

# Enhancing offender programs to address recidivism

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## Abstract

Legislation and enforcement systems are recognised effective mechanisms to curb illegal driving behaviours, particularly amongst young offenders. Evidence suggests that when applied together with behavioural and educational programs, significant gains can be achieved toward reducing the prevalence and recidivism of these behaviours. A review of best practice evidence and comparison with two examples of educational programs currently implemented in Victoria was undertaken, in order to better understand the potential benefits of such programs. These programs are built on restorative justice principles, employ a cognitive behavioural approach designed to support behaviour change through a process of education, reflection and prevention, and are offered as part of either a sentencing option (for older and recidivist offenders) or early intervention (targeted at youths). The comparisons focused on key aspects of delivery, content, style, structure, and therapeutic approaches. The findings suggest that overall these programs meet best practice standards and principles and therefore have the potential to make a significant contribution to the reduction of driving offence recidivism. Implications of the findings are discussed in terms of effectiveness of components, feasibility, practical implications and potential further enhancements to offender programs.

## Introduction

Our overall road safety system is undermined when individual road users commit traffic offences, engaging in illegal driving behaviours that have been deemed unsafe and associated with increased crash risk. Legislation and enforcement systems are recognized as an effective means to curb illegal driving behaviours. Sanctions for offenders consisting of varying punishments, including accumulation of demerit points and fines, driver's licence suspensions or disqualification, confiscation or immobilisation of automobiles, and jail time. These interventions are aimed at reducing driver recidivism rates through punishing offending drivers (Mann, Leigh, Vingilis, de Genova et al., 1983). Punishment-based interventions have traditionally been the primary mode of deterrence, indeed, such legislation, allowing for the testing and penalizing of drivers who are apprehended for engaging in illegal behaviours, has been in operation across Australia for many years.

While current enforcement systems continue to play a key role in deterring illegal driving behaviour, research identifies the importance of addressing driver attitudes in order to achieve positive driver behaviour change (Iverson, 2002; Ulleberg & Rundmo, 2003). Indeed, there is increased recognition that a collaborative approach incorporating rehabilitation and educative programs into existing enforcement sanction regimes, can achieve greater gains in reducing the prevalence and recidivism of traffic offender behaviours. However, there is also very little evidence attesting to the effectiveness of such programs, particularly an examination of best practice elements of these programs.

This study was undertaken to explore current international best-practice principles in the field of driver education and offender programs and compared these findings with two well-known

43 and established offender programs conducted in Melbourne, Victoria. The overall aim of the  
44 project was to provide recommendations regarding program enhancement based on the best  
45 practice principle findings particularly with regard to key messages, program content and  
46 delivery. This paper outlines some of the key findings and implications of the research.

## 47 **Methodology**

48 This project involved two phases including i) a review of the literature pertaining to the best  
49 practice application of offender programs as an education and rehabilitation countermeasure,  
50 particularly in relation to traffic offending behaviour and recidivism, and ii) a comparison of  
51 best practice principles with two well-established comparable traffic offender programs run  
52 in Melbourne, Victoria.

53 Relevant published and grey literature were sourced to identify existing offender programs,  
54 evaluations of programs (if available), and the general literature on road safety education,  
55 rehabilitation and offender programs, mandatory treatment, intervention, etc. An extensive  
56 range of search engines and databases was utilised to source literature and included: Embase,  
57 SafetyLit, ScienceDirect, Ingentaconnect, Tandfonline, CRCNetbase, and other relevant  
58 databases including PsychInfo, Medline, Cochrane Library and Scopus. Key words included:  
59 driver education, novice/young driver, road safety education programs, traffic offender  
60 courses, mandatory treatment, recidivism, juvenile offenders, habitual offenders,  
61 rehabilitation, intervention, evaluation. There were no exclusion criteria.

62 The comparison was undertaken by reviewing key principles and components of existing  
63 Victorian programs with the findings from the literature search.

## 64 **Results and Discussion**

### 65 *The role of traffic offender programs*

66 Rehabilitation approaches initially evolved as alternatives to punishment-based interventions,  
67 and are based on the rationale that offenders require supportive treatment environments to  
68 assist them in changing their undesired behaviours (Mann et al., 1983). Within road safety,  
69 the focus of these rehabilitation type programs is typically on providing drivers with the  
70 knowledge, skills and strategies to avoid further high risk driving behaviours.

