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GEORGE WARREN BROWN SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

**The Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development Model:  
A New Framework for Prisoner Reentry Practice**

Working Paper #AJI072216

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July 2016

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## **Abstract**

Every week, nearly 10,000 people release from incarceration around the United States. Driven by punitive policymaking that began in the early 1980s, the rates of individuals cycling in and out of U.S. prisons is unprecedented. Despite a proliferation of prisoner reentry programs designed to reduce reincarceration, recidivism rates remain high. Approximately 77% of people who release from prison are rearrested for a new crime within five years. No standard model of reentry program exists and current approaches to reentry program practice are insufficient. Thus, a new framework for prisoner reentry practice is needed. We propose a new model based on five key mechanisms of action that are empirically and theoretically associated with recidivism. Using prior research, the Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development are intermediate outcomes around which reentry programming can be standardized and evaluated. This new framework advances the field toward the next generation of prisoner reentry programs.

Keywords: prison reentry; well-being; rehabilitation; key mechanisms

## **Background**

One-and-a-half million individuals are incarcerated in state and federal prisons in the United States, and every year approximately 600,000 individuals are both released from and admitted into prisons (Carson 2015). Since the turn of the century, increased attention has been focused on these massive outflows and inflows of people into the U.S. prison system (Petersilia 2003; Jonson and Cullen 2015). A primary catalyst for this

revolving door between releases and admissions into prisons is the high rate of re-incarceration among the formerly imprisoned. Within five-years of release from incarceration, studies have found 77% are re-arrested and approximately one-half return back to prison (Durose, Cooper, and Snyder 2014; Langan and Levin 2001; Pew Center on the States, 2011). This high rate of recidivism into criminal justice involvement has remained stubbornly unchanged over last 20-years, and it has propelled the U.S. towards becoming one of the leading incarcerators in the world (Walmsley, 2016).

The failed reintegration of formerly incarcerated individuals into the community is likely a symptom of both a scarcity of access to any prisoner reentry programming (Taxman, Perdoni, and Harrison 2007), and when such programming does exist, a deficiency in the available services (Jonson and Cullen 2015). However, determining what is exactly a quality reentry program is hard to clearly articulate because of a general lack of consistency in reentry models employed across the U.S (Jonson and Cullen 2015; Petersilia 2003; Visher and Travis 2011). Since the advent of reentry programming, the field has almost solely relied on the ultimate outcome of recidivism, to determine a reentry program's effectiveness at rehabilitating an individual who has released from prison. At the same time, scholars have criticized the sole use of recidivism as an inadequate approach to measuring the success of an individual after release from prison (Petersilia 2004; Severson et al. 2012). When programs have attempted to capture outcomes beyond recidivism, the factors chosen have been as varied as the program models (e.g., substance use, employment, education, housing, mental health; Ndrecka 2014). Evident by a meager national rate of only 23% released prisoners avoiding recidivism after incarceration (Durose et al. 2014), the current approaches to reentry

practice are insufficient, and with an average of 10,000 people releasing from prison each week (Carson 2015), there is an urgent need for innovation and standardization within prisoner reentry models.

This paper proposes a new framework for prisoner reentry practice. The current model identifies five key mechanisms of action that are empirically associated with recidivism around which reentry programming can be standardized and evaluated. The Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development Model builds on current prominent frameworks guiding reentry practice (Risk-Needs-Responsivity; Good Lives Model) and other psychosocial programming (stress and coping theory; social support theory; cultural-relational theory; family resilience theory). Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development advances the field toward the next generation of prisoner reentry program models.

#### History of Reentry Programming

At the advent of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, former Attorney General Janet Reno (2000) delivered a speech where she posed the question: What can we do about the problem of prisoner reentry? This message from the administration of President Bill Clinton acted as a launching pad for an explosion of interest into the large number of former prisoners returning to U.S. communities each day. Reentry to the community is the logical result of incarceration, with 95% of prisoners eventually released (Travis 2005), and should be planned for accordingly. In addition, research showed that returning prisoners had higher needs than in the past and, at the same time, faced dwindling access to available resources to address those needs (Petersilia 2003). The increased attention from both

government officials and academic scholars on returning prisoners led to a rapid build-up in programs to help address the issue.

