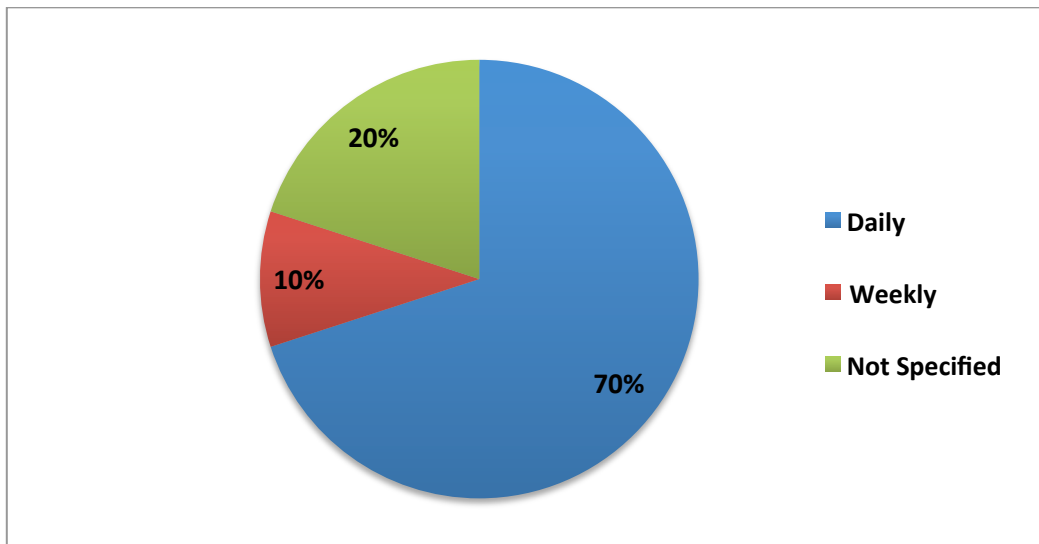


Figure 5 Frequency of recreation programming

There are 178 juvenile facilities that are accredited by the American Correctional Association in 25 states. While some states cite the American Correctional Association (ACA) as their written authority for recreation within juvenile justice facilities, accreditation by the ACA is done on an individual facility basis. There are 178 juvenile

facilities that are accredited by the ACA, a total of 9.6% of juvenile justice facilities in the United States. These facilities are located across 25 states. While not all juvenile facilities are accredited, these standards are significant because they provide standards for juvenile facilities across state jurisdictions. The American Correctional Association standards that require “*at least one hour per day of large-muscle activity and one hour of structured leisure-time activities.*” As you can see, the ACA standards mandate that time each day is allocated to recreation, similar to 70% of states.

Length

The length of recreation is how much time the written authority has specified that youth be provided the opportunity to participate in recreation programming. Thirty-five states include in their written authorities a minimum daily requirement for recreation. Again, the ACA standards require a minimum of two hours per day, one hour of LMA and one hour of structured leisure-time activities. Figure 6 displays the minimum hours that are required and Table 7 includes the time allotments for specific activities.

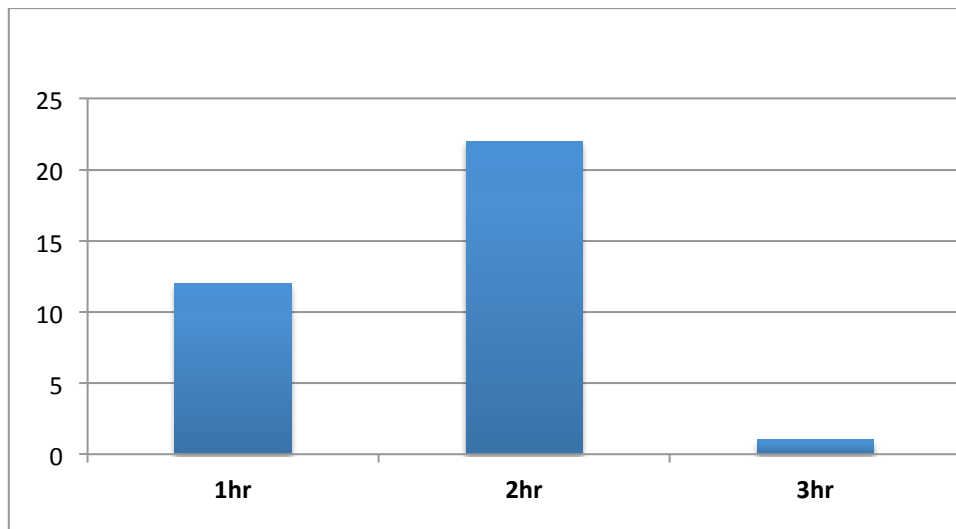


Figure 6 Daily minimum hours for recreation for 35 states

Activity	% of states
1hr LMA/LME	46%
1hr unstructured/ leisure	42%
1hr active/open/ out of cell	8%
30 min gross motor	2%
90 min major muscle group	2%

Table 7 Time specifications for activities

It is estimated that adults have 40 hours for leisure time each week, approximately 5.7 hours each day (Russell, 2009). Although it is probable that many adults would contest they do not have that amount of free time, that discussion is outside the scope of this paper. On average, young people in juvenile justice facilities are given 1.68 hours of recreation time each day. The purpose for pointing out the amount of leisure time adults in developed countries have is to raise the question of whether or not 1.68 hours each day is a sufficient amount of time allocated to recreation for young people in juvenile facilities to prepare them for five hours of leisure they will have as adults. Figure 6 displays the minimum amount of time day that youth are given for recreation in the 35 states that have a daily requirement. Five states do not have daily mandatory minimums and instead include weekly minimums. Those specifications are captured in Table 8 below.

