

ANALYSIS OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICER
TRAINING IN THE UNITED
STATES OF AMERICA

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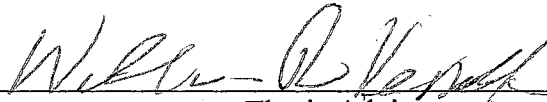
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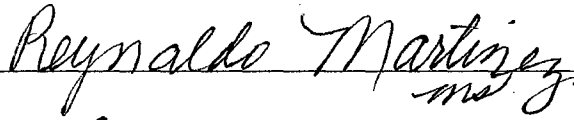
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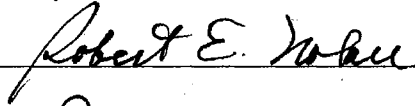
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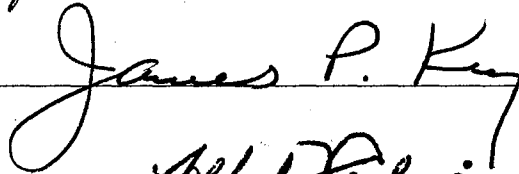
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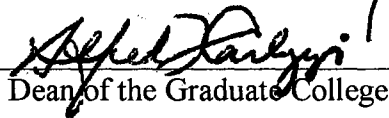


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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Correctional officers (COs) may not be receiving the appropriate training needed to effectively carry out their legal responsibilities as they continue to cope with the rapid changes in society and technology, the rising crime rate, the recent propensity of law makers to recommend stricter and longer sentences, and the subsequently rising prison population in the United States (US).

“Just as the rate of change both inside and outside of prisons is accelerating, budget constraints make it increasingly difficult to provide much needed staff training. “This factor”, McCollum (1997) writes, “coupled with longer inmate sentences and reduced program options, make the immediate future a difficult one for all correctional staff, including correctional managers and line staff officers” (p. 53). One of the most widely recognized problems in the field of corrections today is the critical need for trained personnel (Task Force Report: Corrections, 1967).

COs are inadequately trained (Petersen, 1995). “Research has indicated that minimal training is carried on in the field of corrections” (Law Enforcement Assistance Administration [LEAA] Interim Report, 1968, p.1). Wolford and Kowalski (1993, p.7) point out that during the periods of economic recession, it has been common practice to reduce staff training in order to obtain additional funds for direct services. Also, there was a general dearth of information on training, reported Archambeault and Archambeault (1982), and few instructional models existed about the kinds of training necessary.

Correctional organizations have the presumed obligation to "reasonably" and "adequately" train personnel (Archambeault and Archambeault, 1982). ". . . one of the most demanding problems in the field (of corrections) has been that of training or, more specifically, lack of training" (LEAA Interim Report, 1968). Many leaders in the field of corrections recognize the importance of professional development. However, these "lower echelon" "first-line officers" are inadequately prepared, trained and supervised (Eaton and Amir, 1966), and staff training remains a relatively low priority in many agencies (Johnson, 1993, p. 16). The role and person of the correctional officer (CO) have been systematically ignored unlike the police who have been the subject of considerable attention in recent years (Jacobs and Retsky, 1975, p. 5). "The study of prison guards is sadly neglected, although they are unanimously considered the important change agents in correctional work" (Sandhu, 1972, p. 26).

An organizational management principle is that the establishment has the obligation to train and develop its workforce (Archambeault and Archambeault, 1982; Rowan, 1997). Piven and Alcabes (cited in Task Force Report: Corrections, 1967) report, that as part of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency's training study questionnaires were sent to administrators in correctional systems throughout the country. More than half the responding agencies reported that they had no organized training programs.

Another study conducted by the Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections at the Southern Illinois University found that not only was there little formal training in the field of corrections, but less than 25% of the correctional agencies had full-time training officers (LEAA, 1968). Kowalski (1992) recounts that the number of

available trainers in a state varied from four in Iowa and five in Montana and South Dakota to a high of 601 in New York.

The National Institute of Corrections (NIC), in 1984, reported variation in training locations. According to the NIC (cited in Kowalski, 1992), 19 states delivered all training at central training facilities or academies. Four states (Kansas, Ohio, North Dakota and Wyoming) delivered CO training at their correctional institutions. Eighteen states used both individual institutions and central facilities to conduct training. Further variation in the remaining five states was reported: Alabama and Tennessee provided training at central training locations, individual institutions and regional training centers. Florida conducted training at individual colleges, universities and vocational centers. "Of the 39 central training facilities in the United States which provide at least partial training for new officers, 30 were under the authority of the state departments of corrections." (Kowalski, 1992; L.I.S., Inc., 1984).

Jail Officer Training tends to be inconsistent, reports Cortright (1993). She stated that "the problem is that there is not an equitable, uniform, and consistent training program for all jail officers" (p. 37). According to Farkas (1995), individuals become officers after a relatively brief period, an average five to nine weeks in training.

Lillis (1993, July, p. 4) reported that the total training period covered 233 weeks/9,355 hours, or an average of 5.7 weeks/234 hours of training per program. Findings in the following publications reflect that disparity exists in providing training to correctional officers. The American Correctional Association (ACA) (1994, p.31), reported that correctional officers in Texas receive only two weeks of academy style pre-service training as compared to officers in Florida, who receive twelve weeks of training.

New correctional officers, according to Camp and Camp (1995), must complete an average of 224 hours of pre-service training. Rowan (1997) also noted that correctional officers working in adult facilities received 224 hours of entrance/pre-service training. Camp and Camp (1995) reported the range of pre-service training requisite hours as from 640 (16 weeks) in Michigan to 40 hours (one week) in Vermont. Kowalski (1992) also reported considerable variances between North Dakota's 50 pre-service hours to California's 400.

The NIC's 1985 study of jail officers (cited in Kowalski, 1992) noted 27 states requiring training for new jail officers and "the number of training hours required ranged from a low of 36 in Texas to a high of 320 in Florida". State-operated jail systems like Alaska, Connecticut, Delaware, Hawaii, Rhode Island and the District of Columbia conduct their own training of jail officers. Additionally, Kowalski (1992) points out, Pennsylvania and Utah required this training before being placed on duty. According to L.I.S. Inc., (cited in Kowalski, 1992, p.11), "Most states that did not require jail officer training did, however, provide training on a voluntary basis that ranged from a relatively low to a rather high percentage of participants, i.e. California's 98% voluntary participation".

Breed, (cited in Hanford, 1987) pointed out in the 1976 American Correctional Association (ACA) Congress, "We have found that funds expended for staff training constitute the best investment we can make" (p.55). He also contends that new officers without adequate training have little idea of the proper role or job responsibilities of CO's. Lillis (1993) reported, the state of Michigan has the highest training budget at more than \$7.1 million, whereas North Dakota had the lowest budget at \$12, 000. Also,

Michigan spent the most at \$10, 649 per student and also had the longest training program at 16 weeks. North Dakota spent the least on training at \$100 per student and tied with Louisiana for the shortest training period at two weeks.

According to Lillis (1993, p.4), the entire budget for U. S. CO training now exceeds \$56 million a year, making up five percent of the country's total corrections budget. Forty-two U. S. correctional systems, including the District of Columbia and the Federal Bureau of Prisons, reported a total of \$56, 869, 116 or about \$1.4 million per system spent on CO training in 1992. That comes to an average of \$2, 561 per student spent on training.

L.I.S., Incorporated (1984) reported that 54.3% or 25 of the 46 states responding to a survey required basic pre-service training to be completed prior to placement of work assignment, whereas 52.5 % or 21 states' training is to be completed within the first year of employment. Minimal educational requirements varied from high-school diploma/GED to none at all.

According to Germann, Day and Gallati (1978) there has been an increasing interest in standards and training at the state level. Reporting the training of local police they counted thirty-eight states having standards and/or training programs supervised by boards, commissions, or councils. Divergence was noted in such training. "These operations vary from the most minimal training sessions to very sophisticated programs involving liaison with educational institutions; minimum standards for recruitment, selection and training; examination and certification; research; and extensive publications activity" (Germann, Day and Gallati, 1978). In reports published by the California State Board of Corrections (1987), various earlier studies (such as Cohen, 1979) of the

correctional systems encountered widely varying training practices from agency to agency even where printed job descriptions were quite similar.

Besides acknowledging in-service training need, the 1971 federal grant proposition aimed at alleviating inadequate pre-service training. "But the task of defining a satisfactory curriculum", writes Cohen (1979), "has been a major problem from the beginning". Philosophical differences in emphasizing the academia/"corrections college" versus "emphasis on security and custodial skills" continues to exist until this day. Cohen (1979) indicated that pre-service training programs included informational courses and courses promoting a positive view of supervision. He also cites difficulties in developing competent faculty who can contribute to an academically tailored curriculum or even proper training in basic skills and dearth of funds and contradictory objectives impeding the beginning of an earnest alliance with academia, as was proposed in the federal grant application.

The demand by correctional systems for well-trained and educated employees has never been as great as it is today (Taylor, 1996). According to Corrections Digest (January 24, 1997), the Forrest County, Mississippi Sheriff said, "(a)ll 82 counties in Mississippi have jails". "The needs are not the same, but the training of staff certainly would have a lot of things in common" (p.9). Corrections Director Cal Terhune is reported by Gladstone and Arax (1998), to have said that "I'm pushing to increase the academy.... it could be costly not to revise the training too". Gladstone and Arax (1998) also quoted The California Correctional Peace Officers Association's Jeff Thompson as saying, "It's penny wise and pound foolish to skimp on training in our area and they have been skimping for years" (p. A50). The Standards for Correctional Training Academies

(1993) and the American Association of Correctional Training Personnel additionally reported the importance of training correctional staff (Carter, 1992; Ryan, 1998).

Training is instrumental in enabling correctional change (Rinehart and Richardson, 1968). “Poorly trained officers with no prior experience are a threat to themselves, other staff, and inmates,” writes Bales (1997). “An officer’s thorough understanding of the department’s policies, procedures, and philosophy, can enhance and promote harmony and safety within the jail and within the community. This understanding can only be attained through education and effective training,” writes Cortright (1993, p. 37). Another survey by the Center for the Study of Crime and Delinquency and Corrections in 1990 acknowledged the importance of correctional staff training, reports Ryan (1998, p.75).

Only recently have correctional organizations given training much consideration (Archambeault and Archambeault, 1982, p. 317). “Increased training for our nation’s correctional officers must receive more attention. COs are professionals in the truest sense of the word and consequently must be given the instruction that goes with being a ‘professional’. Corrections is an occupation absolutely essential to the stability of our society, so correctional officers should be trained accordingly. This would go a long way toward enhancing the security of our prisons and jails” (Travisono, 1988, p. 4).