In 2002, the federal government made a systematic push to develop reentry programs through the Serious and Violent Offender Reentry Initiative (SVORI). The SVORI was a landmark grant program co-sponsored by five federal agencies that provided approximately 110 million dollars to 69 correctional agencies in all 50 states, including the District of Columbia and the U.S. Virgin Islands. At the same time, the Vera Institute of Justice developed Project Greenlight, a prison-based reentry program that aimed to reintegrate incarcerated individuals in New York City. Both of these initial efforts proved to deliver less than expected positive results. The SVORI programs increased participant's access to community-based service but showed minimal impact on re-incarceration post-release (Lattimore and Visser 2009), and participants in Project Greenlight actually demonstrated worse recidivism outcomes than a control group who did not participate in the program (Wilson and Davis 2006).

Following SVORI and Project Greenlight, the build-up in reentry programs continued with President George W. Bush highlighting the issue of prisoner reentry in his 2004 State of the Union Address and signing into the law the Second Chance Act of 2007 (Public Law 110-199 2008). However, evaluations of individual programs have shown mixed results in their impact on re-incarceration (Bouffard and Bergeron 2007; Duwe 2012; Grommon, Davidson, and Bynum 2013; Jacobs and Western 2007; Roman, Brooks, Chalfin, and Tereshchenko 2007; Veeh, Severson, and Lee 2015), and a large meta-analysis that examined 53 evaluations of prison reentry programs from throughout the U.S. found the average reduction in recidivism to be only six percent (Ndrecka 2014).

In other words, based on a benchmark recidivism rate of 50%, participation in an existing reentry program model, on average, would reduce the recidivism rate to 47%, while a comparable group of former prisoners not in a reentry program would return to prison at a rate of 53% (Ndrecka 2014).

Despite the attention and energy that has gone into the development of reentry programs over the past decade-and-a-half, there is still much to learn about what works, for who, and how to effectively lower recidivism among former prisoners. Current corrections-based theoretical frameworks were successful at helping the field to conceptualize and form the first generation of reentry programs. We review the two most prominent frameworks in reentry practice. Then we review four other psychosocial theories explicitly and implicitly used in reentry programming. We build on these existing theoretical frameworks and propose the new model of Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development to guide, standardize, and evaluate reentry programming.

#### Current Prominent Theoretical Frameworks

##### *Risk-Needs-Responsivity*

The *Risk-Need-Responsivity* (RNR) model and the central eight risk factors that RNR drew attention to has been a dominate theory for correctional programming over many years. The basis for RNR is rooted in the Psychology of Criminal Conduct that focuses on quantitatively identifying correlates of individual variation in criminal behavior (Andrews and Bonta 2010). Factors empirically associated with individual variation in criminal behavior are labeled as either risk, need, or strength (Andrews and Bonta 2010). A risk factor is a covariate of criminal behavior that increases the likelihood of future crime. Criminogenic needs are closely related to risk factors in that a need refers

to dynamic risk factors malleable to change over time (Andrews and Bonta 2010), and when change is realized in a criminogenic need, the likelihood of criminal behavior also changes. Dynamic risk factors are important in the Psychology of Criminal Conduct, because the ultimate goal is not only to quantify the probability of criminal behavior, but to intervene and effectively lower the chances an individual will commit crime (Andrews and Bonta 2010). The summary of the correlates of variation within individual criminal behavior is the Risk-Need-Responsivity (RNR) model.

The RNR model specifies three practice principles. First, the *risk* principle identifies to whom correctional services should be targeted toward. According to the risk principle, correctional programming should be prioritized for moderate and high risk individuals. Second, the *needs* principle identifies seven dynamic risk factors that, when targeted in practice, are most effective at reducing criminal behavior. Andrews and Bonta (1994) identified the seven dynamic risk factors as: antisocial personality pattern; antisocial cognition; antisocial associates; family/marital circumstances; school/work; leisure/recreation; and substance abuse. Andrews and Bonta (2010) posit that the first three dynamic risk factors (antisocial personality pattern, antisocial cognition, antisocial associates) account for the most variation in crime. The remaining four are ordered by strength of their association with criminal behavior (family/marital circumstances, school/work, leisure/recreation, substance abuse). Third is the *responsivity* principle which articulates how correctional services should be delivered for the greatest impact (Andrews and Bonta 2010). Services based on cognitive behavioral principles and individually tailored to a participant's characteristics are most likely to reduce recidivism.