State	Weekly Requirement
IL	heavily programmed for after school hours, evenings, weekends and holidays
NJ	150 min/ wk of PE
AK	3.5 hrs
UT	3-5 days/wk for minimum 45min
SC	regular basis

Table 8 States with weekly minimum recreation requirements

Weekends and Holidays

Eighteen percent of states have extended recreation requirements for the weekend and 10% have special recreation program requirements for holidays. California requires a minimum of five hours of recreation be offered on non-school days and Ohio recommends a minimum of ten hours on the weekends. Ten percent of states require that two hours of LMA/LME be offered on the weekends. The specifications for holidays match those that are given for weekends, although fewer states require extended programming.

Location

The specifications for the location of recreation programming within juvenile detention centers occur either in community or within the facility (inside or outside). Licensed community programs must go through an approval process outlined in the substitute care or other applicable policies. Figure 7 is an example of the procedures necessary to accommodate youth participation in community recreation. West Virginia policy states that it is the responsibility of the Facility Superintendent/ Director or designee to “coordinate the use of community recreational activities.” These duties are as follows:

- a. Staff will seek the cooperation of various community groups offering activities in the facility that benefit residents.
- b. Staff plan and promote activities for participation by residents in community programs and services.
- c. Staff within a secure perimeter facility must have prior approval from the Division Director or designee before taking and resident off grounds for any community recreational activity.

Figure 7 West Virginia recreation location specifications

Specifications of recreation space within the detention facility are more common and unique to each facility. Although more common, most states did not include this description in their requirements for recreation programming. The common language used to describe where recreation should occur is “outside the cell.” Illinois provides an example of specific special requirements designated for an “exercise area” seen in Figure 8.

- 2) Exercise Areas
 Facilities shall include an exercise room and a yard of sufficient area to allow strenuous physical exercise. Although highly desirable, this requirement may be waived for existing facilities.
- A) The exercise room must be at least 20 by 40 feet for facilities less than 60 rated capacity.
 - B) Facilities of 60 or more rated capacity shall have a standard size gymnasium.
 - C) Areas for outdoor yard exercise must provide at least 200 square feet of recreation space per youth with a minimum size of 3,000 square feet.
- 3) Comfort Facilities
 Drinking and toilet facilities shall be immediately accessible to youth off the play area of exercise rooms and outdoor yard areas.

Figure 8 Illinois recreation space specifications

Outdoor Time

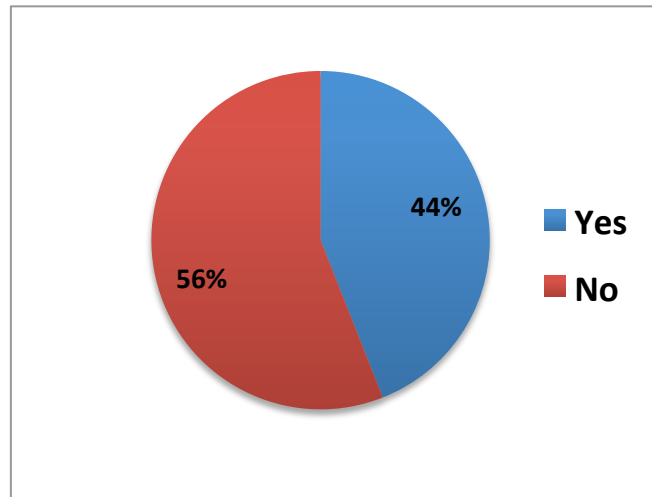


Figure 9 Percentage of states that require outdoor time

Another aspect of the discussion of the location of recreation programming is requirements for outdoor activity time. In general, all recreation programming was indicated to occur indoors. Figure 9 displays that just over half of all states require that youth are able to spend time in the outdoors. Outdoor recreation programming is required on the contingency that weather permits. This exception and others will be covered later.

Benefits of spending time outdoors include improved health, increased self-esteem, increased happiness and overall wellbeing (Barton, Bragg, Pretty, Roberts, & Wood, 2016). Youth from minority ethnic groups, 44% of the juvenile population, and low socio-economic status communities have the least amount of contact with the outdoors (Barton et al., 2015; OJJDP, 2013). This means that nearly half of the young people placed in a juvenile facility have likely never received the benefits that come

from regular contact with the outdoors, and only 44% of states require that youth have access outdoors that has the potential to enhance the rehabilitation treatment efforts.

Question 3

The previous section discussed the mandatory requirements for juvenile justice facilities to offer recreation to youth. This section discusses the reasons that have been outlined in the written authorities that justify youth being denied access to recreation by identifying whether or not the written authority includes circumstances that youth can be denied access to recreation time. It is essential to understand for those who are intending to evaluate how programs are being implemented. This analysis does not include the nuances of each exemption as that information was not included in the written authorities however are likely to be found in other sections of the written authorities.

Exception	% of states
Security	38%
Weather	30%
Medical/ Health	26%
Safety	10%
Discipline	8%
Behavior	6%
Segregation/ Isolation	4%

Table 9 Exceptions to recreation programming (n=28)

- mechanical restraints
- loss of privileges
- orderly management
- emergencies
- scheduled appointment
- extenuating circumstances

Figure 10 Other exceptions found in written authorities

- *room restriction*
- *resident-initiated separation*
- *protective isolation*
- *assessment isolation*
- *segregation*
- *specialized housing*

Figure 11 Other terms used to describe segregation and isolation

In reviewing the written authorities, we screened for justifications that qualify as exemptions to providing recreation to youth in detention. Fifty-six percent of states included at least one exception to the provision of recreation in their written authorities. Table 9 displays the six most common reasons that states allow for recreation services to be denied. Forty-four percent of states did not include any restrictions in the written code that exempt youth from the minimum recreation requirements.