Groesch (1989) submits that Oettmeier’s (1982) findings indicated that officer performance in recruit-basic training academy was highly predictive of performance. Groesch (1989) later commented that Oettmeier’s (1982) “findings support the claim that recruit basic training plays a significant role in preparing people for careers in law enforcement” (p.23). Carlson (cited in Mahmud, 1993) noted in 1986 that the Federal

Bureau of Prisons has seen steady progress in the “professionalism” of workers through staff training. This is achieved, Mahmud (1993) writes, “through improvements in the caliber of the staff recruited and the training and advancement opportunities” (p.47).

Farkas (1995, p. 13) reiterated that the “professional correctional officer” has more education than his colleagues and is interested in a career with the Department of Corrections. To summarize, in the words of Maghan (1997), “The establishment of training during the past three decades as a permanent feature of modern correctional agencies represents a hallmark of organizational development. Training now serves as a qualifier of occupational identity, performance, and career options” (p.42).

Statement of the Problem

The problem which led to this study was that there was no common understanding of the learning and performance needs of entry-level correctional officers and thus officers were inconsistently trained and varied in their abilities to successfully fulfill their roles as correctional officers.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to identify the learning and performance needs of entry-level correctional officers.

Research Questions

The study was designed to address the following research questions:

1. What are the most important knowledge needs for entry level correctional officers?
2. What are the most important skill needs for entry level correctional officers?
3. What are the most important value needs for entry level correctional officers?
4. What are the most important training needs of entry level correctional officers?

Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions were made for the conduct of the study:

1. The initial respondents participating in the nomination of the panel of experts were knowledgeable of the duties of the correctional officers in the field, and they nominated persons on that basis (Pullen, 1996).
2. The members of the panel of experts were representative of visionary thinkers in correctional officer training.
3. The groups of experts are giving their best professional opinions to each question and not just a statement that reflects current practices within their own organization per se.
4. “The experts fully understood the questions and responded honestly and sincerely (Villaquiran, 1997).” Miller (1991) stated that use of Likert or a Likert-type scale requires the “assumption of a psychological continuity that the respondent can realistically act upon in self-rating” (p. 175).

5. The respondents who were willing to participate in the study gave answers to the best of their ability (Pullen, 1996).
6. The instrument developed provided the necessary information to satisfy the objectives of the study (Villaquiran, 1997).
7. “Neither standardization nor the arbitrary pre-specified scale eliminates the fact that the researcher has to make some assumptions regarding what the respondent really meant when he or she checked a particular response on the Likert Scale” (Warde, 1990, p. 226).
8. The Delphi Technique is a valid research technique for predicting future needs (Rogers, 1990), and that the instrument developed provided the necessary information to satisfy the objectives of the study (Villaquiran, 1997).

Scope of the Study

The study was conducted within the following constraints:

1. The experts identified were only those identified by the leaders of issues in correctional officer training. They were selected through the literature review, personal contact in professional conferences and screened by the standards set in this Delphi study. Therefore, the selected experts may not reflect the view of purely academic or exclusively corrections experts across the nation.
2. The experts identified were from a pool of nominees encompassing the United States of America and the scope of the study is national in nature.
3. There are facilities of varying size, scope and terms such as corrections

center, jail, treatment center, prison, reformatory within the varying county, state, private and the federal systems. For the purposes of generalizability, only the adult correctional systems of all the states of the United States have been considered. The term "correctional center" will generally be used to depict such an institution.

4. Finally, custody staff have been called "guards," "jailers," "prison guards," "turnkeys," "screws," "hacks," "detention officers," "correctional officers," or "security staff," (Allen & Simonsen, 1998). For the purpose of generalizability and this dissertation, the term "correctional officer" has been chosen in this study.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to the identification of training related knowledge, skill and value needs, not competencies.

1. The responding states, counties and organizations and their own state or county laws and organizational policies and procedures varied. The Bureau of Prison of the U.S. federal government and private prison administrations also varied.
2. The study was limited to the learning and performance needs of COs and the findings may not necessarily be generalized to management, in-service or other specialized training needs and the training needs of the remaining non-custodial correctional employees.
3. Though uniformity (Green, 1996) and refinement of ideas through feedback (Holcomb, 1996) may have been achieved and the Delphi process was well-organized in extracting information (Dalkey & Brown, 1967), one of the

limitations of the study was the arbitrary elimination of several duplicate ideas from multiple panelists during the Delphi Round I

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined for their use in the study.

Consensus - Majority opinion; general agreement and concord (Random House, 1991).

Correctional Officer (CO) - An agent of behavior change charged with the duty of sending inmates back into society as law-abiding and contributing members of that society (Kerper & Israel, 1979) with a varying role depending on the particular job assignment and the type of institution in which he or she works. Under immediate to general supervision, COs carry out routine duties in the maintenance of discipline and security among inmates of a state correctional facility (Oklahoma Office of Personnel Management [OPM], 1981, 1986).

DACUM - Acronym, which stands for Developing a Curriculum - An approach to occupational (job) analysis. It is used extensively in Canada at the post-secondary level and also by many secondary and post-secondary schools in the U.S. DACUM has been found to be effective, quick and low cost (National Academy of Corrections. 1989. Advanced Training for Trainers).

Delphi Technique - Method for the systematic solicitation and collation of judgments on a particular topic through a set of carefully designed sequential questionnaires interspersed with summarized information and feedback of opinions derived from earlier responses (Delbecq, Van de Ven, and Gustufson, 1975).

Experts - Participants in the Delphi Study selected because of their recognized expertise in the field of corrections and training. Turoff (1970) defines them as a respondent group whose judgments are being sought and who are asked to respond to questionnaires.

Instructor – A teacher (The American Heritage; 4th Edition, 2000). An individual who is in the practice or profession of instructing (The American Heritage; 2nd College Edition, 1991). An instructor furnishes knowledge through teaching. He or she imparts lessons through the use of structured learning events, such as group discussions, presentations, role-plays and case studies. These skills also include assessing learners' needs, using media and materials, administering exams or instruments, and providing feedback to participants (McLagan, 1983).

Law Enforcement Officer - All state, county, and municipal public safety officers possessing the duty and power of arrest for violation of the general criminal laws of the state or for violation of ordinances of counties or municipalities of the state.

Learning - The ability to acquire new behaviors, perceptions, and information; the ability to apply past experiences to new situations (Villani, 1999, p. 22).

Mandatory Training - Training established by the authority of the Federal or State law. Each state or organization has its own obligatory training requirements for both pre-service and in-service training.

Performance – A presentation, an accomplishment, or the state of being performed. The way in which someone or something functions (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2nd College Edition, 1991).

Pre-Service Training - Training that correctional officers receive before or as they start their jobs. The amount of training received is mandated by law or by the affiliated professional organization and varies among the 50 states.

Probe - Technique developed by the RAND Corporation, which entails multiple sequential mailing, beginning with a probe that is accompanied by a cover letter explaining the process to selected individuals and organizations soliciting nominations of experts of the subject matter. Included in the probe is a pre-addressed envelope to insure ease in responding and to encourage timely replies (Zuboy, 1980). The total number of probes generally varies from two to four. One complete cycle invokes a probe's journey from the researcher to respondents and its return back to the researcher with feedback.

Subject-Matter Instructor – Instructor of a class or course in a specific area. Specialized classes include, but are not limited to: firearms, cardiopulmonary resuscitation, first-aid, self-defense, chemical agents, client management classification, interpersonal communication skills, hostage negotiation, mediation, and other areas of expertise.

Trainer - A learner-centered conductor of a course or program (Eitington, 1989).

Training – A learning process focused on improving individual and group behavior and performance, and ultimately the organization (Ronda & Kusy, Jr., 1995). Objective(s) of training usually include to teach or to transmit information, to build skills and abilities, and to contribute to gaining knowledge.

Training Facilitator – A person who, through skill building of individuals or of teams, depicts ways to train participants in assuming responsibility for their own learning

and to become more cohesive and productive. The term is in contrast to the more didactic instructor, teacher, lecturer, or presenter (Eitington, 1989).

Training Officer – An individual who is “certified” to be a mentor/manager/coach/tutor, usually based on one’s “technical esteem” (Orlich, 1989), who conducts training sessions at an assigned correctional facility or a training academy. He or she assists senior correctional training officers and training administrators in the development and implementation of staff development and training programs (Oklahoma Office of Personnel Management [OPM], 1987).

Organization of the Study

Chapter I provides a prologue and reasoning for the study. It includes a statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, assumptions of the study, its scope and limitations, and definition of terms used in the study.

Chapter II furnishes background information through an in-depth review of literatures on pre-service training, the Delphi technique and a summary of the findings.

Chapter III describes the design of the research. It defines the population and explains the sampling process used in determining the subject matter experts. The manner the questionnaires were developed and instrumentation is discussed. It explains in detail the origin of the research instrument and the rationale for its specific use. It illustrates the data collection method and depicts the analysis of data.

Chapter IV presents the findings as well as an analysis of the data as it relates to the attributes of the respondents, issues pertinent to pre-service training, and enhanced training needs of correctional officers in the U.S.

Chapter V provides a summary of the research and several conclusions based on the data collected by the researcher. It also concludes with suggestions for practice and for more study as well as ramifications of the research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of literature was conducted to provide information in two areas. The first was correctional officer pre-service training, which is usually the foundation of learning and performance transformation for such law-enforcement staff in correctional organizations. This segment of the chapter introduces a correctional officer (CO), discusses training in general and the evolution of correctional officer pre-service training to its current status. The second area was about the Delphi technique, its development, and its use in educational and training research and the technique's applicability in this study.

Anatomy of a CO

“The backbone of our profession” affirmed Taylor (1989) during a Winter Conference of the American Correctional Association (ACA) is “the line correctional officers” (p.13). National Academy of Corrections (NAC), National Institute of Corrections (NIC), U.S. Department of Justice (1992) outlined the competency profile of the CO. According to NAC, the CO ensures public safety by providing for the care, custody, control and maintenance of inmates. The profile details the task of a CO and includes duties such as: Manage and Communicate with Inmates; Direct Inmate Movement; Maintain Key, Tool, & Equipment Control; Maintain Health, Safety, &

Sanitation; Communicate with Staff; participate in Training; and Distribute Authorized Items to Inmates.

“Correctional officers make a difference in corrections, a big difference. They can largely determine the quality, character and tone of any correctional facility,” writes Gilbert and Riddell (1983). They further state that what they do or fail to do can be helpful or destructive to themselves, the institutionalized person, the organization and the general public (p.31).

“One of the most curious features of the whole history of modern imprisonment is the way in which the custodial officer, the key figure in the penal equation, the man on whom the whole edifice of the penitentiary system depends, has with astonishing consistency either been ignored or traduced or idealized but almost never considered seriously” (Crouch, 1980, p. 60). COs have been largely disregarded by social scientists (Groesch, 1989). He further submits, by referring to Clemmen (1956) and Sykes (1958), that research regarding COs was usually a by-product of inmate studies. “The truth” Crouch (1980) further writes, “as it emerges from the few studies which pay attention to prison guards and view them objectively, is simply that these guards were and are for the most part ordinary human beings with ordinary human failings and virtues. They have in the past been asked to perform impossible tasks without being properly trained to perform even possible ones” (p.61).