These three principles together are described as the principles of effective correctional intervention.

### *Good Lives Model*

The *Good Lives Model* (GLM) is a compliment to RNR propositions by focusing on strengths-based indicators of a person's progress through reentry. GLM proponents argue that the RNR model fails to guide practice in a way that will sustain motivation or build a strong therapeutic alliance with program recipients because of the deficit oriented focus on reducing dynamic risk factors. GLM suggests that individualized program plans should articulate approach goals that promote the incarcerated individual's self-interest. GLM posits that the achievement of client-centered approach goals will also cause decreases in dynamic risk factors (Ward and Maruna 2007), while remaining responsive to the individual client, sustaining motivation, and building a strong therapeutic alliance. GLM is based on principles from the strengths perspective in social work (Seelaby 2009) and positive psychology (Csikszentmihalyi and Seligman 2000). The focus of treatment within GLM is to assist the formerly incarcerated individual in realizing self-defined goals informed by his or her personal values that provide the means for the individual to maximize well-being (Ward and Maruna 2007).

GLM expresses an individual's values in terms of primary goods, which are experiences that promote an individual's positive well-being. Individuals normally value more than one primary good at any given time, meaning that an intervention should have multiple sources of motivation to target within programming (Ward and Maruna 2007). Evidence from psychological, social, biological, and anthropological research supports at least ten groups of primary goods, including: life, knowledge, excellence in play and

work, agency, inner peace, friendship, community, spirituality, happiness, and creativity (Aspinwall and Staudinger 2003; Cummins 1996; Deci and Ryan 2000; Ward and Maruna 2007).

### *Additional Psychosocial Theories*

Four additional psychosocial theories have both implicitly and explicitly influenced reentry practice. Stress and coping theory indicates that how a person appraises stressors and the coping mechanisms used to respond to them will influence therapeutic progress (Lazarus and Folkman 1984). Incarceration and reentry is a period filled with stressors, and despite the characteristics of an individual, examining appraisals of stressors and developing positive coping mechanisms is viewed as critical to promoting reentry success (Phillips and Lindsay 2011). The main effect model of social support identifies social support as an important aspect of coping and views positive social support as a protective factor for handling stressors (Cohen, Underwood, and Gottlieb 2000). Despite the primary focus of a given reentry program, building positive social support is typically encouraged (Pettus-Davis et al. 2011). Increasingly, reentry programs and corrections staff are seeking to identify the best ways to incorporate family into reentry programming (Pettus-Davis et al. 2016). Practitioners experience what family resilience theory proposes; within times of stress, if families (broadly defined) are given the right tools, then the unit can overcome acute or prolonged crises efficiently and gain strength and resilience through the process (Walsh 1998). Similarly, relational-cultural theory posits that people grow in their relationships with others throughout the lifespan and that life experiences, such as incarceration, impact those relationships (Jordan et al. 1991). The reentry field has long recognized the impact of incarceration and reentry on

relationships and continues to seek to identify program approaches that can leverage relationships in positive and productive ways (Fontaine et al., 2015; Pettus-Davis et al. 2015; Sullivan et al., 2002).

<u>5 Core Facilitators</u>	<u>Risk-Need-Responsivity</u>	<u>Good Lives Model</u>	<u>Psychosocial Theories</u>	<b>Increases Post-Release Well-Being</b>  <b>Reduces Risk for Recidivism</b>
Occupational Balance	School/work	Excellence in work	Stress & Coping Theory Relational-Cultural Theory	
Positive Cognitions	Antisocial cognitions Antisocial personality pattern	Inner peace Creativity Knowledge	Stress & Coping Theory Social Support Theory	
Positive Coping Strategies	Substance abuse	Spirituality Life Excellence in agency	Stress & Coping Social Support Theory	
Positive Social Activities	Antisocial peer relationships Leisure / recreation	Excellence in play Pleasure	Stress & Coping Theory Relational-Cultural Theory	
Positive Interpersonal Relationships	Family / marital relationships	Relatedness Community	Stress & Coping Theory Social Support Theory Relational-Cultural Theory Family Resilience Theory	