Security is cited as the number one reason that facilities may limit youth's access to recreation programming. This is in reference to the security of the facility and restricting activities only to those that do not compromise the security of the facility. Without an explicit explanation, we speculate that the immediate threat to harm an individual is what differentiates security from safety. Weather is noted as another rationale for not providing young people access to recreation, particularly in outdoor settings, although not always specified. Only 15 of the 22 states that require outdoor time for young people have a weather-related restriction. Thirteen states included medical and health reasons as approved exceptions to not providing young people in placement recreation programming. Kentucky specifies that health exemptions must be reviewed on a "day-to-day basis." There were only seven states that indicated discipline and behavior were grounds for denying youth in detention access to recreation.

Two states discussed young people living in segregated living units, including isolation, as permissible reasons for youth not receiving opportunity to participate in recreation. This is likely to change as more states are changing legislation to eliminate the use of solitary confinement for young people to match federal legislation. Figure 10

includes additional exceptions that appeared only once in the analysis and Figure 11 displays the phrases that are used to describe the spectrum of isolation and segregation.

The most notable exception is the “loss of privileges,” reflective of the philosophy and attitude that recreation and leisure is a *privilege*, not a right. California includes the caveat in their Administrative Code that “access to programs can only be suspended for up to 24 hours and must include documentation.”

Advocates and policy makers alike are recognizing the developmental processes that are occurring during adolescence and the negative impact that solitary confinement has on these processes. Youth who are placed in solitary confinement are more likely to develop or have exacerbated mental health problems and frequently “exhibit anti-social behavior, self-harm and attempt suicide” (Scialabba, 2016). While there is a growing consensus of the detrimental effects of solitary confinement for youth, what is less clear is the amount of time and the services that should be provided to individuals who break the law. Gary DeLand discusses the on-going conversation of whether or not recreation for inmates is a right or privilege (2010). The Eighth Amendment of the Constitution bans the use of cruel and unusual punishment, and a subsequent court decision in 1981 provided parameters that ensure that inmates are not deprived of “the minimal civilized measure of life’s necessities,” requiring only exercise that produced health benefits be offered (DeLand, 2010; Rhodes, 1981). Focusing the conversation of whether or not recreation and leisure services are a right or a privilege has been a matter of opinion, however as more research is produced on the positive outcomes that result from

recreation programs, there will be a greater understanding that recreation programs are a social good and promote public safety.

It is a challenge to reconcile the principles of leisure with incarceration. A cornerstone of leisure is freedom, and in the United States achieving freedom is the “absolute pinnacle” (Rojek, 2010, p.1). Asking how to conduct quality recreation programs in a correctional setting is essentially asking how to restore freedom to individuals who do not have it. If recreation and leisure professionals want to advocate for better quality recreation programs in these types of settings, there must be greater research that emphasizes the extensive benefits that come from participation in programs for the greater community. Establishing recreation services as a privilege that can be easily revoked fails to recognize the importance of such programs. While structure and accountability is essential in a program to promote positive youth development (Eccles & Gootman, 2002), there must also be an understanding that young people will not receive those benefits if they are prohibited from participating. Implementing quality recreation and leisure programs within the juvenile justice context as part of the rehabilitative treatment process prepares young people to be responsible citizens and good stewards of their freedom when they return back to their communities.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

Primary Conclusions

After analyzing the written authorities for each of the 50 states of recreation programs within juvenile detention facilities, there are four main conclusions.

1. Inconsistent and absent definitions impose challenges to evaluate recreation programs in juvenile correctional settings.
2. Difference in written authorities impacts recreation programs.
3. Difference between recreation, leisure, and exercise is not clearly understood.
4. Benefits of recreation and leisure education programs are not widely understood.

Inconsistent and absent definitions impose challenges to evaluate recreation programs in juvenile correctional settings.

The first summative conclusion is that it is difficult to evaluate and compare recreation programs in juvenile facilities because there is not a consensus as to the purpose of each program and the meaning of recreation and leisure. Certainly there is overlap with the overall missions of the agencies, including rehabilitation and public safety, however in regards to recreation programs, as discussed previously, only 40% of written authorities have a stated purpose. Even the American Correctional Association, which has at least one accredited juvenile facility in half of the country, has standards that fail to articulate a purpose for recreation programming. As a result, there is a wide range of activities and goals for programming.

The absence of purpose creates opportunities for programs to be conducted without intention and results in missed opportunity for rehabilitation and promotion of successful reintegration. It is difficult to assess whether or not individual states are meeting their goals and how their success compares across states or even facilities within the same state. Without a purpose, there is limited accountability for facilities to provide quality recreation programs to the young people they serve. States that do not have a purpose communicate that they do not value recreation and the positive benefits that can come from participation. Only one state, New Hampshire, identified that recreation programming provided staff an opportunity to assess youth in a natural environment. This recognition is important because the nature of a correctional facility is to be different from the “free world.” Removing an individual from their community provides an opportunity for treatment, but treatment must recognize the influences that come from the community a young person is from and provide opportunity for the youth to learn to navigate that situation appropriately. Recreation programs are essential to the re-integration process in this sense, because they bring part of the community into the juvenile justice facility, and equip the youth with skills, attitudes and abilities that are transferrable when they go home.

Difference in written authorities impacts recreation programs.

The range of written authorities found in this study presented challenges throughout the collection process and has implications. As a result of each state’s juvenile justice agency being housed in a different department, the level of autonomy each agency experiences is different. This means that some states have the same

requirements for recreation in child foster-care homes and juvenile justice placement facilities. As a result, the guidelines that are provided are not necessarily developmentally appropriate. In order for rehabilitation treatments to be effective, they must be designed with regard to adolescent development. While we acknowledge there is value in allowing recreation staff at each facility to tailor programs to the needs and interests of the young people in their care, establishing a clear standard protects the quality of services that young people receive while in placement.

Difference between recreation, leisure, and exercise is not clearly understood.