The intention to become a CO was briefly explored. Crouch (1980) points to Jacobs and Retsky (1975), who describe a study by Lou Harris in which only one percent of the teenagers surveyed indicated that they had considered corrections a potential career. Crouch (1980) writes that “the decision to become a correctional officer occurs

later in life and in fact often appears to be somewhat accidental, a rather unplanned response to a fortuitous opportunity or a need for immediate employment” (p.65).

Groesch (1989) attests to Downey and Signori’s (1958) contention that three-fourths of COs have been selected by unscientific methods. He quotes a Michigan prison warden of Jackson Prison who expressed his hiring criteria in 1953, as “We would hire them if they were warm and alive” (ACA, 1970).

Groesch (1989) reiterates that such “warm body” preference viewpoints are not isolated, and refers to Willet (1983) who indicated that the United States’ departments of corrections screening procedures were haphazard, based on selection board member’s own procedures with a loose-fitting framework. According to Groesch (1989), “confidential assessments of profile reports of guards were not used while they were in training nor in subsequent operational service” (p.12). He refers to McKay, et al., (1979) that those who selected guards received no feedback on performance results of those they picked.

According to Hanford (1987), “The Illinois correctional training system has a distinctive approach to selection, retention, and motivation of institutional staff. The Illinois minimum sustenance level of training for security staff begins with the requirements of at least eighteen years of age, a high school diploma or equivalent, a valid driver’s license (youth supervisors), an authorization for release of personal information, and a complete medical history report” (p56). The “Illinois model” of training was a precursor to the development of the NAC. Hanford (1987) in reference to the model reiterates, “it is the basic level of training and should be present in every correctional system” (p.56).

Usually the minimum age for a person interested in the position of a CO is 21 and the maximum age for service is 70 years. Such a correctional staff member generally possesses a minimum of thirty (30) semester hours from an accredited college or university or a high school diploma acquired from an accredited high school or GED (based upon standards established by the Department of Education) equivalent testing program and graduation from the Council of Law Enforcement Education and Training or be enrolled in completing such a course during the first six (6) months of employment (Oklahoma Statutes, 1983). However, in reality, as reported in the Vital Statistics (1994), minimum educational requirements of correctional officers throughout the US varies from High School Diploma/GED (59.42 %) to 4 year college degree (10.14 %) to Choice degree/experience (14.49%), Others (2.90 %) and to None (10.14%).

Other requirements can include satisfactory completion of physical in keeping with the job description on an annual basis and along guidelines established by a Department of Corrections. COs must also satisfactorily complete an adequate training program specifically for COs as prescribed and approved by the Board of Corrections before going on duty alone (Oklahoma OPM, 1986). Taylor (1989) adds, "Associate's, bachelor's, and master's degrees can earn additional pay increases" (p. 16).

A CO must have knowledge of the methods and objectives of discipline required for persons under restraint. Cheatwood (1985), in preparing his Correctional Officer's Guide for the Patuxent Institution in Jessup, Maryland, suggested that "(a)s a correctional officer you will be dealing with a group of individuals with which every other part of this society has failed" (p.17). His suggestion included "two of the most important things for you to do are: observe and listen; follow policies and procedures".

“Changing corrections into a system with significantly increased power to reduce recidivism and prevent recruitment into criminal careers will require, above all else, a sufficient number of qualified staff to perform the many tasks to be done” (Task Force Report: Corrections, 1967). Braswell, Fletcher and Miller (1990) submit that any measurable success in offender rehabilitation can be found in correctional supervision if the line workers such as COs are adequately trained. Also, the attitude of COs is a crucial variable associated with how the prison systems “acts, reacts, and interacts” with inmates (Jackson and Ammen, 1996, p.153).

A CO must also have prudence of the use and in the care of firearms and also possess the knowledge of grammar and arithmetic. Skill in quickly evaluating a situation and adopting an effective course of action, and in following oral and written instructions are also required (Oklahoma OPM, 1986).

Advent of a CO

According to Maghan (1997) the very classification CO officially emerged during the 1970's as the occupational reference term used by the U.S. Department of Labor for the archaic term of 'prison guard' (p.43). “As corrections officers”, Maghan further states, “learn to be more self-determining through training, unionization, and the acquisition of a new sense of dignity, they will also free themselves from a previously narrowly conceived status as part-time prisoner. Training is the common denominator in this question” (p.48).

Martinez (1997, p.1) contends that COs have more responsibilities than in the past and their task is no longer to simply watch over the prisoners. They now have to play

several roles in keeping prisoners in line. They have to be "psychiatrists" when prisoners come to them with their issues and they have to be "arbitrators and protectors" when inmates have complaints or problems with each other, while watching out for their own safety.

Toch (Undated) questions, "Does the advent of the 'correctional officer' augur an emerging role in penology, or is such an officer rebaptized Keeper of Cons? Are there attributes that distinguish the 'new guard' from his precursors? Does he have expanded functions? A reshaped mission? More discretion? New tasks to perform?" (p.20). He answers his own questions, and in a way paints a picture of a CO role in transition, as follows,

In specific cases, we know the answer is 'no'. A correctional officer assigned to tower duty is a residue of the dark ages. He requires 20/20 vision, the IQ of an imbecile, a high threshold for boredom and a basement position in Maslow's hierarchy. For most officers – who are better than this – a tower assignment is palatable as an undiluted sinecure. The tower guard 'does his time' because we offer him a paycheck for his presence. He is paid not only to be non-professional, but to be flagrantly non-contributing.

Other officers operate under roughly equivalent mandates. They must count, lock, unlock, escort, watch, stand by. They must complete forms certifying to the obvious or recording the unusual. They are enjoined to eschew communication with inmates, to invoke supervisors where real decisions are called for, to refer problems of consequences to colleagues of consequence.

There is little in the literature (either in prisons or on total institutions) that offer much hope to the officer. The guard, we are told, is the natural enemy of the inmates; client contacts corrupts guards, and are offensive to inmates of integrity. Guard-inmate links pinpoint politicians, rates, square johns; denote areas of staff compromise and marginality, of emasculation and bartering.

There are new facts to consider, however, new voices, new drummers to heed. Areas of inmate freedom have expanded, living conditions have been ameliorated. 'Total' institutions are less total, more permeable to the outside. The guard is enjoined to be humane, respectful of cultural plurality, sensitive to client grievances. We try to recruit the officer from a broader – and presumably more

responsive – pool. He is trained, or retrained, in human relations, crisis management and social sciences generally. (p.20).

Johnson (1987) attributed the custodial correctional role as outdated and less than practical. His findings reflect officers engaged in the delivery of goods and services, sources of referral and advocacy, and officers concern for day-to-day inmate adjustment.

“A custodial officer is a figure of power and dispenser of authority” (Toch, p.21).

“Whatever the new correctional officer may be, he must be more than a custodial officer” (Toch, p. 22).

Stohr, Lovrich and Wood (1996) concluded that “Correctional officers – male and female alike – sense the need for *service oriented training* to accommodate their enriched and expanded professional role. Clearly, COs are inclined to value service training as much or more than security training whether they are males or females” (p. 445).

Toch adds that “Corrections officer” is not a sterile label. Men fit under that label in ways that make sense. We admit that there are few such men. Some day there may be more. On the other hand, there may not be. The CO role is tender, the soil is arid, and it is infested by the custody ethic. New life needs nurturance. It needs strong support from its setting (p.35). Hewitt (1982/1983) points out that “Correction Officers also suffer from an image problem they say is fostered by the press and movies. As one officer put it: “I’d like to be able to look anyone in the eye when they ask me what I do for a living and say ‘I’m a corrections officer’ and be proud of it” (p.233). Gilbert and Riddell (1983) describe the CO’s role as follows,

What correctional officers must begin to understand is that everything an inmate experiences in prison is treatment of one form or the another. The net effect is either good or bad. It is either conducive to a safe, secure and humane environment in which to live and work, or it is not. It is either conducive to

effective management of people (inmates), or it is not. It is either conducive to rehabilitation and programmatic opportunities, or it is not. The 24-hour-day prison experience either increases public protection or reduces it; but either way, it is largely correctional officers (individually and collectively) who determine its quality, character and tone. They affect the lives of inmates far more than any other group of staff members because they have 24-hour contact with them (Burns 1975; Gillin, 1926; Glaser, 1964; and Johnson, 1977a and 1977b). In short, treatment is what every correctional officer does when working with an offender. (p.32).

Development of CO Tasks

Griffin (1993) writes that early in prison history the CO was known as a “watchman” (Shearer, 1971, p. 139). He further quotes, “One or more of them shall patrol the yard carefully examining every portion of it in the course of their rounds; see that all is safe and upon any emergency apprise the night overseers” (Prison Discipline Society, 1972, p. 85). “Keeper” was another name given to the early CO. The “keeper” was literally the “keeper of the keys,” which was considered an important task.

According to Griffin (1993), during the late 1800s, a military posture was taken and a guard was called a “subordinate” officer. Subordinate officers, he further writes, were encouraged to deal with a refractory prisoner by “breaking the man’s spirit by punishment” (Report of Executive Committee of Prison Association, 1869, p.123).

Hewitt (1982/1983) wrote that “It is literally a face-to-face job. Corrections Officers get to know their charges immediately. They have to. Any change in an inmate’s behavior can signal trouble” (p.233). Hewitt quotes an officer who says that “At the academy (Correction Officers Training Academy) they teach you basic security, drug abuse, the legal aspect of the job, weapons, crowd control, but only the basics” “the rest you have to learn by experience” (p.233).

Griffin (1993) sums up by stating that many elements of the effective officer of the past exist in the present: Today's officer must still be a watchman, a keeper, a supervisor, an officer; but today's CO must balance Goffman's (1961, pp.74-83) concept of "people work" with Merton's (1961, pp. 9-57) description of the "bureaucrat".

According to Bryans (1995), "Some of the new work" requires, "comprehensive training for prison officers to equip them with the necessary skills". In an analysis of the COs' task (in a "Boot Camp") and their training needs, Camp (1991) wrote that, "Officers should be well trained in the application of military-type discipline, as well as in the use of interpersonal management skills. In addition, special training in dealing with physical security and inmate group management appears essential" (p.171).

Farkas (1995) asserts that prior to 1956, the role of guard was clearly defined; maintaining security and internal order (Carroll, 1974). Indeed, the term "guard" suggests a custodial identity and function Farkas (1995) further attests. She writes that the change of the title to "correctional officer" reflects the introduction of the rehabilitative philosophy to the field of corrections.

COs often must, Petersen (1995) writes, "play psychiatrist, nurse and cop. Some inmates are furious, some are in tears and others are still high on drugs". Sandhu (1972) wrote that the COs work closest to the prisoner, and spend more time with them than any other official. "There are new demands on them to add to their already heavy custodial duties. They must develop some understanding of the prisoner, talk to him, offer him consolation and counsel" (Sandhu, 1972, p. 26).