Figure 1. Connection of the Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development to Risk-Need-Responsivity, Good Lives Model, and Additional Psychosocial Theories

### The Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development Model

We built on each of the six theories to form the Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development model. We designed the Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development model to guide the next generation of reentry practice by facilitating three interrelated processes in intervention development. First, the model identifies five treatment targets (i.e., core facilitators) that are theoretically and empirically linked as key mechanisms of action to reducing recidivism. Second, all five core facilitators are relevant despite an individual’s presenting characteristics. For example, regardless of whether the person has a substance use disorder or not, an employment history or not,

each core facilitator remains pertinent. Third, the five core facilitators move the field toward the standardization of reentry programming. Reentry programs can adopt programming that aligns with each Core Facilitator. Reentry programs that adopt the Five Core Facilitators can then uniformly evaluate client's progress on each Core Facilitator in addition to the outcome of recidivism.

### *Occupational Balance*

Employment is empirically supported as an important catalyst to reductions in recidivism (Benda 2005; Berg and Huebner 2011; Sampson and Laub 1993; Wright and Cullen 2004). However, research establishing the effectiveness of employment-focused reentry programs is mixed. An experimental evaluation of the National Support Work Demonstration Project significantly reduced recidivism among participants 27 years and older (Uggen, 2000), and recent randomized control trials of similar transitional jobs programs have shown no to small effects on participants' recidivism (Jacobs 2012; Redcross et al. 2012). We propose *occupational balance* as a more sensitive indicator of individual and program goals for employment. Occupational balance is achieved when the compatibility between the goals and abilities of the individual and the demands of a chosen occupation is sustainable. We define occupation as obligations/jobs that are paid or unpaid; compatibility is a state in which two things are able to exist or occur together with minimal problems or conflict; and sustainability means an action or process that is able to be maintained or kept going (see Appendix A). We chose to include paid or unpaid occupations to accommodate numerous circumstances representative of "work." For example, reentering prisoners with severe disabilities may be unable to sustain paid work, but engage in brief unpaid work-like activities that fulfill a similar purpose. Or for

formerly incarcerated individuals that are in a family situation in which they are able to stay at home and take care of the kids while their intimate partner or spouse works.

Occupational balance builds on the dynamic risk factors established in the RNR model of low education/work. GLM refers to this construct as “excellence in work.” This core facilitator incorporates relational-cultural and stress and coping theory because the development of positive social interactions with co-workers at an occupation can enhance a formerly incarcerated individual’s social network and provide a model of healthy coping in stressful situations. Seeking and achieving occupational balance puts formerly incarcerated individuals on a trajectory toward a sense of personal empowerment that draws on their talents without creating unreasonable expectations or unintended burnout and frustration.

The importance of both the presence and quality of occupational interactions is supported by current research. Berg and Huebner (2011) demonstrated within a sample of male parolees that the odds of re-arrest were significantly lower for those with employment following release from prison. Nevertheless, it is often the characteristics of a job that are most potent in reducing recidivism, not simply having a job. For instance, a job with coworkers that hold high levels of disapproval for criminal behavior is significantly associated with decreased criminal behavior (Wright and Cullen 2004). Moreover, self-reported job satisfaction significantly reduced the hazard of re-incarceration in a sample of 600 prison boot camp graduates five years after release (Benda 2005). Sampson and Laub (1993), in their secondary analysis of longitudinal data that followed adjudicated juveniles to age 32, showed a composite score labeled as job stability, defined as consistent employment and demonstration of reliability and effort in

a work setting, to have a significant and long-term association on reducing the frequency of arrest approximately seven years later.

### *Positive Cognitions*

The presence of empathy, and belief systems that are consistent with prosocial norms, reduce the likelihood of an individual engaging in criminal behavior (Bock and Hosser 2014; Jolliffe and Farrington 2004; LeBel et al. 2008; Martin and Stermac 2010; Mulder et al. 2011; Van Vugt et al. 2011). Incarceration creates confined communities in which empathy can be interpreted as vulnerability and where there are high volumes of individuals housed that have history of violating prosocial norms (Haney 2002).