It is clear from this study, and not a new discovery that recreation as a concept is largely misunderstood. While 48 states used the term “recreation” in their written authority, only four defined what constitutes recreation. A few activities are consistent in the written authorities, Large Muscle Activity/ Exercise, and structured or unstructured leisure time, but again, these terms are filled with ambiguity. Without understanding the nature of recreation, similar to the challenges presented by a missing purpose, it is difficult to identify whether or not what the young people are doing during this time is in fact recreation. While this may seem like an issue of semantics, it is a challenge as to whether or not states are aware of the language they are using and whether or not they are concerned with what happens during recreation time. At the risk of sounding redundant, it is difficult to evaluate a program and measure whether or not the activities and outcomes align with the goals of the program if the definitions of activities being assessed are not made clear. Understanding what is and what is not recreation or leisure is essential to protect recreation services and advocate that a quality program requires

dedicated personnel and resources. Recreation programs are vulnerable when they are not well understood, and part of communicating the importance of recreation in a juvenile justice facility is differentiating between recreation, leisure and exercise, and articulating the significance of each. This is not the exclusive responsibility of recreation staff in juvenile justice facilities or policy makers; researchers and professionals must continue to communicate the role of recreation, leisure and exercise as contributors to overall individual and community wellbeing.

Benefits of recreation and leisure education programs are not widely understood.

An additional conclusion from the evaluation is that the benefits of recreation and potential for positive youth development to occur in this setting are not widely understood. Clearly articulating the purpose informs the public and decision makers of the necessity and justifies ensuring youth receive these services when budgetary concerns arise. As of March 2015, the average cost to confine a young person in the United States for one day is \$401, leading to \$146,302 annual cost (Justice Policy Institute, 2015). While these figures are based on the most expensive placement option in 47 states that reported their figures, this is paid by tax payers and will not decrease unless fewer young people are being placed in confinement or innovative solutions to more effectively serve young people who come into contact with the juvenile justice system are developed. It is of paramount importance to include that successful recreation programs have far-reaching positive effects that go beyond the individual; communities are safer and public safety is improved when young people are involved in recreation programs.

In our study, we found that the average amount of time youth are given for recreation was 1.68 hours each day. In Turkey, young people in the juvenile justice system who are placed in the open-model prisons are encouraged to participate in a variety of extra-curricular activities once they have completed their schooling (McKinney & Salins, 2014). McKinney and Salins (2014) describe open-model prisons to be free from chains and fences that have become the visual expectation of American prisons. It is reasonable to suspect that there would be considerable pushback against removing the locks, bars and razor wire, symbols that have become images of justice; however the idea of reducing the harsh aesthetic and criminalizing features of juvenile justice facilities should be entertained based on the results Turkey has seen. The recidivism rates for open-model prisons in Turkey were 35% compared to Illinois, a state that utilizes closed-prisons, and that had a recidivism rate of 50% in the same year (McKinney & Salins, 2014). Turkey's approach to prepare young people in their juvenile justice system by extending them freedom in an environment with high accountability has proven to be effective and beckons American juvenile justice professionals to consider how these practices might be adapted in the United States.

Leisure education as described by Elie Cohen-Gewerc and Robert A. Stebbins (2007) is the process of helping "people find optimal leisure lifestyles by partaking of leisure activities that individually and in combination help them realize their human potential, leading thereby to self-fulfillment and enhanced well-being and quality of life" (p. 10). Equipping staff with the necessary education and experiences to become leisure educators is a critical step to enhancing the overall treatment program of the facility and

preparing young people for returning back to their communities. Leisure education can be particularly useful with this population where there is a high rate of young people with disabilities in the juvenile justice system (Burrell & Warboys, 2000). Leisure education within the disability realm has been recognized as successfully helping individuals develop decision-making skills, improve motor skills and provide opportunities for social interaction (Patterson, 2007). Patterson also describes that people with disabilities developed the competence to utilize recreation and leisure services in the community after participation in leisure education programs (2007). These goals are not in contention with the desired outcomes of the juvenile justice system. Learning how to adapt and apply these practices for system involved youth should be the goal of administrators and service providers alike.

Robertson (2000) explains the need for leisure education is compounded by the fact that people who are released from correctional institutions are more likely to be unemployed, and therefore will have more leisure time. While promotion of leisure education is an important piece of juvenile delinquency prevention, Robertson (2000) identifies specific outcomes of leisure education for incarcerated youth: develop acceptable outlets for stress, identify activities that are alternatives to substance addictions, foster interpersonal skills, enhance self-esteem, increased access to new social environments, foster new interests, develop self-awareness and appropriate avenues to satisfy personal needs, discover ways to overcome barriers to participating in an activity, develop problem-solving and decision-making skills, and develop interests that may lead to a career. All of these outcomes are congruent with the goals of juvenile

justice agencies that seek to promote public safety and rehabilitate youth. Public safety is contingent on juvenile justice systems effectively rehabilitating youth and ensuring successful re-integration. Quality leisure education in juvenile justice facilities is necessary for these goals to be achieved.

Recreation staff must be prepared to help young people develop interests and skills needed to participate in recreation programs. Providing leisure education may be of more importance to this population than many because of the opportunity to engage young people in positive recreation programs and prevent them from a future of crime. Only 17 states require in the written authority that there be a designated recreation staff person, and only eight states include the qualifications that the staff person must meet. Colorado's policy states that "a staff member(s) trained in recreation, recreation therapy or a related field shall be responsible for the planning, organizing, coordinating and/or supervising of activities, and shall provide a written plan for constructive recreational and leisure time activities." The seven other states have less extensive requirements that include full-time, trained and qualified. One state has the caveat that a staff person is only required in facilities where there is at least 50 youth. To put this in perspective, only 308 of the 1,852 facilities house 50 or more youth (OJJDP Statistical Briefing Book, 2016). Only in Colorado are the staff members compelled by the written authority to document the recreation program that is intended to be constructive. However, if a state is going to require that their staff members do this, they must make provisions that allow staff members to obtain the skills necessary to do this. It is essential that

designated recreation staff be given opportunities to access continuing education and trainings to improve the quality of recreation programming in facilities.