71 Road safety rehabilitation programs, such as Driver Improvement Programs (DIPs), are  
72 widely applied in the United States as a countermeasure to address traffic violations,  
73 convictions and crashes experienced by drivers through helping them correct their potentially  
74 dangerous driving behaviours (Zhang, Gkritza, Keren, Nambisan et al., 2011). Analyses of  
75 DIPs with regard to crashes and violations have concluded that generally the programs result  
76 in reductions in violations (Lund & Williams, 1985; Masten & Peck, 2004), with a less  
77 pronounced reduction in crashes (Ker et al. 2005). However, in their analysis of the Iowa DIP  
78 program, Zhang et al. (2011) found only two percent participant crash involvement in the 13  
79 to 18 month post-program period but that most drivers were reconvicted of a new offence  
80 within 90 days of completing the course. Additionally, the study found that DIPs lowered the  
81 probability of both male and female drivers incurring future convictions compared to drivers  
82 who had not completed the course. Masten and Peck (2004) found that the offender  
83 intervention programs included in their study resulted in traffic offence reduction for between

84 6 months and 2 years, with the longer and more comprehensive programs having the longest  
85 effect.

86 Generally it is noted that there is a lack of strong evidence associated with the effectiveness  
87 of sanctions, education, and intervention programs when evaluated independently, with very  
88 few studies reporting strong positive effects. One of the key issues with evaluations of driver  
89 offender programs is that the effectiveness of the program has been evaluated against a  
90 reduction in participants' future crash rates (Wählberg, 2011). This poses difficulties due to  
91 the low crash rate frequencies and hence associated analytical statistical power, very large  
92 sample sizes are required to support meaningful analysis. While deterrent effects generally  
93 increase with the severity of the punishment (Yu, 1994), in DeYoung's (1997) evaluation of  
94 the effectiveness of treatments in reducing drink driving recidivism rates it was shown that  
95 jail terms were ineffective, even amongst first time offenders. In contrast, the combination of  
96 license restrictions and first offender programs was associated with the lowest recidivism  
97 rates compared with other sanctions evaluated. These findings were also consistent for  
98 second time offender drivers. The study found that treatment programs were more effective  
99 than licence suspension alone (DeYoung, 1997).

100 Evaluations of studies based on behavioural change and program content recall have been  
101 shown to have more positive effects however, there are drawbacks with behaviour change  
102 and recall being more weakly associated with crashes. In addition, content recall is not  
103 necessarily a precursor for actual behaviour change, simply because there is not always  
104 automatic transfer from knowledge to behaviour. While achieving long-term behaviour  
105 change would be a desired outcome for most traffic offender countermeasures, it is not  
106 necessarily possible; therefore the intention of many programs is to educate and inform  
107 participants of the possible risks and consequences associated with adoption of risky driving  
108 behaviours and to take responsibility for their choices and actions.

109 Previous research conducted in Victoria found that education type programs do play a role in  
110 shifting participant's motivation to change (Sheehan, 2005). Short education programs, have  
111 been found to be a cost effective means of intervention. These programs are particularly cost  
112 effective when implemented as a user pays program and can provide a positive complement  
113 to other forms of sanctions, such as fines and licence suspensions (Wundersitz & Hutchinson,  
114 2006). Some successful programs have utilised a combination of both education and  
115 punishment techniques and evaluations have shown that these programs are associated with a  
116 reduction in driving offences; however no programs have been associated with reductions in  
117 crash rates (Wählberg, 2011).

118 The Driver Intervention Program (DIP), operating in South Australia is mandated for any  
119 young learner or probationary driver (under the age of 25) who has had their licence  
120 disqualified for any offence, including first offences. Since its introduction the program has  
121 undergone two evaluations, the first in 1996 (Drummond, 1996) and the second in 2006  
122 (Wundersitz & Hutchinson, 2006), with the most recent evaluation estimating conservatively  
123 that DIP programs may result in a 5% crash reduction. Further, given the low costs associated  
124 with delivering these programs, the benefit-cost ratios would be substantial, therefore  
125 justifying the costs of delivering these programs

### 126 ***Best Practice Traffic Offender Programs***

127 While it is acknowledged that there are challenges in measuring the effectiveness of  
128 behavioural programs, all literature providing evaluative research on program effectiveness

129 including evaluations of program components and outcome measures was examined to  
130 determine what is 'best-practice'. Overall, the findings of the review suggested that there are  
131 six key considerations that are present in offender programs that are considered 'best-  
132 practice'. These are discussed below.