Therefore, growing and reinforcing positive cognitions is an important prisoner reentry program component. We define *positive cognitions* as adaptive mental actions or processes, the presence of empathy, and the acceptance or internalization of values and norms that promote pro-social behavior. We consider prosocial behavior to be actions that are intended to benefit another individual, group of individuals, or society as a whole (see Appendix A).

Growing positive cognitions is a proactive program target that addresses RNR risk factors of antisocial cognitions and antisocial personality traits. Our definition of positive cognitions provides reentry practitioners with a specified construct for programming that articulates goals similar to than GLM “primary goods” of knowledge, creativity, and inner peace. Consistent with propositions from social support and stress and coping perspectives, using positive cognitions aids formerly incarcerated individuals in responding to others and coping strategies that are prosocial even in the midst of the disorienting experiences of prisoner reentry.

Adding to RNR principle of lowering antisocial attitudes, the core facilitator of positive cognitions identifies developing the presence of empathy as an explicit key mechanism to reduce recidivism. Two meta-analyses looking at the effect of empathy on recidivism have found small to medium effects on recidivism (Jolliffe and Farrington 2004; Van Vugt et al. 2011), and recent studies based in Europe with either adjudicated young adults or juveniles reported that increased empathy significantly reduced recidivism (Bock and Hosser 2014; Mulder et al. 2011). In addition, an individual's level of hope, particularly the expectation to execute goal-directed behavior, has shown significant effects at lowering post-release recidivism within formerly incarcerated samples (LeBel et al. 2008; Martin and Stermac 2010).

### *Positive Coping Strategies*

The use of positive coping strategies in times of stress, day-to-day hassles, and in problem-solving promotes well-being of all individuals with or without impairments, major life changes, or behavioral health diagnoses (Lazarus and Folkman 1984; Taylor and Stanton 2007). Improvement in coping strategies, particularly regarding the use of drugs and alcohol, has shown to improve recidivism outcomes within justice-involved individuals (Bennett, Holloway, and Farrington 2008; Brown, St. Amand, and Zamble 2009; Dowden and Brown 2002; Mulder et al. 2011; Wilson and Wood 2014). We define *positive coping strategies* as adaptive behavioral and psychological efforts taken to manage and reduce internal/external stressors in ways that are not harmful in the short-or long-term. We consider stressors to be demands that cause mental tension; effort is work done by the mind or body (see Appendix A).

RNR most closely addresses the need for coping strategies with the risk factor of substance abuse. That is because to recover from substance abuse, positive coping strategies are needed to resist urges and cravings for problematic substance use. Examples of positive strategies that some people use are spirituality or seeking to establish excellence in agency, both of which GLM identifies as important constructs for reentry programs to allow space for. Following the tenants of stress and coping theory, the use of positive coping as a core facilitator in programming acknowledges that individuals with a range of challenges are key actors for developing their own positive coping strategies that are effective for that individual. Reentry practitioners can help to identify and reinforce coping strategies, such as the use of positive social support, while recognizing that a positive coping strategy for one person may not be effective for another person or different situation.

A robust evidence base shows that the use of negative coping strategies to deal with stress, particularly the use and abuse of substances, can have negative effects on individual's success following incarceration. Two large meta-analyses looking at articles published over a time span of up to 50 years establish a clear link between the abuse of either drugs or alcohol and increased recidivism (Bennett, Holloway, and Farrington 2008; Dowden and Brown 2002). Supporting this finding, analysis of an entire cohort of incarcerated individuals releasing to community supervision in Tennessee found the presence of a diagnosis for a drug or alcohol disorder significantly increased the odds to recidivate (Wilson and Wood 2014). Lack of positive coping strategies by adjudicated juveniles in the Netherlands was significantly associated with incurring a violent re-conviction (Mulder et al. 2011). Whereas the use of positive coping strategies to manage

potentially criminogenic situations has shown to predict reduced recidivism among formerly incarcerated males (Brown et al. 2009).