CHAPTER VI

RECOMMENDATIONS & FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Target Audiences

There are a number of recommendations based on the findings from the evaluation that was conducted. These recommendations and implications have been divided into five groups to reflect the different audiences they are intended for: policy makers, departmental administrators, service providers (facility staff and community agencies), researchers, and the general public. Overall, the future of recreation within juvenile justice facilities is dependent on effective communication between individuals, agencies, and in documentation. Each of these five groups has been identified based on their relationship to the juvenile justice system.

Policy Makers

As with any topic, it is advantageous for policy makers to consult experts and scientific research in order to produce evidence based policy. Policy makers should inform themselves on the basics of child and adolescent development, and the impact of recreation on development, recognizing that youth gain “intergenerational skills” through participation in recreation and sport, that will be useful when they return to their communities (Roe, 2015). Policy makers should ask their staff to conduct analyses to anticipate unintended outcomes. Policy makers should consult recreation and leisure experts, both in the field and academia, and challenge their fellow policy makers to produce evidence to support propositions. Policy makers should work with department

administrators, service delivery staff, system involved youth and community members to outline a purpose for recreation programs in juvenile facilities. Policy makers should work with recreation experts to define recreation and other key terms like leisure and exercise in their written authority. Policy makers and department administrators need to work together to ensure that service delivery staff have adequate access to continuing education opportunities. Like all written authorities, policy makers should invest in evaluation and continually reassess the current written authorities and be willing to advocate for necessary change.

Departmental Administrators

Departmental officials need to evaluate their policies and identify the strengths and weaknesses of their written authorities and internal policies regarding recreation within their residential facilities. In accordance with the written authority, each department needs to ensure that there is a clear purpose of the recreation program and assess whether or not the provisions for the recreation program align with the overall mission of the department. Like policy makers, department officials need to inform themselves of the importance of recreation programs and confirm that there is opportunity within the department for youth to gain the full benefits of the program. They can do this by visiting the placement facilities and meeting with the recreation department and youth. Establishing relationships with local universities, particularly those with a recreation department, is a way to generate potential volunteers and gain access to research. This responsibility for collaboration is not the sole responsibility of agency officials, but they should do their part to ensure that the structure of the

organization allows for beneficial collaboration. Departmental administrators should advocate for continuing education and training for the staff working with youth, especially training that includes information on trauma and adolescent development to help their staff better understand the young people they are working with. They should make sure that contact information for recreation programs and volunteering is accessible on their website should potential volunteers or community agencies visit the site to inquire about potential collaboration and involvement.

Direct Service Providers

The staff working with youth, both in community settings and juvenile facilities must be invited to be part of the treatment process. In order to be seen as a viable member of the treatment team, staff can provide a justification for activities and distribute to facility employees. If such a policy does not already exist, recreation staff should contact the facility manager or superintendent to establish guidelines that protect recreation time and services. Formulating this written documentation that outlines the procedures for denying youth recreation and highlights the significance of recreation to the treatment progress of youth should be distributed to all staff members and discussed as part of the training for all juvenile justice facility employees. Recreation staff can contact other facilities within the agency to network, and should be encouraged to do so by facility administrators. Staff should continue to ask the young people what they would like to learn and do during recreation time, and incorporate youth ideas into the program. Facility staff should ask for opportunities to participate in relevant conferences to gain new insight into youth development and continue to improve the programming

they provide. In addition to networking with other juvenile facilities, staff can reach out to local community recreation providers like the Boys and Girls Club, Boys Scouts, Girl Scouts, local religious centers, and community parks and recreation, to discuss potential partnerships. Another entity that recreation staff within juvenile justice can contact is the academic community. If there is a local college or university nearby, staff can contact youth and recreation oriented departments to establish a mutually beneficial relationship.

Local service providers in the community can also reach out to the facilities as well, recognizing that each entity can maximize their resources when working together. Local program staff can visit the juvenile facility and talk about the enrollment process for programs, recognizing the process will be slightly different in each community, but encouraging the young people to get involved when they return home, as well as ask what type of activities they would like to participate in when they are living in the community (Robertson, 2000). Building a relationship with the young people in placement to ask about the barriers they faced to participation in community programs will allow the local agencies to make immediate adjustments that will make local youth recreation programs more accessible (Robertson, 2000).

Researchers

One of the first actions to be done as a follow-up to this study is an examination of the implementations of these written authorities in juvenile justice facilities. This will provide insight into the level of fidelity of recreation guidelines in the field, identify challenges to implementation, and with time, practices will emerge as effective or ineffective. This will also bridge the gap between researchers and practitioners and

improve the outcomes of collaboration. It is essential for researchers to foster and invest in relationships with state agencies in order to be granted permission for conducting any type of research with this population by the university Institutional Review Boards. Another area that researchers need to invest in is the establishment of minimum standards that are developmentally appropriate. This is not in an effort to promote a political agenda, rather to promote safe and effective rehabilitation practices that serve the interest of all groups. In order to establish these standards, assessments need to be conducted that evaluate the outcomes of incarcerated youth participating in different recreation programs. In addition, evidence of an appropriate dosage of recreation programming is necessary, as are specific activities that are essential to the program's functionality. Another task that researchers are faced with that is worth mentioning again is the development and advocacy of leisure education within the community as prevention, and within juvenile justice facilities. To have a better understanding of the leisure lifestyles of young people in the juvenile justice facility and to ascertain the nature of the relationship between leisure behaviors and delinquency, if one exists, research needs to be done regarding barriers young people face to participation in community recreation programs. In this same vein, research that examines subsequent participation of young people in community recreation programs will contribute valuable information for leisure education developers and juvenile justice staff to better prepare young people for returning to their communities. Conducting longitudinal studies of youth in recreation programs will provide a breadth of knowledge and evidence to propel research in the recreation and juvenile justice fields.