According to Stohr and Zupan (1992), COs "occupy a unique position in the organizational structure of a jail or any other correctional institution. They serve as both

the primary vehicle for control of inmates as well as the primary vehicle for provision of inmate services” (p. 76). They believe that in the jails of the 1990s and beyond, “the role of the correctional officer as service provider is likely to solidify, rather than dissipate, making the ability of this street-level bureaucrat to accurately identify the needs of clients indispensable and of greater primacy” (p. 89).

Dichotomy of CO Roles: Security and/or Treatment

Johnson and Price (1980), Gilbert (1981), and Gilbert and Riddell (1983) recommend CO interaction with offenders in such a way that aid in the growth and sustenance of a stable, orderly prison in which the living and working atmosphere is safe, protected and humane; and where survival with self-respect and regard is assured so that individual development and self-change is possible. Gilbert and Riddell (1983) add that the CO is neither strictly security oriented nor strictly treatment oriented. This delineation identifies the reality that security and treatment are two sides of the same enigma (p.34).

Bryans (1995) argues that it is not so much the variance of tasks that have to be discharged which makes it so difficult, but “combining and sometimes switching them from one to another as operational circumstances demand – exerting discipline while exercising support, ensuring physical security while preparing for freedom. The officer who is trained to be involved in treatment programs, to be sensitive and a good listener, has also been trained to be ready to deal with a disturbance. So it takes courage, initiative, and imagination to be an effective prison officer, as well as interpersonal skills”. According to Bales (1997),

To carry out their security and supervision responsibilities, officers need to understand their agency's correctional philosophy and their institution's policy/regulations and procedures. They must be security technicians – expert in their search, supervision, and inmate management skills. They must know their limits of their responsibility and authority, as well as know how to work as team members with other staff, both correctional and noncorrectional. They must understand the judicial and legislative decisions that affect what they do. Finally, they must take responsibility for assuring that they act in a professional manner. To know all of these facts, the correctional officer should receive information and training from a well-developed training program (p.10).

Mahmud (1993) writes that, as the position of COs extended to comprise rehabilitation of inmates, training programs were broadened in order to meet this enhanced function.

Farkas (1995) alludes that “the physical aspects of the prison also affects the development and affirmation of types among officers. It influences opportunities for interaction and shapes the character of the interaction between correctional officers and inmates. The physical aspects, function, and inmate composition of a prison denote classification as minimum, medium, or maximum security” (p.27).

Corrections Operations Reliance on COs

Correctional operations rely a lot on security or custody positions. Nearly two-thirds (221,000) of the 347, 320 of all correctional employees are custody or security positions (Stephan, 1997). The Bureau of Justice Statistics (1995) cites a higher proportion of custodial staff to the overall correctional employees. According to Paboojian and Teske, Jr., (1997) there has been a rapid increase in the number of COs. This seems to be associated with the increase in offender population. As of June 30, 1996 there were 93, 167 Federal prisoners, 1, 019, 281 state prisoners and 518, 492 jail inmates (Corrections Digest, 1997).

According to the US Department of Justice (DOJ), there were more than 5.1 million Americans under some form of correctional supervision at the end of 1994. To understand the magnitude, this number, reports DOJ, represents 2.7 percent of the adult population who interact with the COs (and vice versa) who are the individuals entrusted with corrective supervision every day.

The CO represents the prison to its captives more than anyone else. The CO is “always there, while the prisoner works, plays, eats, sleeps, etc.” (Webb and Morris, 1978). According to Maghan (1999),

At this very minute, Correctional Officers are filling duty posts in jails and prisons of every type, federal, state and local. The watch is covered: the walk, the tower, the transportation vehicle, the command center, the clinic and hospital run, the tuberculosis/AIDS ward, the prison hospice, the suicide, the funeral detail, the emotionally disturbed persons. The operational exigencies of the food service and the commissary, the medical clinic, sick call and hospital, protective custody and punitive segregation, the recreation yards, the visits, the nursery, the law library and religious services are carefully covered. All of these actions are performed within the incessant din of gates slamming, radios blaring, toilets flushing ... the tedium, the lines, the danger, the despair, the fear, the violence ... the concentrated stress of a homo-sexual confinement ... “Hell, with lid lifted!”

COs not only enhance the security of jails and prisons (Sandhu, 1972; Trivisono, 1988), but they protect the community by detaining the offenders where the court has ordered them to be, and by also doing their part of rehabilitating (Mahmud, 1993) the offenders through professional (Farkas, 1995) practices. According to Gilbert and Riddell (1983),

Correctional literature reveals a number of values that appear to be centrally important for correctional officers to possess, including respect for people (inmates); a sense of personal and professional self-worth; an appropriate concern for public protection, security and control; a sincere concern for the welfare of prisoners; personal honesty and integrity; personal confidence; a positive outlook toward life; a commitment to open, non-defensive communication styles; a healthy concern for the safety of inmates, other staff and themselves; and a recognition of the importance their role plays in determining the quality, character and tone of the correctional environment. With such values as these as the

touchstone of correctional officers' behavior, a role definition begins to emerge. (p.33).

CO positions thereby can potentially make a big difference in making positive changes for the better that can be imbued while offenders are under correctional supervision.

Responsibilities of a CO

The California Board of Corrections (1987), in its Corrections Officer Validation Report and Technical Adequacy Report grouped CO task items into task categories by linking job tasks to worker characteristics and described the same in the report's Table 3.2 (see Appendix L for detailed illustration) as follows:

(1) Booking, Receiving, and Releasing; (2) Escorting, Transporting; (3) Record Keeping, Report Writing; (4) Supervising Non-inmate Movement, Visitors; (5) Searching and Securing; (6) Supervising Inmates; (7) Communicating; (8) [Performing] Physically Demanding Tasks; (9) [Carrying Out] Miscellaneous Tasks; and (10) Supervising Other Detention Facility Personnel.

- A. Maintain Security (41% of total work time);
- B. Supervise Daily Inmate Activities (26 % of total work time);
- C. Maintain Written Documentation (16%);
- D. Follow Emergency Procedures (06 %); and
- E. Complete Other Duties As Assigned (11 %).

The researchers explain in specific detail as to what tasks actually are performed under each of the above categories. Work requirements and skills are also outlined with the

above. The findings of the study (outlined in Appendix M) elaborate the job duties in order of criticality and importance.

Need for CO Training

Throughout history the need for CO training has been apparent to anyone who has recognized how complex the COs job can be. Under immediate to general supervision, a CO performs routine duties in the maintenance of discipline and security in a state correctional facility among adult inmates, convicted of one or multiple felonies by a court of law.

Hutto (1996), in his presidential address at the 116th Annual Congress of Correction, said, “Training, professional development, . . . for line staff, whether in field services, or institutions, must receive our support” (p. 9). Groesch (1989) submits that the importance of the COs role was noticed in a few earlier prison studies. He narrates that in an 1832 report it was noted that, “to insure a successful application of the new system of discipline (the Auburn System) the institution must be placed under the charge of good officers . . .” (Prison Discipline Society of Boston, 1972).

Grant (1985) quotes a CO and the section president of Local 815 of the Civil Service Employees Association – Duane T. Leibler who says “We need training before we open the doors”. An organization’s staffing needs and its mission can be fulfilled through pre-service training (Khan, 1997). Groesch (1989, p.56) recommends setting up a “Field Training program” so that cadets will be exposed to practical experience and have opportunity to apply job knowledge acquired through training under direct daily supervision within an actual employment situation.

Farkas (1995) attests that “in terms of the job skills, emphasis is on concrete knowledge. ‘Hands-on’ experience and on-the-job training are the primary knowledge and training needed for a correctional officer” (39).

According to McCollum (1996), “structured staff training,” . . . “rates above all these as an effective way, first to get the message to everyone involved in the implementation process, and secondly, to begin to build understanding, acceptance and support for identified goals”. One way to prepare officers, Crouch (1983) writes, is to empirically determine which training experiences will best prepare officers to meet actual job demands and then design programs accordingly.

Martinez (1997) contends that it is essential that capable people be placed in such CO positions considering how “dangerous and complicated” this field of work is.

“ACA’s Golden Oldies” (1988) outlined in *Corrections Today* reported that,

in the March-April, 1941, issue of *Prison World*, John H. Klinger, director of the Indiana Division of Corrections, surveyed various officer training projects carried on throughout the United States. He discovered close correlation between such factors as Civil Service status, job permanence, reasonable hours and working conditions, and officer training. In other words, it is further outlined, where the position of correctional officer has been stabilized, professionalized, and made fairly attractive, staff training flourishes; where these conditions do not exist, it is difficult to initiate anything very extensive in the way of officer training (p. 98).

Higher standards of training can produce higher quality correctional officer.

Seeds of such success can be sown as one embarks upon a correctional career and is selected to attend pre-service training. Such training can in turn insure imparting higher ethical and moral lessons as it imparts COs with better skills, expanded knowledge and an attitude of self-worth vying for professionalism (Coetzee, 1997; Rowan, 1997).

"The key element for the effective management of correctional systems is the professionalism of all correctional staff" (1983 Platform on Corrections Committee). Professionalism, Coetzee (1997) writes, is the difference between a person who has knowledge, skills and attitude and an amateur who does not. Coetzee (1997) further expounds that,

theoretical knowledge is an important aspect of any person's requirement to be able to function efficiently. It forms the foundation of practical knowledge or skills that are required in a work situation. Knowledge also refers to expertise, because it is obtaining knowledge that one can become an expert. The correctional official must therefore have the necessary knowledge that gives him or her the expertise to act professionally.

Evolution of CO Training

The tone for "job training of prison officials" was set at the National Congress on Penitentiary and Reformatory Discipline in 1870. Kowalski (1992) writes, "it was not until 1930 that the Federal Prison system developed the first ongoing correctional staff training. This four month basic training course was first offered in New York" (p.2).

The importance of training was revisited in the Wickersham Commission report in 1931. The necessity for higher recruitment standards and better training for COs can be traced to the days of the mid-nineteenth-century penal reformers (Cohen, 1979).

American Prison Association, Proceedings of the 60th Annual Congress, October 10-16 in 1930 outlined the role of today's COs as follows,

Special training, as well as high qualities of head and heart, is required to make a good prison or reformatory officer. Then only will the administration of public punishment become scientific, uniform and successful, when raised to the dignity of a profession, and men are specially trained for it, as they are for other pursuits. The development of schools for the training of prison executives and guards,

along the lines already started in this and other countries, should be promoted throughout the United States.

Cohen (1979) cites Walter Wallack's (1938) *The Training of Prison Guards in the State of New York*, which traces centralized training of COs in New York State to the establishment of the Central Guard School at Walkikl State Prison in 1937.

According to Kowalski (1992), research, curriculum design and course development efforts sprouted in the 1940's and the 1950's. The Correctional Officers Training Guide, released by the ACA was the blueprint and a sole source of information on correctional officer accountabilities (Kowalski, 1992). The Guide pointed the way towards setting up training academies of the future (Johnson, 1992). Implications of the enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 were also many.