### *Positive Social Activities*

Constructive use of one's free time is an empirically supported predictor of positive outcomes (e.g., reduced recidivism, improved treatment retention) among justice-involved individuals (Brown et al. 2009; Cottle, Lee, and Heilburn 2001; Gutierrez, Holly, Rugge, and Bonta 2013; Mackenzie and Brame 2001). We define the core facilitator of *positive social activities* as occurring when an individual is engaged in social experiences organized for beneficial social purposes that directly or indirectly involve other. These social activities are engaged in during an individual's discretionary time and are experienced as enjoyable. We further articulate "beneficial social purposes" to mean the intention of the activity is to promote greater societal good (e.g., art, using public spaces like parks/libraries, sports); "indirectly involving others" includes when individuals are co-located in a common physical space (e.g., community festival); and discretionary time is time that is free from obligations, work, and daily living tasks (e.g., housework; see Appendix A). We recognize that activities can be done in the home and separate from others (e.g., watching movies, video games) that are healthier choices than engaging in activities that could expose people to substance use or crime. However, this core facilitator was developed in a way that would encourage activities that reduce isolation (Lubben et al. 2015), engage individuals as an accepted member of a community (Maruna et al 2004), and help to build positive social capital through informal social networks (Budde and Schene 2004; Sampson and Laub 1993).

RNR identifies leisure/recreation activities that formerly incarcerated individuals engage in to be among the top seven most salient factors for predicting recidivism. GLM encourages programs to set goals with formerly incarcerated individuals that aim to achieve excellence in play and pleasure. Engaging in positive social activities outside of time at one's employment, facilitates healthy outlets of enjoyment that allow an individual to contribute to the community around them as well as become an accepted and contributing member of that community.

Two meta-analyses examining predictors of recidivism identified significant associations with negative use of leisure and recreation activities and recidivism (Cottle et al. 2001; Gutierrez et al. 2013). Low levels of unstructured leisure time were also reported in a sample ( $n=86$ ) of formerly incarcerated individuals in Canada who remained out of the criminal justice system (Brown et al. 2009). A study of 989 formerly incarcerated individuals from four different U.S. state prison systems showed that those individuals who had higher levels of activity in family responsibilities and progressing in treatment incurred fewer parole revocations post-release (MacKenzie and Brame 2001).

#### *Positive Interpersonal Relationships*

Positive interpersonal relationships have been identified as a critical protective factor by a range of disciplines addressing varied life experiences including health management, behavioral health, stress management, caretaking, and recidivism (Cohen et al. 2000; Sarason and Sarason 2009). For the purposes of this core facilitator, *positive interpersonal relationships* involve an association between two people that occurs in person and can range in duration from brief to enduring within formal (e.g., work or treatment) or informal (e.g., family or neighborhood) social contexts. The relationship is

reliable, mutually beneficial, and enhances psychological well-being. Because this is a complex construct, we further operationalized four aspects of the definition. We consider formal social contexts to be paid or unpaid work settings, healthcare/treatment settings, and social service settings. Informal social contexts include all settings outside of formal social contexts. Reliable is a relationship that promotes honesty and trust. Mutually beneficial experiences are evident when a relationship supplies the needed level of honesty and trust for all people involved (see Appendix A). Clearly not all interpersonal relationships will be reliable and mutually beneficial. We include this core facilitator as an important treatment target because of the strong empirical support and protective contributions that increased positive interpersonal relationships provide for individuals.

RNR addresses interpersonal relationships through their identified dynamic risk factors of poor family/marital relationships and associations with antisocial peers. RNR implies that improving relationships and reducing associations with peers will improve recidivism outcomes. We highlight positive interpersonal relationships as a core program element that reentry programs should be assisting formerly incarcerated individuals with achieving. GLM acknowledges that relationships are important with the “primary goods” of relatedness and community. Positive interpersonal relationships allow for the benefits of propositions from the social support perspective to be fully achieved.