Public

As more people understand the benefits of recreation, there will be more support in the communities and at the ballot box to protect programs. Funding and resources for recreation needs to be protected, but this can only happen when the importance of it is recognized and understood. Collaboration between all of the groups mentioned is essential for addressing any systemic need. The public also has an interest and opportunity to advocate for recreation programs within juvenile justice facilities. Contacting the volunteer coordinator with local detention and probation centers, or a higher-level security juvenile facility if one is nearby, and asking about the current volunteer opportunities is a good first step to becoming engaged with this population. Paperwork often runs through the volunteer coordinator and they have the ability to connect those interested to recreation staff. Many juvenile justice facilities of all detention levels aim to provide youth with mentors but face a shortage of willing volunteers. The limited budget of many recreation departments heightens the need for volunteers. As more individuals become engaged, there is a greater awareness and increases their ability to advocate for rehabilitation.

While working with a ministry or as a tutor may be the first roles that come to mind as a volunteer in a correctional setting, there are endless opportunities for involvement. A recent film documentary called *They Call Us Monsters* follows three young men in a juvenile correctional facility as they participate in a screen-writing class. Not only was the film-making process transformative for the young men, but it created

awareness around the practice of incarcerating youth, and in this case, incarceration for life. Facilitating opportunities for youth to separate themselves and reflect on their lives granted them a new perspective and the cultivation of empathy as they thought through a different lens. The volunteer who taught the class had no prior experience in working with this population, but he took a personal passion and shared it with the young men. This is an anecdotal example of the profound impact that recreation programs can have on youth in juvenile justice settings.

From a prevention standpoint, community members and parents can challenge their local school district officials to eliminate the “pay-to-play” policy, if it exists, or urge the board to make a commitment to protect against it. Pay to play policies require students to pay a fee to participate in extracurricular activities. Robert Putnam (2015) describes the challenges these policies impose on poor families that would have to spend between \$400 and \$1,600 each year, nearly ten percent of their household income for two children to participate (p. 180).

Religious communities can set aside scholarship funding for young people to participate in recreation programs, especially in school districts where there is a “pay to play” policy in effect. Another way for religious communities to support recreation within juvenile placement facilities is to encourage members to volunteer with the recreation programs in juvenile facilities to be coaches, fans, and music and arts instructors. The type of mentorship that is likely to ensue can be extremely beneficial to the young people in placement. In addition to providing expertise, knowledge and manpower, church members can fill the role of a caring adult, helping combat the effects

of trauma. Perhaps engagement with religious communities while youth are in placement will lead to a greater likelihood they will be involved with a local religious group; this is a mere hypothesis that has not been proven but is a relationship that should be further investigated. If this is the case, the outcomes for youth are promising since youth engagement with the local church is linked to better relationships with adults, including parents, “high-performing peers,” greater involvement in extracurricular activities, and lowers the chance of involvement with substance abuse and delinquency (Putnam, 2015, p. 224).

Teachers, parents, service providers and youth should advocate for leisure education within schools and afterschool programs. As more art, music and physical education programs are eliminated, it becomes more important to provide teachers with the resources to be able to incorporate leisure education into their teaching. Developing and implementing leisure education curriculum that meet the needs of the young people, the school, and community should be a goal for the recreation, human development and education fields to prevent delinquency.

Conclusion

This study was conducted to establish a basis of understanding recreation within juvenile justice facilities in the United States. This assessment prompts each state to evaluate their policies pertaining to recreation, and begins the conversation between recreation researchers, practitioners and policy makers. It is our hope that this paper has increased awareness for the need for recreation and leisure education within juvenile justice and encourages a deeper examination of the implementation of these policies.

The choice is not between providing recreation to youth in juvenile justice or promoting public safety; we hope it is clear that in fact by providing recreation to youth in juvenile justice, that public safety is promoted.

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APPENDIX A

Data Table																	
STATE	AUTHORITY ^a	DEPARTMENT ^b	PURPOSE ^c	TERMS ^d	RECREATION DEFINED ^c	LEISURE DEFINED ^c	EXERCISE DEFINED ^c	DAILY MM	WEEKLY MM	STAFF ^c	STAFF QUALIFICATIONS ^c	REQUIRED ACTIVITIES ^c	PROHIBITED ACTIVITIES ^c	OUTDOOR ^c	EXCEPTIONS ^e	WEEKENDS ^c	HOLIDAYS ^c
AL	AC	YA	Y	R,L	N	N	N	1hr	-	Y	Y	N	N	N	S	N	N
AK	AC	HHSS	N	R,L,E	N	N	N	-	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	S,W	N	N
AZ	S	C	Y	R,L	N	N	N	2hr	-	N	N	N	N	Y	S,M, B	N	N
AR	S	HHSS	N	R,L,E	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	Y	N	Y	-	N	N
CA	AC	C	Y	R,E	N	N	N	3hr	-	N	N	Y	N	Y	S,W, Sf	Y	Y
CO	AR	HHSS	Y	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	S,W, H	Y	Y
CT	ACA	CYF	N	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	S,W, M	Y	N
DE	ACA	CYF	N	R,L	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	N	Y	N	N	-	N	N
FL	AR	JJ	Y	R,L,E	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	N	Y	Y	S,W, Sf,M	N	N
GA	DP	JJ	Y	R,L,E	Y	Y	Y	2hr	-	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	S,W	N	N
HI	AR	HHSS	N	R	N	N	N	-	-	N	N	N	N	N	-	N	N
ID	AR	JJ	N	R,E	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	Y	N	N	S	N	N
IL	AC	JJ	Y	R,L	N	N	N	-	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	-	Y	Y
IN	ACA	YA	N	R,L	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	N	Y	N	N	-	N	N
IA	AC	HHSS	N	R	N	N	N	-	-	N	N	Y	N	N	-	N	N
KS	DP	C	N	R,L	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	Y	N	Y	S,H	N	N
KY	DP	JJ	N	R	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	N	Y	N	N	H	N	N
LA	DP	JJ	Y	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	N	N	Y	N	Y	S,W, M,Sf	N	N
ME	DP	C	Y	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	N	N	N	N	S,W, Sf	N	N
MD	S	JJ	Y	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	S,W	N	N
MA	DP	YA	N	L,E	N	N	N	-	-	N	N	Y	N	N	-	N	N
MI	DP	HHSS	Y	R,L	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	Y	Y	N	S,M, D,E	Y	N
MN	DP	C	Y	R	Y	N	N	2hr	-	Y	N	Y	N	Y	S,W, M	N	N
MS	AC	HHSS	Y	R	N	N	N	-	-	N	N	N	N	N	-	N	N