Cohen (1979) pointed out that the 1964 Arden House Conference brought together many noted criminologists to discuss correctional manpower in which they discussed the absence of meaningful training, and ways to attain professionalism. Conference Chairperson Milton Rector's remarks like "well qualified correctional employees are not born, but made" implies an intervening process to seek out individuals and prepare for what he called "arduous but rewarding careers".

The conception of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training took root in this environment. In 1965, the National Council on Crime and Delinquency conducted a national survey (Kowalski, 1992). The findings helped unearth the specific training needs reiterated by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in 1967 (Kowalski, 1992).

Lombardo (1989) reported that new COs during the 1970's were trained by more experienced staff and what advice they received was often general. "Although the department of Corrections and the local prison administration provided little training, and with reluctance on the part of the experienced officers to instruct the rookie correction officers, new men were in many cases forced to turn for advice to the inmates over whom they had authority.

"Prior to the introduction of job bidding in 1970 and of the academy in 1972, inmates appear to have played a large part in orienting the new officer in his job" (Lombardo, 1989, p. 39). New York State established the Correctional Services Training Academy in 1972. It was designed to provide both pre and in-service training for staff including a 13-week-training program (ten weeks of classroom instruction and three weeks of on-the-job training) for incoming COs (Lombardo, 1989).

According to Kowalski (1992), with the support of the Peace Officer Standards and Training project and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA), Project Star (System and Training Analysis of Requirements) was formed in 1971. Project STAR's goals were to ascertain the problems which existed in education and training within the corrections profession (Kowalski, 1992, p.3).

In 1973, Project STAR advocated that personnel in the correctional field should acquire staff training and be required to accomplish the amount of education of equal value to that of other branches of the criminal justice system (Project STAR, 1973). According to Johnson (1992), Project STAR was the most far-reaching program ever undertaken concerning the identification of roles, job tasks, and performance objectives in efforts to develop needed training programs, to date.

The first centralized training center of the Federal Bureau of Prisons at the Correctional Institute in El Reno, Oklahoma was opened in 1971. The center was relocated to Dallas in 1972, and another center was opened in Atlanta, Georgia (Kowaloski, 1992). "The most sophisticated prison-officer training program in the US", Crouch (1980, p. 57) writes, "is that conducted by the U.S. Bureau of Prisons at its two regional staff training centers (Atlanta, Georgia, and Dallas, Texas) and by institutional training coordinators at each of the major institutions operated by the Bureau".

Outcome of CO Training

Training is critical in sustaining a professional work force, writes Bales (1997, p.x). He maintains that COs who are thoroughly trained in technical, interpersonal, and helping skills can handle more responsibilities and emergencies calmly. They are more likely to respond quickly and efficiently to urgent situations. Bales (1997, pp. x-xi) further contends that training that includes emergency drills, combined with experience, will help staff react appropriately to the many types of problems and issues that they will confront in their day-to-day duties.

The California Board of Corrections (1987) in its Technical Adequacy Report, (Section 2, p. 5), outlines that "a systematic description of job performance is the foundation upon which effective training programs are designed and developed. It is also the basis for making key decisions regarding training content and methods".

The California Board of Corrections (1987) report on Standards and Training for Corrections Program, carried out by Personnel Decisions Incorporated, clustered 105 individual Knowledge Skills and Abilities (KSA)'s of CO into groups representing

common characteristics and elaborated the same as follows in the report "Table 3.1".

The report (elaborated in Appendix K) pointed to twenty-four (24) CO Worker

Characteristics as:

- A. Facility Specific Knowledge
- B. Knowledge of the Legal System
- C. Psychological Training
- D. Street Knowledge
- E. First Aid
- F. Using Firearms
- G. Operating Communications Equipment
- H. Oral Communication
- I. Reading
- J. Written Communication
- K. Quantitative Skill
- L. Observation Acuity
- M. Driving
- N. Self-defense/Physical Restraints of Others
- O. Social Skills
- P. Motivation/Dependability
- Q. Stress Tolerance
- R. Dominance/Self-esteem
- S. Non-autonomy
- T. Flexibility.
- U. Tolerance of Negative Aspects of the Job
- V. Searching
- W. Vision and Hearing Abilities
- X. Physical Abilities

Professionalism Through Training

According to Coetzee (1997), the correctional official requires the knowledge of the correctional services system, departmental policy, job content, academic knowledge and knowledge of the prisoner as a person. Apart from knowledge, Coetzee (1997) suggests that it is also important that the correctional official have communication skills, self knowledge, teamwork skills, skills in dealing with conflict, coping with stress, educational skills, problem-solving and decision-making skills that will enable a CO to act professionally.

Since it is the attitude, in particular, of a professional official that distinguishes him from others, it is important to look into this matter thoroughly. As outlined by Coetzee (1997), this behavior relates to an ethical basis. "An ethical basis indicates what is the highest, the most important and the most noble. It is something that can correspond to values, norms and standards." In other words, it indicates what is right or wrong. The value and norms that the correctional official must strive for to be regarded as professional are also derived from what is regarded as correct, adequate, humane and therefore, worth striving for. It also determines the correctional official's attitude to work, which is also known as work ethics.

Besides enhanced knowledge, standards and high ethics, professionalism is achieved through training (National Platform on Corrections Committee, 1983). It also ensures that correctional professionals, especially COs, will be ready to respond to the challenges of managing overcrowded correctional facilities while ensuring safety for themselves, the offenders and the citizens.

CO Training Standards

Within the last decade, correctional training programs have experienced notable changes. Mahmud (1993) points out that the adoption throughout all states of the Corrections Officer's Training Guide prepared by the ACA's Committee on Personnel Standards and Training, marked a significant advancement in CO training (Hawkins, 1980). She further indicates that with the establishment of the Commission of Accreditation for Corrections in 1974, training moved toward routinization of standards and uniformity of procedures (Griesner, 1980).

According to Morton (1991), the ACA policy embraced in 1991 accentuated the gravity of personnel training in the conclusion that training was essential to maintain work standards, refine skills, expand knowledge, avoid burnout, and keep up to date with corrections philosophy, policies, and procedures, as well as maximizing agency productivity and employee satisfaction. A large number of states and the federal government have noted the "clear need for specialized personnel in each State to be concerned with the development and administration of training programs" (Maghan, 1981, p. 101).

ACA has since developed several training materials specific to COs and now suggests a minimum 120 hours of pre-service training inclusive of specific courses (ACA Standards For Correctional Training Academies, Standard Number 1-CTA-3A-21, 1993). According to the ACA Standards for Correctional Training Academies (1993) all new hires should receive pre-service training to comply with requirements of accreditation standards.

The evolution of these principles mirrors contemporaneous correctional practice all over the U.S. A. (Johnson, Gondoles, Rauch, Phyfer, 1993, p. x). Maghan (1998) writes, “operational tenets are now established regarding the correctional training function. Generally speaking, training is no longer perceived as a isolated function; rather it is viewed inextricably linked to operations”. He further writes (1999), “It is imperative that correctional agencies provide adequate training to correctional officers in role fulfillment and occupational dignity as a source of expertise and skills in management of prisons”. In fact, comprehensive training procedures have been adopted nationwide to furnish appropriate training to correctional officers, reiterates Mahmud (1993, p.8).

Critical Role of Pre-Service Training

How pre-service training, or training in general, is viewed by the correctional leaders and what they believe such training intends to do or should accomplish is an added dimension to what is emphasized and where the money flows. Emphasis varies. Cohen (1979) writes that, unlike the New York institution, the Illinois Academy has been always concerned, almost immersed, with self-evaluation. According to Meta Metrics (cited in Cohen, 1979), although training is an integral component of the department,

To say this is not to overestimate the role and impact of a training program. Training is an aid, a supporting program, and a resource at the disposal of the Department. Training does not make policy decisions, or change operations, or direct line programs.... The burden of reforming and improving training cannot be put on training, with the operating units free to carry on as before. Training cannot do what management cannot do. But it can facilitate what management wants to do.

Crouch (1980) writes that training of staff is as important as personnel selection. He glorifies James V. Bennet of the U.S. Bureau of Prisons and Alexander Patterson of the British Prison Commission as two of the foremost prison administrators of this century who were “convinced of the supreme importance of training”.

However, Crouch (1980) also states that “when we ask what body of knowledge exists, what discipline, what field of study do we look to, to provide the content of the ‘rigorous course of training’ which will enable men to function in the required manner, we find no answer at all forthcoming from either Paterson or Bennett or indeed anyone else” (p.54). Crouch (1980) points to a Dr. J. E. Thomas with experience in both prison administration and prison staff training, who maintains that a crucial prerequisite to successful training is a clear answer to the question: What is this training intended to achieve? Dr. Thomas also warns about expecting training to achieve too much. He stated that much frustration and misapprehension can be avoided if it is emphasized that training is no alternative for the remedying of organizational defects such as inferior staff, low salary scales, or fragile communication systems (1972, pp. 200 – 205).

Training and manpower development in corrections have become an increasingly critical question (Duffee, 1974). According to Walters (1996), “(t)he staffing of correctional institutions has become an important process worldwide”; and he further adds, “prisons appear to be a ubiquitous component of the criminal justice systems worldwide”.

As a consequence of tougher sentencing laws, a lower ratio of inmates to officers and the building of new prisons, the job of CO has turned out to be a growth field

(Kleiman, 1996). Nearly all states have mandatory training programs that all officers must go through before beginning their position (Martinez, 1997).

Human Rights in Prison, The Professional Training of Prison Officials, Proceedings (1993), highlights Romania's wealth of experience in the field of prison legislation. It submits that "future officers and junior officers are required to have a school leaving certificate; and following an examination, they may be admitted into the staff training schools" (p.132). It further states that prison staff are recruited and specifically trained for their coming duties.

Supreme Court Judge of Norway and President of the International Penal and Penitentiary Foundation Helge Røstad (1988) points out that both the European Prison Rules and the Minimum Standard Guidelines for Corrections in Australia and New Zealand (adopted in 1987) and the National Advisory Commission in the United States articulate "the need for a course of training of the staff either on recruitment or after an appropriate period of practical experience".

Framework of CO Pre-Service Training

According to Groesch (1989, p.54), training academy performance is the best predictor of trainee performance. For pre-service training to prevail and be effective, Crouch (1983, p.37) emphasized that, the plan and makeup of pre-service training should correspond with skills actually required on the job. The Appendices J, K and L explain in specific detail as to what skills and knowledge actually are required and what tasks a CO under each of the above categories usually performs.

Paboojian and Teske, Jr. (1997) studied the pre-service academies of the Texas Department of Criminal Justice – Institutional Division and found three variables “to be of particular significance in explaining variation in correctional officers’ attitude: race/ethnicity, size of the town in which the officer was living when the officer entered the academy, and age” (p. 425). Paboojian and Teske, Jr. (1987, p.429) implies that attitude shift takes time and that the (correctional officer) trainees’ personal experiences in the socialization process may affect the attitudes COs bring with them to the pre-service academy.