### 133 *Theoretically based*

134 Much of the literature assessing the effectiveness of community-based programs focuses on  
135 interventions based on Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT). The overwhelming evidence  
136 shows that these treatment approaches are the best approaches for antisocial youth and result  
137 in positive outcomes to prevent or reduce antisocial behaviour (Izzo & Ross, 1990; Lipsey et  
138 al., 2001; Armelius & Andreassen, 2007).

139 Izzo and Ross (1990) found that interventions based on a theoretical principle or models were,  
140 on average, 5 times more effective in reducing recidivism than those that were not. In  
141 addition, interventions that included a cognitive component (problem solving, negotiation and  
142 interpersonal skills training, rational emotive therapy, role playing and modelling, and  
143 cognitive behaviour modification) were more than twice as effective as those that did not.  
144 Wilson and colleagues (Wilson, Bouffard, & Mackenzie, 2005) examined 20 studies of  
145 group-oriented CBT programs for juvenile offenders, including Moral Reconciliation Therapy  
146 and Reasoning and Rehabilitation. They concluded that representative CBT programmes  
147 reduced re-offending by 20-30 percent compared to control groups. In addition, Pearson,  
148 Lipton, Cleland et al. (2002) reviewed 69 research studies of behavioural (e.g. contingency  
149 contracting, token economy) and CBT programmes. CBT programmes were more effective  
150 than the behavioural ones in reducing re-offending, with a mean reduction in recidivism of  
151 about 30 percent for treated groups.

152 One of the major contributions of Restorative Justice to the criminal justice system is its  
153 incorporation of emotional dimensions into the understanding of offender behaviour.  
154 Evolving research from within this field by Harris, Walgrave and Braithwaite (2004)  
155 questions the common reliance on, and effectiveness of, promoting disapproval and inducing  
156 the emotion of shame for offenders in attempts to encourage positive behavioural changes. To  
157 the contrary they highlight the importance of programs that treat offenders in a respectful  
158 manner to promote their development of empathy. The development of empathy is  
159 recognised for its role in promoting remorse and reconciliation which they view as the key to  
160 achieving successful, positive, law-abiding behaviour change (Harris et al., 2004).

### 161 *Target group characteristics*

162 The findings of the review also revealed that more specialised programs that are linked to the  
163 characteristics and risk factors of offenders being targeted by the intervention, are more  
164 effective than traditional programs that incorporated a 'one-size-fits-all' approach across all  
165 traffic offender groups. Some examples of targeted programs include:

- 166 • General safer driving practices: Crash and injury prevention programs generally  
167 focus on addressing road rules, safe driving, substance abuse, law obedience,  
168 defensive driving, and emotions and attitudes towards dangerous driving  
169 practices.
- 170 • Drugs and Alcohol: Programs that deal with potentially addictive behaviours  
171 such as drugs and alcohol should note that the complexities of these behaviours

172 play a key role in program design and development, with participants requiring  
173 targeted treatment due to underlying substance abuse issues, in conjunction with  
174 addressing high risk driving behaviours (Marques et al., 2000).

175 • Recidivist prevention: These programs generally follow a structure of problem  
176 recognition, definition, correction and resolution. In their review of driver  
177 offender programs, (McKnight & Tippetts, 1997) found that programs aimed at  
178 recidivism prevention resulted in significantly fewer accidents and violations  
179 during the following year. Recidivist programs are ideally structured when they  
180 can target key demographic variables (Sheehan et al., 2005). Shorter programs  
181 are suited to address the issues associated with first time offenders who have  
182 engaged in low range driving offences, while longer, more complex, treatment  
183 based programs are better suited to treating habitual recidivist drivers.