MO	S	PS	N	R	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	Y	N	N	-	N	N
MT	AR	C	N	R,L,E	N	N	N	-	-	N	N	Y	N	N	S	N	N
NE	AR	HHSS	N	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	N	N	Y	N	Y	W	N	N
NV	S	HHSS	N	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	N	N	Y	N	Y	W	N	N
NH	AC	HHSS	Y	R,L	N	N	N	-	-	N	N	Y	N	N	-	N	N
NJ	AC	PS	Y	E	N	N	N	-	Y	N	N	N	N	N	-	N	N
NM	AC	CYF	Y	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	N	N	Y	N	N	W	N	N
NY	AR	PS	N	R	N	N	N	-	-	Y	N	Y	N	Y	-	N	N
NC	DP	PS	Y	R,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	N	N	Y	N	Y	B,M	Y	N
ND	IF	C	N	R	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	N	Y	N	N	-	Y	Y
OH	AC	YA	N	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	N	Y	N	N	-	Y	Y
OK	AR	HHSS	N	R,L	N	N	N	2hr	-	N	N	Y	N	Y	-	N	N
OR	AR	YA	Y	R,L	Y	N	N	-	-	N	N	Y	N	N	-	N	N
PA	AC	HHSS	N	R	N	N	N	-	-	N	N	N	N	N	-	N	N
RI	AC	CYF	N	R	N	N	N	-	-	N	N	N	N	N	-	N	N
SC	AS	JJ	N	R,E	N	N	N	-	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	-	N	N
SD	AR	C	N	R	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	N	N	Y	W,B	N	N
TN	DP	CYF	Y	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	Y	Y	N	N	-	N	N
TX	AC	JJ	N	R,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	N	N	Y	N	N	S,Sf, M,D	N	N
UT	DP	HHSS	Y	R,E	N	N	Y	-	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	-	N	N
VT	IF	CYF	N	R,E	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	Y	N	Y	Sf	N	N
VI	AC	JJ	N	R,E	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	Y	N	Y	M	N	N
WA	ACA	HHSS	N	R,L,E	N	N	N	2hr	-	Y	Y	N	N	Y	S,W, M	Y	N
WV	DP	JJ	N	R,L,E	Y	N	N	2hr	-	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	D	N	N
WI	AC	C	N	R,L,E	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	Y	N	N	S,D	N	N
WY	AR	CYF	N	R,L	N	N	N	1hr	-	N	N	Y	N	N	-	N	N

^aTypes of written authority were coded as AC=Administrative Code; DP=Departmental Policy; AR=Administrative Rule/Regulation; ACA=American Correctional Association Standard; IF=Individual Facility; S=Standards; and AS=Administrative Statute.

^b Departmental Oversight codes were PS=Public Safety; CYF=Children, Youth & Families; C=Corrections; HHSS=Health, Human & Social Services; JJ=Juvenile Justice; and YA=Youth Authority/Services.

^c Coded as Y=Yes and N=No.

^d Terms found in policies included R=Recreation; L=Leisure; and E=Exercise.

^e Reasons for exceptions to recreational participation by juveniles included S=Security; M=Medical; W=Weather; D=Disciplinary; Sf = Safety; B=Behavior; E=Emergency; and H=Health