They reported that there is no record that the training academy curriculum per se effect sensibilities toward treatment programs. At the same time, it was noted that the academy does not shape officers any more positively in their attitudes.

The importance of pre-service training lies in imbuing COs with knowledge, skills and values listed in Appendices J, K and L. Hanford (1987) points out “Preservice training often has built-in components that encourage good health, such as stress reduction and physical exercise” (p.55). Because the strategies described, and the duties, skills, knowledge and desired values have been “translated from the opinions of experienced officers about what would best prepare a person for correction work, there is reason to be confident”, Crouch (1983) writes, “such strategies would be beneficial” (p.41).

Implications of Training

“Just what the correctional officers expect of themselves or correctional organizations is not always clear, but in keeping with the new view of inmates, they

expect something more and different from mere order”, writes Duffee (cited in Maghan, 1997, p. 45). Rowan (1997, p2.) reported that characteristic of training does relate to job performance. He mentioned in the same study that well trained staff seldom gets assaulted.

Corrections Digest (1997) quoted Alabama prison system spokesperson Tom Gilkeson who said that there was a training gap from the 1995 closure of corrections officers training academy. Without academy trained officers, the state lacked a strong pool to replace officers who quit or retired.

There has been an increasing rate of incarceration. Incarceration time was raised, and additional prisons are being built (Corrections Digest, July 18, 1997, p.9). This growth has made the need for well-trained COs to staff correctional facilities imperative.

As outlined in The President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967), the majority of custodial officers are “undereducated, untrained and unversed in the goals of corrections”. Crouch (1980) states, “it is a simple truism that for all custodial officers an initial period of basic training is essential”. He points to the Correction Officer’s Training Guide (1959) prepared by the ACA’s Committee on Personnel Standards and Training as the guiding light. However, Duffee (1974) cautions that although the objective of such training is commendable and its implementation long overdue, “the process used to convey the content is not always compatible with the kind of behavior desired in correctional officers as a result of the training” (p.168).

Training has to become more diverse (Wilkerson, 1997, p. 57). “Training is not a process of cramming for an examination but should result in an actual improvement in

the officer's on-the-job efficiency. There should be a careful balance between maintaining custody, order and discipline, and understanding the problem of crime and the characteristics of inmates, institutional treatment, and rehabilitation". As outlined in *Corrections Today* (August 1988, p.98), the objectives, principles, and procedures of training are the same whether the number of officers at an institution totals 20 or 500 individuals.

According to Folley (1976), even with the help from the federal government and increased emphasis on training during the 1970's, there were still many law enforcement agencies not providing training. As a consequence, Crouch (1980) writes that, people may occasionally, and conceivably oftentimes, leave because they were not adequately prepared through correctional officer specific training. That is, "the formal training may be too little related to the realities of the job" (Crouch, 1980, p.102)

Organizational Change Through Training

What is training? Gilbert (1989) asks, and he quotes Wehrenberg (1984) for the answer, who expounds that "It is the effort to increase the level or range of skill of employees in order to improve their job performance. It is simply changing the skill repertoire of an individual to match the skills required of a particular task – the correction of a (skill) mismatch" (p.44). Training enhances the quality and effectiveness of the service provided to citizens.

More than 60 years ago, Sir Alexander Patterson said, "the quality of the staff is a matter of extreme importance". Staff are an asset, not just a cost (Bryans, 1995), and staff training is critical (McCollum, 1996). Training has been and is an avenue that

individuals and organizations rely on in attempts to make any transformation (Khan, 1999). Planned changes can be brought about in organizations (Bennis, Benne, and Chin, 1985) through training.

In a correctional organization, the employee-training role is a crucial tool for sound, accountable administration (DeLong, 1980; Lund, 1986; Gilbert, 1989). For correctional institutions, training helps to intensify commitment of workers to organizational goals (Mahmud, 1993) and to the profession (Kowitz, Graves, and Doenberger, 1974).

According to Gilbert (1989, p.45), effective staff training programs develop the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and abilities required by employees. They are designed to assure retention and encourage employees to apply what they have learned on the job. Gilbert (1989) further urges that “effective training programs can no longer be viewed as superficial, marginal, or a ‘nice to have’ service for employees. In a correctional organization, the staff training function is an essential tool for sound, responsible management (DeLong 1980; Lund 1986), provided that it is given the status of an essential operational program and the support needed to ensure the training programs are effectively designed, developed, delivered, and evaluated” (p.46).

Training helps individuals to do their present tasks properly and educates certain employees so that they can assume greater responsibilities in the future (Khan, 1997). It develops people and the entire organization, sometimes for an undefined and undefinable future (Laird, 1985; Khan, 1997). Reports from the Survey on Safety on County Detention Facilities (1998) reflect that,

more than half (57%) of participants feel that increased staff training would do the most to alleviate safety concerns. They believe that . . . better-trained staff members are better able to handle emergencies. In addition, respondents indicate that well-trained staff members appear to have a positive impact on every aspect of facility operations (p.1).

Cheek and Miller (1983, p.15) add that recruitment activities should be sensitive to the higher-level nature of the role, and special training should be tailored to officers' managerial role. Cornelius (1997) adds that COs must stay updated of current development. He emphasized that "Staff training is necessary, and often it becomes the agency's . . . responsibility to develop and provide instruction" (p.80).

Paragraph 52 of The European Prison Rules contains statutes encouraging correctional staff to be continuously encouraged through training (Klare, 1960). A Public Correctional Policy unanimously ratified by the ACA in 1984 proclaimed its support for correctional staff training and urged full support from the executive, judicial, and legislative branches of government. It recommended staff development to involve use of public and private resources, including colleges, universities, and professional associations and recommended, besides other items, parity in training between correctional staff and comparable criminal justice system staff.

Legal Ramifications of the Failure to Train

Liability issues have been raised (Pogrebin and Poole, 1988, p. 607) in *Monell v. Department of Social Services*, 1978 and *Owen v. City of Independence*, 1980. In this lawsuit the U.S. Supreme Court held that inmates might seek legal remedy [under Title 42 U.S.C. Section 1983] against jail officials for constitutional violations. Such remedy can be sought by proving any number of deficiencies, including, among other things,

failure to train – failure to provide personnel with the knowledge and skills necessary to perform assigned tasks competently.

Gladstone and Arax (1998) reported in the Los Angeles Times that “The lawmaker says that additional training could have prevented many of the 50 serious and fatal shootings that took place at Corcoran from 1989 to 1994”. “The perceived threat that the failure-to-train would result in deep-pocket damages became a banner for the development of comprehensive correctional training programs in state and local correctional agencies” (Maghan, 1997, p.45).

Pogrebin and Poole (1988, p. 612) refer to a survey by the National Sheriffs’ Association (Kerle & Ford, 1982) where the sheriffs across the nation ranked deficient training as one of the most serious problem facing their respective jails. Nowell and Stinchomb (1988) pointed out that it has been said “If you think training is expensive, ask a jury about failure to train.” It might also be added, they said, “ask a bereaved family” (p.161). The goals of a jail officer training academy, according to Cortright (1993),

should include providing a comprehensive course as a result of which, upon completion, officers would be able to demonstrate a theoretical and practical knowledge of the various aspects of this field. Effective and comprehensive training of jail staff will reduce the risk associated with detention facilities. Recruits will be able to work independently and safely within the facility. Recruits will be proficient in communications skills, security awareness, and emergency procedures. They will have a current knowledge pertaining to legal issues, inmate rights, and criminal procedures. Legal aspects, inmate safety, medical issues, security awareness, and public safety are all liabilities that must be faced when operating a detention facility. A statewide jail officer training program will result in a better inmate management and decreased risk to the county government (p.40).

Summary of CO Training Need

Nowell (1987), in the 1987 Annual report of the Executive Director, stated that in developing job-related training, two key questions must be asked: "How frequently is the skill required; and how serious are the consequences if skill is improperly performed?" (p.51). Remington and Remington (1987) resolve that,

It is expected that, as a result of training, officers should be able to demonstrate an improved knowledge of behavioral theory and procedures, and be able to apply the methods in the successful solution of behavioral problems. We must distinguish between knowledge and competence because an ability to describe behavioral principles is not necessarily associated with an ability to apply them in practice. Acquired competence should therefore be measured separately (p. 159).

Remington and Remington (1987) maintain that adequate training would need to be oriented toward the development of practical skills and, if possible, based on the trainee's working environment. It would also be sufficiently extensive to cover topics in the detail necessary for application (p.167).

The Delphi Technique

The Delphi Technique was utilized as the research method. The method was identified to have a considerable advantage in its use for a nation wide pre-service training needs assessment for correctional officers (COs) preparing to serve in private, county, state or federal correctional facilities.

The Delphi Technique can be defined as a research method conducted in a systematic way to solicit and aggregate individual opinions or judgments using a panel of experts to arrive at consensual views about future events (Cornish, 1977). The Delphis

main goal is to acquire reliable consensus of opinion from a group of "experts" (Andranovich, 1995).

There seems to be a difference of opinion regarding Delphi's inception and its applicability. Pelletier (1972) writes that around 1947, Olaf Helmer and Norman Dalkey of the RAND Corporation suggested that it might be possible to get a better concept of what the future would be like if one were to ask a panel of experts to give their opinions about it. An early use, writes Holcomb (1996), was to predict the winners of horse races. According to E.S. Quade (quoted by Adams, October 1980) the first known experiment involving the Delphi process was in 1948 to predict the results of horse races. Yet, Andranovich (1995) writes that the Delphi procedure was developed by the staff at the RAND Corporation in Santa Monica, California, in the early 1950s to predict the Soviet Union's strategic targeting system.

Hayden (1967) pointed out that the Delphi technique seemed inherently logical, but attracted little attention at the time. Then in 1953, Pelletier (1972) writes, Helmer and Dalkey introduced an additional feature in to the studies; specifically, iteration with controlled feedback (Dalkey and Helmer, 1963; Helmer, 1969). Rowe, Wright and Bolger (1991) elaborated on the addition in the following section on "Multi-Stage Delphi Procedure". This seems to be the earliest indicated use of the complete technique that was later to become known as Delphi (Pelletier, 1972).

The Delphi Technique was popularized under the basic guidance of Olaf Helmer (Helmer, 1967) of the Institute for the Future and Norman C. Dalkey of the RAND Corporation (Allen, 1978) in the 1960s as a method of determining the Soviets' ability to bomb particular targets within the United States. The technique was developed as a result

of the United States' need to get a consensus from experts in regard to how many Soviet bombs would be needed to do a specific amount of damage (Baker, 1988).

The derivation of the term 'Delphi' relates to the 'Delphic Oracle', an ancient Greek myth which held that a chosen one on the island of Delphi was able to predict the future with infallible authority (Clayton, p.377). It was named after the great oracle of Apollo (Orlich, 1989). Consequently, like the oracle, it was used to look into the future (Delbecq, 1975) and therefore, can be associated with forecasts of the future (Uhl, 1983). Uhl (1983) further stated,

Since the mid-1960's, the Delphi technique has been used in business, government, industry, medicine, regional planning, and education over a variety of situations, including futures forecasting, goal assessment, curriculum planning, establishment of budget priorities, estimates concerning the quality of life, policy formulation, and problem identification and solutions (pp. 82-83).