184 • Age group: Programs targeted at specific age groups are more effective in  
185 addressing relevant behavioural and motivational issues. Education programs  
186 can be targeted at various age groups including pre-driving populations, novice  
187 drivers and young drivers. Programs targeted towards traffic offenders typically  
188 do not have any age limits; however participants are often in the 15-25 years age  
189 group. Over representation of younger drivers in these programs is partially  
190 attributed to their increased likelihood of engaging in risky driving, and the  
191 relatively high rate of driving offences amongst younger drivers. There is also  
192 some suggestion that there is an increased rate of referral to these programs for  
193 young drivers by magistrates. This is in recognition that there is a greater  
194 chance of successful intervention for young drivers as their behaviour may be  
195 more a reflection of immaturity and lack of insight and knowledge rather than  
196 entrenched or habitual.

197 Offender programs are typically targeted towards repeat offenders, who exhibit higher risk  
198 characteristics. In recent times there is a growing recognition of the advantages of adopting  
199 preventative strategies such as driver education programs that target young drivers and first  
200 time offenders.

### 201 *Key messages*

202 Key message play an important role in delivering the desired information within a group  
203 setting and need to be of high quality and credible. Young people are constantly exposed to  
204 messages from various media and have become effective critiques of poorly presented  
205 messages. Messages should be tailored to support the facilitator/participant connection to  
206 maximise persuasiveness for promoting the desired participant behaviour change (Wolf,  
207 2001). In group facilitation key messages are commonly confused with the re-stating of  
208 goals, goals which are not necessarily shared by the target audience to the same degree as the  
209 organisation promoting them. The role of key messages are to support the attainment of the  
210 goals (Wolf, 2001) and an important aspect of facilitating successful behaviour change is to  
211 actively listen to the participants and hear firsthand what obstacles to change they are faced  
212 with.

213 Another primary role of a key message is to build rapport with, and engage the support of, the  
214 audience. It is important that messages are designed to align with a person's current belief  
215 system as attempts to force a change in beliefs will typically meet with resistance and  
216 therefore failure (Wolf, 2001).

217 Goals need to be well defined and obtainable; participants may need guidance to break goals  
218 down into smaller achievable steps that will lead them toward their overall goal. There is  
219 evidence that successful conveyance of one crucial key message may have a greater impact  
220 than partial conveyance of several messages for some difficult or resistant client groups.

### 221 *Participant engagement*

222 The evidence shows that there has been a shift from the traditional lecture type education  
223 model to a more client interactive model and that interactive models are more effective than  
224 traditional models. This focus on increased engagement has been facilitated through the  
225 incorporation of a range of learning mediums and choice of media needs to consider the  
226 target audience (Sheehan et al., 2005). For example, interactive, dynamic and highly  
227 simulating interfaces are appropriate to engage younger audiences, given their high use of  
228 advanced technology. Widely used interfaces such as Google, Facebook and Twitter offer a  
229 relatively low cost ability to target a wide audience (national and international) within a short  
230 time-frame.

231 Wells-Parker and Bangert-Drowns (1995) found that programs which focused on lifestyle  
232 change strategies resulted in an overall positive effect on knowledge and attitudes towards  
233 drink driving behaviours. The findings of the current study found that most effective  
234 rehabilitation programs incorporate a combination of intervention methods including  
235 education, lifestyle change, and probationary contact and supervision.

### 236 *Optimal program content*

237 The appropriate degree of structure within a program is somewhat difficult to define and  
238 measure. The main argument presented for permitting program flexibility is that it allows a  
239 facilitator to tailor sessions to suit individual client groups; however care must be taken that  
240 the overall aims and objectives of the program are not undermined. Advantages of developing  
241 structured program content include: maintaining inter-facilitator consistency; ensuring the  
242 theoretical based objectives of the course content are maintained; and, presenting a sterner  
243 atmosphere for participants who have committed offences (Sheehan et al., 2005). In addition,  
244 the more flexibility permitted within course content the more challenging it is to conduct  
245 robust empirical evaluations.