The association of positive interpersonal relationships has shown positive effects on recidivism across a number of different studies. Two studies from Florida ( $n=7,000$ ) and Minnesota ( $n=16,420$ ) reported that positive social support received from loved ones during prison visitation had an enduring and significant effect on lower recidivism for up to four-and-a-half years after incarcerated individuals’ release (Bales and Mears 2008;

Duwe and Clark 2013). In fact, for every one visitation event, the odds of incurring a new felony conviction in the community decreased by four percent (Bales and Mears 2008). Beyond visitation while incarcerated, the quality and amount of positive social support lowers the likelihood of recidivism. Within a sample of 401 male parolees, those reporting satisfaction or absolute satisfaction with their relatives were 33% less likely to incur an arrest in the community (Berg and Huebner 2011). Similarly, within probationers with comorbid diagnoses for a mental disorder and substance abuse, low reported levels of liking one's relationships and overall poor relationship quality was significantly associated with a probation violation (Skeem et al. 2009). Duwe (2012) found that for every increase in one positive community support identified by a formerly incarcerated individual, the hazard to return to prison decreased by 35%.

In summary, the Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development is a guide for the next generation of reentry programs. There exists strong theoretical and empirical support for the Five Core Facilitators as key mechanisms of action to target in order to achieve the long-term goal of reduced recidivism. Now the Five Core Facilitators model needs to be rigorously tested in a community setting to ensure it produces the intended effects.

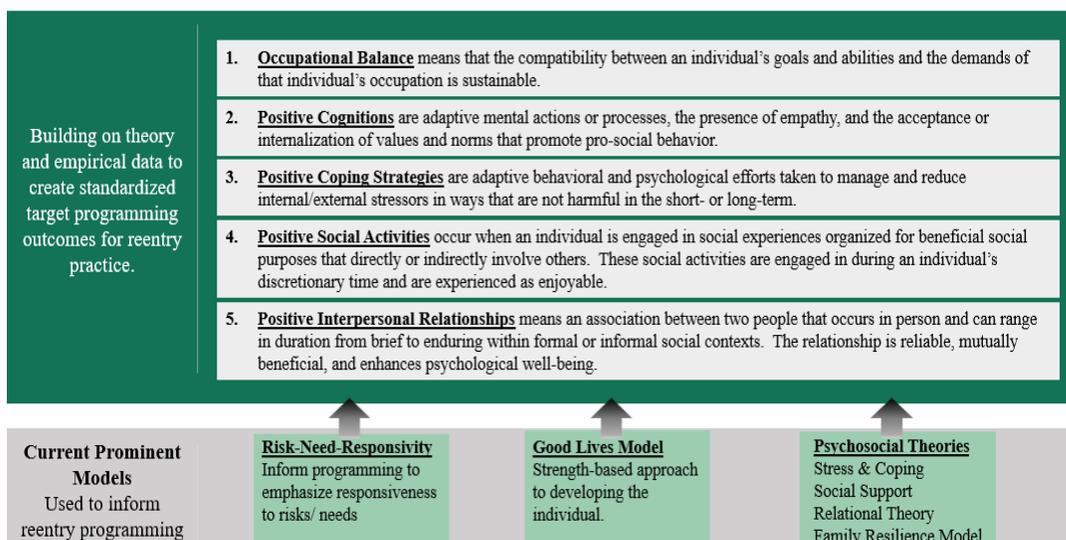


Figure 2. The Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development Build on Current Models of Reentry Programming

### Next Steps to Advance Reentry Practice and Research

We propose the Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development model as a new framework for reentry practice. The Five Core Facilitators model provides standardization in intermediate outcomes for assessing program impact on key mechanisms of action that universally effect individuals releasing from incarceration. Empirical and theoretical data suggests that if reentered individuals perform well on each core facilitator, the likelihood of recidivism will be reduced. The Five Core Facilitators model builds on existing frameworks by offering practitioners program targets that can be applied to a wide range of releasing prisoners with differing programmatic needs. The Five Core Facilitators model advances research and practice by identifying intermediate outcomes that can be assessed across reentry programs offered by varied organizations. Growing adoption of this framework by researchers and practitioners will generate data to be used to further examine the validity of the model. Although existing empirical and

theoretical data suggests the Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development model is valid, further subjecting the model to empirical investigation is important and warranted.