The Delphi Round is a method for gathering judgments that endeavors to overcome the weaknesses implicit in depending on a single expert, a one-shot group average, or round-table discussion, noted Clayton (1997, p. 374-375). Andranovich (1995) writes that the Delphi is utilized when it is important to have pooled judgment, following the maxim, "Two heads are better than one". Zuboy (1980, p.2) observed that "1) the opinions of experts are justified as inputs to decision-making in inexact areas, i.e., where absolute answers are unknown or impossible, and 2) a consensus of experts will provide a more accurate response to a question than a single expert" (Fusfeld and Foster, 1971).

Repeated interviews, or in the case of Delphi iteration, with the same respondents yield an ever-increasing amount of information (Miller, 1991, p.170). Such technique

can be trusted to be more reliable and valid, with distinct advantages (Miller, 1991; Zeisel, 1965).

Rumble (1974) noted that the rationale underlying this method is that there are three possibilities for confronting the future: one is knowledge of the future which, if we had it, would make the need for forecasting unnecessary; one is speculation, which is of doubtful value; and one is opinion. Opinion is, Rumble (1974) further elaborates, information for which there is some evidence, but not enough to say it is solid. The experiments performed by Helmer and Dalkey indicated that when opinions are involved, face-to-face discussions might, more than not, result in group opinion, which is less accurate than simply the average of individual opinions without discussion.

In the face-to-face "brainstorming" approach people often bias each other; thus The Delphi method is more objective than a face-to-face encounter of experts (Delbecq, Van de Ven and Gustafson, 1975). Smit and Mason (1990, p.463) discussed that the "Delphi Method, in some instances and for some purposes, appears to be a useful tool that provides information not available from other procedures (Garde and Patel, 1985; Rinaldi et al., 1988; Linzer et al., 1988)".

The research process entailing the Delphi technique lends itself more to the qualitative nature of search. Van Dalen (1979) wrote that descriptive research could be defined in the following manner: "Before much progress can be made in any field, scholars must possess descriptions of the phenomena with which they work." In such a context, Guba's Model of Trustworthiness of Qualitative Research as follows has been submitted by Krefting (1991).

The model identified *truth value*- whether the researcher establishes confidence in

the truth of the findings for the subjects or informants and the context of the study; applicability- the ability to generalize from the findings and/or the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts and settings or with other groups; and consistency – of data, that is, whether the findings would be consistent if the inquiry were replicated with the same subjects or in a similar context.

Inherent in the goal of reliability, writes Krefting (1991), is the value of repeatability, that replication of the testing procedure does not alter the findings. She writes that if one assumes there are multiple realities, the notion of reliability is no longer relevant. Field & Morse (cited in Krefting, 1991) clarify that qualitative research emphasizes the uniqueness of the human situation, so that variation in experience rather than identical repetition is sought.

The fourth criterion in Guba's model is *neutrality*- the degree to which the findings are a function solely of the informants and conditions of the research and not of other biases, motivations, and perspectives. Krefting (1991) proposes strategies of reflexivity and triangulation to ensure higher quality research. *Reflexivity*, she says, refers to assessment of the influence of the investigator's own background, perceptions, and interests on the qualitative research process. The use of *triangulation* secures data methods, data sources, and triangulation of investigators to enhance the quality and credibility of research.

The definition of validity, Pelletier (1972) writes, in the context of the Delphi Technique is concerned with the method yielding more reliable results that rival more traditional methods. According to Dalkey and Brown (1967), "the validity of the procedure may be considered established only in an intuitive sense, in that the

participants themselves generally appear satisfied that the method is both fair and efficient in extracting information”.

As is true with any technique, the results are only as good as the methodology, writes Sumsion (1998); and it is important that the questionnaires not be ambiguous (Jenkins and Smith, 1994, p. 154). The fundamental presumption of the Delphi technique is that the statistical data provided to each panelist in consecutive rounds bring about a reexamination of earlier appraisal and consequently create a higher degree of common consent (Buck, Gross, Hakim & Weinblatt, 1993, p. 274). The Delphi approach offers the opportunity to gather and refine expert opinion (Egan, Jones, Luloff and Finley, 1995).

“The Delphi technique was developed to predict possible futures” (Holcomb, 1996). Orlich (1989) mentions that the Delphi method provides a consecutive feedback strategy to all participants, but through a privileged design. Each respondent is cognizant of his or her response, but is not aware how any other individual responded. The Delphi Technique, Orlich (1989) writes,

(1) allows professional judgements to be made, (2) avoids personality conflicts and interpersonal politics, and (3) reduces the possibility of high-position people forcing judgements in group discussions in the direction they deem desirable. The Delphi Technique is one means of identifying organizational consensus, determining problem areas, and establishing priorities by providing detailed feedback and systematic follow-up (p.29).

According to Crowley (1974, p.53), the Delphi technique is designed to escape personality coercion and related difficulty and to get at expert opinion without convening the experts together. It is a technique for methodical collection of informed opinions, substituting the conventional open debate or committee discussion with a series of

thoughtfully designed communications containing input of data “derived, computed consensus” of this knowledge, and questionnaires to obtain further desired reality.

Pelletier (1972) detail the Delphi process as follows:

Multi-Stage Delphi Procedure

One of the basic assumptions of the Delphi technique, Pullen (1996) writes, has been the consensus of opinions of experts represents a high probability of an accurate forecast (Weatherman & Swenson, 1974).

1. Round I - Round I is an open-ended questionnaire calling for a list of goals, opinions or judgments based on one's experience in the organization or field being studied. The open-ended question should be comprehensive enough to solicit a wide range of comments dealing with the task for which you are gathering data.
2. The comments from the Round I question must be categorized and sub-categorized until items can be written that are truly representative of the data received. While there is no standard way of building these items it is best that more than one person be involved and that the initial categorizing be done separately. It is important that no items be written that are not represented by the initial data received.
3. Round II - Round II is sent to each participant in the Delphi. They are asked to rate or evaluate each of the items by some criteria such as rank or importance, etc.
4. Round III - Round III repeats the same items as in Round II. The participant is given his response to each item from Round II as well as information as to how the rest of the group responded to each item. An example would be the modal response of the group for each item. The participant is asked to respond to each question once again.

Instructions tell the respondent to answer with the group response for that item unless he has a specific reason to do otherwise. If he answers outside the group's response for that item he is to write his reason in the margin opposite the item.

5. Round IV - Round IV repeats the Delphi Round Items for the third time. This time the participant is given his response for each item for Round III as well as the consensus of the group for each item from Round III. Also, the minority comments from Round III are provided. Again he or she is asked to answer within the group consensus unless he has a specific reason to do otherwise. If he does have a minority opinion he is asked to list it in the margin provided.

Rowe, Wright and Bolger (1991) further expound four essential features that distinguish a Delphi procedure: anonymity, iteration, controlled feedback, and statistical aggregation of group response.

1. "*Anonymity*" is achieved through the use of questionnaires. By allowing group members to make their responses privately, undue social pressures should be avoided. Theoretically, this should allow group members the freedom to express their own beliefs without feeling pressured by dominant individuals, providing them with the opportunity to consider each idea on the basis of merit alone (as opposed to the basis of spurious and invalid criteria - for example, "status"), while enabling them to change their minds without fearing loss of face (in the eyes of the group). Lee (1995) reiterates, "a primary strength of the Delphi approach is anonymity of the expert panelist" (p.50).
2. "*Iteration*" occurs by means of presenting the constructed questionnaire over a number of rounds, allowing members to change their opinions.
3. "*Controlled feedback*" takes place between rounds, during which each group

member is informed of the opinions of the other group members. Often this feedback is presented in the form of a simple statistical summary of the group response - such as the mean or median (in quantitative assessments, such as when an event might occur, the likelihood of a given event occurring, and so on) - though sometimes actual arguments may be presented. Thus all members are allowed input into the process, not just the most vocal.

4. "*Statistical group response*" is obtained at the end of the procedure where group judgement is expressed as a median (usually), and the extent of the spread of members' opinions may be used as an indication of the strength of the consensus. Therefore, more information is available than just a simple consensual judgement (p.237).

According to Zeisel (1965), in a majority of instances an observed change in a panel will be of greater statistical significance than in a change of equal size observed in repeated cross sections that equal the panel size and structure. Zeisel (1957) earlier concluded "in addition to the net change, one obtains an accurate picture of the number and direction of individual shifts, which when added together, account for the net change" (p. 170).

Number of Rounds

This process raises the question of how many rounds it takes to reach consensus (Sumsion, 1998). Tapping et al. (cited in Sumsion, 1998) states that the classic Delphi technique had four rounds. According to Buck, Gross, Hakim and Weinblatt (1993),

The *criteria* used to decide when to *terminate Delphi* process are stability and convergence (Nelson, 1978). Stability, or consistency, measures the similarity or central tendency of the panel's response to each question across rounds. If the difference in, say the response frequencies from one round to another is below a

given threshold, the particular question is not included in the next round's questionnaire. Convergence is based on the degree of agreement, or consensus, achieved by the panel in its response to a given question. A significant increase in the dispersion of responses for a question indicates a decreasing level of agreement, whereas a decrease in dispersion indicates a move toward statistical consensus (p. 275).

Acceptable results were available after the fourth iteration by Egan et al. (1995).

Current consensus appears to be that either two or three rounds are preferred (Bond and Bond, 1982, Jenkins and Smith 1994, Proctor and Hunt, 1994, Walker 1994, Maxwell 1995, Holcomb 1996, Walker and Self 1996).

Characteristics of the Panel Members

Delphi does not demand random sampling (Goodman, 1987; Dawson & Barker, 1995; Zodrow, 1995). According to Larreche and Moinpour (1983), "Successful selection of expert panelist should occur before a Delphi procedure is undertaken, though it may also be used *a posteriori* in order to determine *which* panelists should be included in statistical aggregation and which might be dropped" (p.249).

According to Goodman (1987), high content validity is achieved through the utilization of an expert panel. Nevertheless, interpretation of the phrase 'expert' has been subject to broad variation. "An expert", according to Marino (1999), "is a person who has knowledge not ordinarily possessed by the layman. Historically, the courts have permitted experts to testify when specialized knowledge is relevant to an issue in a case. If a court agrees that expert testimony is needed, the court determines the specialty or profession that encompasses the required expertise and whether the witness has the

requisite training and experience". It is also expected that such experts are "honest" and "unbiased".

According to Adams (1980), "Participants in a Delphi process should be recognized authorities in the field being researched. In addition, they should feel personally involved in the problem of concern, should have pertinent information to share, be motivated to respond, and feel that the results of the procedure will provide information that they value and to which they would not otherwise have access" (p. 152). Lee (1995) selected panelist based on their depth and span of their experience as a professional or as university instructors.