### 246 *Program facilitators and presenters*

247 It is important that the programs are conducted by professional facilitators, trained in  
248 counselling, who are well versed in identifying and accommodating valuable adult learning  
249 factors (Sheehan et al., 2005). The following qualifications have been recommended for  
250 facilitators of driver education programs for recidivist speeding: 21years or older, adult  
251 education/social science qualification, hold a current drivers licence (3 yrs +), no licence  
252 suspensions/disqualifications, pass a police check (Styles et al., 2009).

### 253 *National based programs*

254 The implementation of state or nationally based programs across Australia would promote the  
255 delivery of a consistent approach to traffic offender education programs. Comparable  
256 program delivery would further support the conduct of empirical evaluations and the  
257 development of specialised programs to target the various traffic offender profiles.

258

**259 Comparison of best practice findings with existing offender programs**

260 In this research phase two short, education based traffic offender programs, designed and  
261 facilitated by the Road Trauma Support Services Victoria (RTSSV) were reviewed for  
262 comparison with the results of the best practice review findings.

263 The RTSSV have developed traffic offender education programs such as the Road Trauma  
264 Awareness Seminar (RTAS) and the more recently developed Drive To Learn program  
265 (DTL). The RTAS, in operation since 2004, is conducted in conjunction with referrals from  
266 the Victorian Magistrates' Court and targets first time or recidivist traffic offenders across all  
267 age groups. The more recently developed DTL program (2013) is conducted in conjunction  
268 with the Dandenong Magistrates' Court and targets young offenders aged up to 17 years, in  
269 their pre-licensing phase, who have been charged with (or are facing) charges relating to  
270 traffic offences.

271 These programs are short, non-treatment based offender programs designed to reduce road  
272 trauma through traffic offender education that promotes the adoption of safer driving attitudes  
273 and behaviours and reduces recidivism. More specifically the programs are designed to:  
274 confront and evaluate participants' current road user belief systems; assist participants in  
275 identifying and managing precursors to offending; provide peer discussion and problem  
276 solving; provide reality based learning using volunteer/emergency service worker  
277 presentations; develop a commitment from driving offenders to engage in the official  
278 licensing process and traffic legislation; reduce the risk of further traffic offending and  
279 further involvement in the criminal justice process; and, reduce the likelihood of participants  
280 causing or being involved in road trauma through developing an understanding about the  
281 impact of their behaviour on themselves and the wider community.

**282 *Theoretical basis***

283 The RTAS and DTL programs are based on restorative justice principles and three  
284 psychological models: Narrative Discourse (White & Epston, 1990), Experiential Learning  
285 (Kolb et al., 1971), and Cognitive Behavioural Intervention (Goldfried & Davison, 1994).  
286 The programs are designed to encourage participants to change their illegal high risk driving  
287 behaviour through a process of education, reflection and prevention (RTSSV, 2010b).

288 Narrative Discourse: The RTAS and DTL uses accounts of events and employs the concept  
289 of volunteer speakers re-tell their own personal accounts of road trauma. This component  
290 plays a key role in i) providing a real world understanding of the consequences of road  
291 trauma, and ii) provides a forum for volunteers to re-direct their personal experiences of road  
292 trauma towards a constructive objective.

293 Experiential Learning: The RTAS and DTL promote active involvement of participants in an  
294 event, critically reflecting on their involvement, identifying the important and productive  
295 elements of their involvement, and then utilising this information to perform the same or  
296 similar activities in the future. During the programs participants are guided through a process  
297 of examining their own actions that led to their infringement, to recall the event in a frank  
298 manner (no excuses or legitimisation) and to explore how they could deal with this situation  
299 in a more productive/safe and legal manner in the future.

300 Cognitive-Behavioural Intervention: The programs use this powerful technique to assist  
301 participants with learning to express what they believe, need and feel. During the programs,  
302 participants are encouraged to move from a role of passive victim to that of active and  
303 capable agents of change with the ability to make the decisions necessary to change their  
304 attitudes and behaviours. Goldfried and Davidson suggest that cognitive-behavioural  
305 interventions are more suitable in prevention programs with persons at risk compared to other  
306 therapies and have been found to have enduring effects.