Additional research will also uncover treatment gaps that, if addressed, would increase impact of programming efforts on individuals' progress for each core facilitator. Moreover, using consistent intermediate indicators of success rather than relying mostly on recidivism will help the field to identify whether subgroups of formerly incarcerated individuals are differentially responsive to core facilitators. For example, do younger adults need more support to achieve occupational balance and positive interpersonal relationships than older formerly incarcerated individuals? Or vice versa? Is gender a significant moderator for core facilitators?

Our research team partnered with a community-based agency that provides comprehensive reentry services to examine the Five Core Facilitators model using a randomized controlled trial. We identified a package of evidence-based interventions used with criminal justice-involved and other marginalized populations that collectively address each core facilitator. Interventions were selected such that even those persons with low program dosage needs would be assessed and able to receive interventions that facilitate progress in each of the given core facilitator areas. At the same time, care is taken to ensure not to over-program an individual with low needs (see forthcoming publication on this model). The community partner has adopted the package of services based on the Five Core Facilitator reentry practice model for the clinical trial (see forthcoming publication for study protocol). Multisite trials and future research-practitioner partnerships adopting and testing the model will provide important data for generalizability of the Five Core Facilitator-driven reentry practice model.

Using existing reliable and validated assessments we created a standardized decision-making framework that monitors and individual's progress on each of the Five Core Facilitators during their reentry program participation. The assessment package, in combination with clinical judgement and client input, determines whether a person needs increased, maintained, or decreased supports around a given core facilitator (see forthcoming publication of the assessment package). Using existing research on criminal justice-involved and non-criminal justice involved samples, a range of scores representing high and low performance on each core facilitator was established. Future research on Five Core Facilitator assessment tools with reentry program engaged or non-program engaged populations will establish ranges more targeted toward formerly incarcerated individuals.

The Five Core Facilitators model represents formerly incarcerated individuals as capable and deserving of programming that promotes well-being development versus simply the controlling of risk for crime. The hope is that the Five Core Facilitator model will offer practitioners and policymakers a framework that identifies positive outcomes, rather than only recidivism, upon which to assess an individual and program's success. The Five Core Facilitators model has the potential to demonstrate to policymakers that there are a range of factors, and associated needed resources, necessary for reducing recidivism and promoting personal and public well-being.

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## Appendix A: Defining the Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development

Table A1. Definitions of the Five Core Facilitators of Well-Being Development

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Occupational Balance means that the compatibility between an individual's goals and abilities and the demands of that individual's occupation is sustainable.

**Definitions:**

1. Compatibility is defined as a state in which two things are able to exist or occur together without problems or conflict.
  2. Occupation is defined as obligation(s) / job paid or unpaid.
  3. Sustainable is defined as able to be maintained or kept going, as an action or process.
- 

Positive Cognitions are adaptive mental actions or processes, the presence of empathy, and the acceptance or internalization of values and norms that promote pro-social behavior.

**Definitions:**

1. Pro-social behavior is defined as actions that are intended to benefit another individual, groups of individuals, or society as a whole.
- 

Positive Coping Strategies are adaptive behavioral and psychological efforts taken to manage and reduce internal/external stressors in ways that are not harmful in the short- or long-term.

**Definitions:**

1. Effort is defined as work done by the mind or body.
  2. Stressor is defined as demands that cause mental tension
- 

Positive Social Activities occur when an individual is engaged in social experiences organized for beneficial social purposes that directly or indirectly involve others. These social activities are engaged in during an individual's discretionary time and are experienced as enjoyable.

**Definitions:**

1. Beneficial social purpose means the intention of an activity is to promote greater societal good.
  2. Discretionary time is defined as time free from obligations, work, and daily living tasks (e.g., housework).
  3. Indirectly involve others is defined as individuals co-located in a common physical space.
- 

Positive Interpersonal Relationships means an association between two people that occurs in person and can range in duration from brief to enduring within formal or informal social contexts. The relationship is reliable, mutually beneficial, and enhances psychological well-being.

**Definitions:**

1. Formal social context is defined as paid or unpaid work settings, healthcare/treatment settings, and social service settings.
  2. Informal social context is defined as all settings outside of paid or unpaid work, healthcare/treatment, and social services.
  3. Reliable is defined as a relationship that promotes honesty and trust.
  4. Mutually beneficial is defined as a relationship that supplies the needed level of honesty and trust for all people involved.
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