APPENDIX B

Sources of Written Authorities	
State	Link
AL	http://www.alabamaadministrativecode.state.al.us/docs/ys/4ys9.htm
AK	http://www.touchngo.com/iglcntr/akstats/aac/title07/chapter052/section160.htm
AZ	http://www.dev.azcourts.gov/Portals/29/JJSD%20Publication%20Reports/DetentionStandards04202011.pdf
AR	http://www.dfa.arkansas.gov/offices/criminalDetention/Documents/proposedjuvenileStandards.pdf
CA	http://www.bscc.ca.gov/downloads/Juvenile_Title_15_Strike_Out_Underline_REVISIONS_effective_2014-4-1.pdf
CO	https://drive.google.com/file/d/0B32vshZrERKsQ2Z5S2dHN2hrR00/view
CT	https://www.jud.ct.gov/CSSD/StrategicPlan_2013-15.pdf /// emailed ACA standards
DE	ACA
FL	https://www.flrules.org/gateway/RuleNo.asp?title=SECURE%20DETENTION%20SERVICES&ID=63G-2.023
GA	https://www.gahsc.org/nm/2012/176361979DSO-Georgia%20Code%20and%20Federal%20Law.pdf ; Georgia Department of Juvenile Justice Policy #18.2
HI	http://www.capitol.hawaii.gov/hrscurrent/Vol07_Ch0346-0398/HRS0352/HRS_0352-.htm
ID	emailed http://www.idjc.idaho.gov/community-operations-program-services
IL	ftp://www.ilga.gov/JCAR/AdminCode/020/020026020002500R.html
IN	ACA
IA	https://www.legis.iowa.gov/publications/search/document?fq=id:490040&pid=702002&q=juvenile%20detention#441.105.10
KS	http://www.dcf.ks.gov/Agency/GC/FCRFL/Documents/FC_Regs_detention_secure/Regulations_for_Detention_Secure_Care.pdf ; https://www.doc.ks.gov/kdoc-policies/table-of-contents/view
KY	http://djj.ky.gov/200%20Policy%20Manual/DJJ%202008%20Youth%20Rights.pdf
LA	http://ojj.la.gov/ojj/files/file/Policy3%201-31-2014/C-Field/C%201%2012%20Leisure%20and%20Recreational%20Activities.pdf
ME	http://www.maine.gov/corrections/PublicInterest/policies.shtml#JuvenileFacility
MD	http://msa.maryland.gov/megafile/msa/speccol/sc5300/sc5339/000113/000000/000429/unrestricted/20040832e.pdf
MA	http://www.mass.gov/eohhs/gov/laws-regs/dys/policies/chapter-03-daily-living-policies.html
MI	https://dhhs.michigan.gov/OLMWeb/ex/JR/Mobile/JRM/JRM%20Mobile.pdf
MN	http://www.doc.state.mn.us/DocPolicy2/html/DPW_Display_TOC.asp?Opt=204.081.htm
MS	http://billstatus.ls.state.ms.us/documents/2012/html/SB/2500-2599/SB2598CS.htm
MO	https://www.courts.mo.gov/file/AppendixA-JuvenileDetentionStandards02-14.pdf
MT	http://www.mtrules.org/gateway/RuleNo.asp?RN=20%2E9%2E624
NE	https://1.next.westlaw.com.ezproxy.library.tamu.edu/Document/I2FEB59301C1811DFB450E92C604A2638/View/FullText.html?originationContext=documenttoc&transitionType=CategoryPageItem&contextData=(sc.Default)
NV	http://dcfs.nv.gov/uploadedFiles/dcfsvngov/content/Programs/JJS/JuvenileDetentionFacilityStandards.pdf
NH	http://www.gencourt.state.nh.us/rules/state_agencies/he-c6300.html
NJ	http://www.nj.gov/lps/jjc/pdf/13-93_Standards-for-Juvenile-Detention-Commitment-Programs_Readopted-080210.pdf http://www.nj.gov/lps/jjc/pdf/13-93_Standards-for-Juvenile-Detention-Commitment-Programs_Readopted-080210.pdf
NM	http://164.64.110.239/nmac/parts/title08/08.014.0014.htm
NY	https://1.next.westlaw.com.ezproxy.library.tamu.edu/Document/I57B2C368E61847EE8E22E01F60AA1BD9/View/FullText.html?originationContext=documenttoc&transitionType=CategoryPageItem&contextData=(sc.Default)
NC	DJJDP Youth Development Center Policy and Requirements and Procedures (R & P) Document 4.5

ND	https://www.nd.gov/docr/juvenile/rec/rec.html
OH	http://codes.ohio.gov/oac/5139-37-18v1
OK	http://www.oar.state.ok.us/oar/codedoc02.nsf/frmMain?OpenFrameSet&Frame=Main&Src=_75tnm2shfcdnm8pb4dthj0chedppmcbq8dtmmak31ctijujrgcln50ob7ckj42tbkdt374obdcli00_
OR	https://1.next.westlaw.com.ezproxy.library.tamu.edu/Browse/Home/Regulations/OregonRegulations?guid=I339F3700933C11E38311180373BC2DDF&transitionType=DocumentItem&contextData=(sc.Category)
PA	http://www.pacode.com/secure/search_results.asp?
RI	https://1.next.westlaw.com.ezproxy.library.tamu.edu/Document/N5A36E9A0500D11E08AA69B023DD32660/View/FullText.html?originationContext=documenttoc&transitionType=CategoryPageItem&contextData=(sc.Default)
SC	http://www.state.sc.us/djj/sc-statutes.php#CUSTODY_AND_DETENTION
SD	https://1.next.westlaw.com.ezproxy.library.tamu.edu/Document/N5A36E9A0500D11E08AA69B023DD32660/View/FullText.html?originationContext=documenttoc&transitionType=CategoryPageItem&contextData=(sc.Default)
TN	https://files.dcs.tn.gov/policies/chap18/18.2.pdf
TX	https://texreg.sos.state.tx.us/public/readtac\$ext.TacPage?sl=R&app=9&p_dir=&p_rloc=&p_tloc=&p_ploc=&pg=1&p_tac=&ti=37&pt=11&ch=343&rl=498
UT	https://hspolicy.utah.gov/files/jjs/Section%2003%20-%20Juvenile%20Treatment%20-%20Programming/03-05%20Juvenile%20Wellness.pdf
VT	http://dcf.vermont.gov/sites/dcf/files/FSD/Docs/woodside-wellness.pdf http://dcf.vermont.gov/sites/dcf/files/Youth/Woodside-Resident-Handbook.pdf
VI	http://law.lis.virginia.gov/admincode/title6/agency35/chapter101/section770/
WA	ACA
WV	http://djs.wv.gov/Quality%20Assurance/Documents/507.00%20-%20Recreation%20Activities.pdf
WI	http://docs.legis.wisconsin.gov/code/admin_code/doc/346/VI/39
WY	https://1.next.westlaw.com/Document/IFE09A9E0D84711E2A3BEAE4168993EE1/View/FullText.html?navigationPath=Search%2Fv3%2Fsearch%2Fresults%2Fnavigation%2Fi0ad740370000015ba1ab386d3f2ab030%3FNav%3DREGULATION%26fragmentIdentifier%3DIFE09A9E0D84711E2A3BEAE4168993EE1%26startIndex%3D1%26contextData%3D%2528sc.Search%2529%26transitionType%3DSearchItem&listSource=Search&listPageSource=cd2bea1a87587ee0f6198ed8e3d0f74d&list=REGULATION&rank=4&sessionScopeId=5b6058b66ab6413dae4d894a28f70615310c0b2062485dad2015c318db8aa908&originationContext=Search%20Result&transitionType=SearchItem&contextData=%28sc.Search%29