### 307 *Program delivery*

308 The RTAS targets first time or recidivist traffic offenders of any age, however the  
309 participants are typically young males (<26 years), convicted of a 'hoon' type offence, and  
310 referred via the Magistrates' Court, solicitors, or through self-referral. The seminars are  
311 conducted on a regular basis across the Melbourne metropolitan area as well as several  
312 regional and rural centres across Victoria. Currently approximately 1,200 participants attend  
313 the program per year with around 10 participants per program. The target group for the DTL  
314 program is youth (predominantly male) aged up to 17 years (pre-licensing) who have been  
315 charged with (or are facing) a traffic offence. Their offences commonly include theft of  
316 motor car, driving in a dangerous manner, reckless conduct endangering life/causing injury,  
317 unlicensed and learner driver offences. The program is currently conducted in the Dandenong  
318 Region where it was developed, however the RTSSV plan to extend this coverage to other  
319 metropolitan and regional areas. Referral to attend the DTL can be self-initiated, through a  
320 representing lawyer or directly from a magistrate. With Magistrate referrals sentencing can be  
321 deferred allowing time for attendance at the DTL program and completion of the program can  
322 then be taken into consideration for final sentencing.

323 The RTAS and DTL are user-pay programs, the RTAS is a 2.5 hour program and the DTL is  
324 3 hours in duration. A similar format is employed for both programs with flexibility for  
325 facilitators to tailor the program to suit the target audience and offender profiles, while still  
326 adhering to the overall format and philosophy of the programs. The programs are designed to  
327 be interactive with a requirement of active participation in order to obtain a certificate of  
328 attendance to present at court.

329 The facilitators (Educators) are employed by the RTSSV and are typically from a social  
330 science/counselling background. Key prerequisites for all facilitators are: relevant experience  
331 working in road trauma-related fields; qualifications in relevant fields such as adult education  
332 or health; and, experience working with offender/group facilitation. The Educators undergo  
333 extensive and ongoing training processes and attend regular team meetings and have regular  
334 communication regarding program modifications (RTSSV, 2004).

335 A volunteer presenter attends each program session, the volunteer can be an Emergency  
336 Services representative or a community volunteer who has personally experienced road  
337 trauma (themselves or family members). The community presenters have typically been  
338 clients of trauma counselling at the RTSSV however, it is recommended that they wait at  
339 least 2 years post trauma before taking on this role. Presenters are required to attend a  
340 training program facilitated by the RTSSV. The volunteer presenters' role in the programs is  
341 to give a 15-20 minute presentation based on their personal experience of road trauma; they  
342 do not play a role in facilitating the seminars.

### 343 *Summary of comparison of RTAS and DTL with best practice findings*

344 The characteristics and features of the RTAS and DTL programs were compared with best  
345 practice findings of comparable programs. These findings are detailed in Clark & Edquist  
346 (2012)0 and Oxley, O'Hern & Clark (2014) and summarised here. The results suggested  
347 that, overall, the RTAS and DTL programs align well with overall youth justice system  
348 principles and therapeutic approaches. The programs are based on restorative justice and  
349 diversion from entering the system. The programs are also community-based and include  
350 CBT. Further, the program implementation, content, structure and staffing was compatible  
351 with best practice approaches. They target specified age groups, particularly young drivers,  
352 and recognise heterogeneity of groups.

### 353 **Recommendations and Conclusions**

354 This study explored the available literature pertaining to best practice principles relating to  
355 short, non-treatment based offender programs which aim to bring about attitude and  
356 behavioural change, and reduce recidivism and hence road trauma. The findings showed that  
357 existing programs generally meet good practice requirements. However, there were some  
358 aspects of the programs that could be enhanced, and a suite of recommendations for  
359 consideration are provided. These include recommendations for additions to therapeutic  
360 approaches, target group considerations, additions to program content and key messages, as  
361 well as recommendations to ensure that appropriate and measureable variables are collected  
362 and available for robust evaluation of the program in the immediate and long-term future.

363 Driver offender programs are designed to complement existing enforcement practices. When  
364 viewed as an educative program aimed at providing participants with insight into the risks  
365 associated with these high risk driving behaviours, such as facing further sanctions or being  
366 involved in a serious injury or fatal crash, these programs have been found to be cost  
367 effective. They provide a low cost user pays option to support participant exploration of the  
368 risks associated with illegal driving behaviour, the potential consequences for themselves,  
369 families and other road users and to explore alternative positive driving practices.

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