Sumsion (1998) presents the challenge of determining an "expert". Is an expert, Sumsion asks, someone who publishes research in a particular area? Is it an individual with a long history of working with a particular population? An individual with higher education and training? Or is it an individual who is one of few who work within a specialized area? Or is it potentially all of these categories?

Andranovich (1995) reiterated that experts differ by the situation, so it is important to have a pre-determined set of qualifications desired of a panelist (p. 5). "It is in the application of the Delphi technique as a means of forecasting future events that reliance is placed on a panel of experts or specialists" (Goodman, 1987, p.730).

In developing community participation and consensus through the use of Delphi Technique Andranovich (1995) indicate the participation of a work group from the community who would develop the Delphi questions and nominate experts. The same group might continue to work throughout the Delphi, Andranovich (1995) opines, analyzing the information and later drafting or reviewing the Delphi's findings (p.5). In

his 1995 study the “task force” was made up of persons who were “knowledgeable and interested in the particular issue”.

A Delphi Study conducted by the AORN (The Association of Operating Room Nurses, Inc.) placed a “call for experts” in the AORN Journal and Inside AORN (1994); those interested were invited to submit a resume or curriculum vitae for review by the Nursing Research Committee. The AORN also invited recognized AORN leaders such as board members, past presidents, and current members of committees of the Association.

After identifying the membership categories, a certain percentage of members in each category from the general membership was also invited to submit resumes. The selection was based on the following criteria:

a. Academic credentials; b. Type and years of clinical experience; c. Professional organization membership; d. Publications and presentations; and e. Research activities. Qualifying criteria, as outlined by Smit and Mason (1990, p. 459) in their international study included: a. professional concern; b. organizational concern; c. educational qualification; d. experience; e. capacity to work in English; f. knowledge of project; and g. contribution to the comprehensiveness of disciplines represented on the panel.

Additional yardsticks for designation as an expert for the Delphi panel can include, as Brown (1985) pointed out, the following: 1. A minimum of five years experience as a correctional administrator; 2. Recognition by a national association or organization as an individual knowledgeable in the field of correctional training, and 3. Either / Or, (a). has served as a correctional consultant; (b).has served as a training consultant; (c). has served as a consultant with the American Correctional Association

accreditation process; (d). has served as an academician with an expertise in corrections and/or correctional officer training.

The panelists should be knowledgeable about the content under study (Goodman, 1987). Paraphrasing Williams and Webb (1994), the inclusion criteria of panel members were expected to fulfill all of the following requirements: a. To have a proven track record in professional practice; b. To have considerable experience (more than 2 years) as a manager of a training department in which correctional officers are trained or to be currently employed (for more than 2 years) as a qualified consultant or a professor of criminal justice and/or correctional administration; c. To demonstrate continuing professional interest in correctional training development and education; d. To make an active contribution to the training and/or educational needs of correctional trainees; and . The individual is recognized and highly regarded by peer groups.

Number of Questions in the Delphi Questionnaire

According to Holcomb (1996), the number of questions that should be addressed in one Delphi survey is not clear. She further reports that Couper (1984) argued that 25 questions is a reasonable number for the prepared round one questionnaire, although others argue there should be no more than 45 items categorized by the researcher in Round 1 (Grant et al., 1990).

McGee et al. (1987) had over 300 competencies and found that unanimity could not be arrived at on all items. Miller (1979) had nine questions; Weber (1988) had eight questions; Lee (1995), and Villaquiran (1997) each had five questions; and Egan et al (1995) had two questions in their Delphi part of their research. Lacey (1983), Dean

(1986), Payne (1989) and Massey (1993) each included three questions in their respective studies; Spurlin (1992) utilized four questions to determine pre-service training topics.

The study also included four questions.

Criteria for Consensus of Panelists

Decline in response rate can be problematic in the Delphi technique's completion. In order to achieve consensus, Sumsion (1998) writes, "it is important that those who have agreed to participate stay involved until the process is completed (Buck et al 1993, William and Webb, 1994a).

Williams and Webb (1994), in their methodological discussion of the Delphi technique, explored the potential problems in previous studies and "decided to use 100% agreement as the criterion for consensus, because the results of the pilot study showed that 80% of the participants achieved 100% consensus in describing three activities which helped students to learn in the clinical environment" (p.185).

In developing consensus through the use of Delphi Technique (Andranovich, 1995), the nominated and selected panelists ranked and/or rated ideas presented by each other and all the panel members. The nature of the data or the level of measurement, which was applied in the study, is ordinal. According to Maxfield and Babbie (1995), variables whose attributes may be logically ranked are ordinal measures (p.101).

According to Sommer and Sommer (1991), rating is most appropriate for items with which the person is directly familiar (p. 165). In the study, the panelists were nominated and selected based on their expertise and familiarity of the subject. "Rates of things are fundamental descriptive statistics in criminal justice research. In most cases,

rates are used to standardize some measure for comparative purposes”, write Maxfield and Babbie (1995, pp. 340-341). Also, rating scales, Sommer and Sommer contend, are utilized to rank people’s judgments of objects, events, or other people from low to high or poor to good (p. 153). “Ordinal concerns itself with numbers that are used to rank people or objects” (Sharp, 1982, p.35). As outlined by Laird (1985), ordinal scales are more effective in measuring such ‘invisible’ elements as perceptions or values. Ordinal scales place items into a rank order”. This conforms to the design delineated by Brooks (1974), Dean (1986), Morgan and Knox (1987), Baker (1988), Godsey (1992), and Massey (1993).

Schmidt (1997) writes that certain researchers, like Couger (1988), Brancheau & Wetherbe (1987), argue that the “standard deviation” can affirm consensus. According to Minium and Clarke (1982), “the standard deviation is almost always used as the measure for describing the variability of a frequency distribution” (p. 74). Though Schmidt (1997) maintains that the notion of standard deviation cannot be employed to ordinal level data because “there are no fixed intervals between ranks and no absolute reference points to calibrate ranks between panelists. Providing such data to the experts, or using it in research reports, is misleading” (p. 771).

Minium and Clarke (1982) advocate, that “since the mean and standard deviation share common properties and since the standard deviation is based on deviations about the mean, the two are companion measures. That is, when the mean is used as the measure of central tendency, the standard deviation will almost always be the logical choice for a measure of variability” (p. 75).

According to Rowe, Wright and Bolger (1991), “statistical group response” is achieved at the end of the Delphi procedure where the magnitude of group judgement spread of members’ opinions may be used as an evidence of the strength of the consensus. Based on a similar premise, Massey (1993) stated that, “when the means of two or more problems are ties, the problem with the lower standard deviation will be listed first” (p. 72).

The standard deviation not only indicates dispersion, Renner (1988) writes, “it describes how extreme or typical a score is” (p.99). Because whenever means are presented they are susceptible to extreme values (Maxfield and Babbie, 1995) the importance of measuring the dispersion becomes more important. The standard deviation represents, writes Maxfield and Babbie (*ibid*), the average amount each individual’s observations in a group varies from the mean.

Williams and Webb (1994) assert the use of standard deviation and report that White (1991) used the standard deviation as a measure of consensus, claiming larger standard deviations to be associated with ‘weaker’ consensus and conversely, smaller standard deviations demonstrating ‘stronger’ consensus. According to Miller (1991), “the mean and standard deviation are the central concepts of position and dispersion” (p.246). He brings to view that non-parametric tests focus on the order or ranking of the scores, like it was done in the study, not on their “numerical values”.

Williams and Webb (1994) caution that such and other explanations of ‘high/strong’ consensus may be poorly defined as they point out in Mead’s (1992) study. Williams and Webb (*ibid*) stated “the outcome of such studies is open to criticism because it would be difficult to repeat the enquiry and compare consensus levels. A more

reliable method would be to assign a numerical level of consensus at the outset of the enquiry, or at a later stage, when the data have been analysed” (p.184).

Linstone and Turoff (1975) stated, “using 15 percent change level to represent a state of equilibrium, any two distributions that show marginal changes of less than 15 percent may be said to reached stability” (p. 278). It has been suggested that a 70% response rate is required for each round in order to maintain the rigor of this technique. Therefore, the respondents must be known to the researcher and non-respondents must be pursued” (p. 154).

In the words of Keppel (1991), “as long as we are committed to making decisions in the face of incomplete knowledge, as every scientist is, we cannot avoid making errors. We can, however, try to minimize them” (p.56). Therefore, clear criteria must be established, Sumsion further writes (1998), for determining how the responses to each round will be tabulated. Consensus should be defined as a numerical level, such as 50% or 70% agreement (Williams and Webb, 1994b). Pullen (1996) quotes Hill and Fowles (1975) who state that,

The most advanced approach so far to the issue of measuring consensus appears to be the use of simple but uniformly applied rule of thumb. An example is criterion employed by Bender et al., where consensus was defined as “agreement among at least 60 percent of the respondents that the event had a 50 percent or 90 percent probability of occurring within any ten-year period.” While a standard such as this is reasonable, and represents an improvement over purely subjective assessment, it remains an arbitrary criterion (p. 184).

Schmidt (1997) points to studies by Brancheau & Wetherbe (1987), and Couger (1988a, 1988b) which were terminated when a moderate level of consensus was attained due to feasibility concerns. Without such issues, Schmidt (1997) contends that the surveys should have continued for one more round.

Schmidt (1997) suggests that, at the end of each round, in such a stage, the researcher must ask, "Should another round be conducted to obtain greater consensus?" Schmidt (1997) says that "the trade-off between feasibility (the indulgence of the panelist, the researcher's resources, and additional time required) and the potential gain to be achieved must be considered (also see Nelms & Porter, 1985)" p.771.

Analysis of Data

Descriptive statistics can establish mean, median, mode and standard deviation for each of the items contained in the questionnaire. Smit and Mason (1990) analyzed responses by determining a central tendency parameter (usually the mean), a measure of dispersion (in most cases the standard deviation) and a calculation of the coefficient of variation. Smit and Mason (1990) calculated a distribution of the coefficient of variations and the position of a particular the coefficient of variation within the distribution to determine the degree of agreement or disagreement on a particular issue.

In other cases the median and interquartile range were used as indicators of central tendency and dispersion (Blalock, 1979, referred to by Smit and Mason, 1990; Pullen, 1996). In the second round, James R. Zuboy (1980) provided with the median and interquartile range of the Round 1 estimates and some additional information. Zuboy (1980) asked each panel member to reanswer the questions from Round 1, and if his new response was outside the interquartile about the median he had to provide a supporting statement. Likewise, in Round 3 the estimates from Round 2 were summarized, as the median and range of responses and the supporting statements for the estimates outside the

interquartile range were included. Zuboy (1980) asked panel members further from two viewpoints:

- 1) Did the new data affect their estimates, perhaps calling for revision?
- 2) Could they provide feedback that may cause the other panel members to reevaluate and perhaps revise their estimates?

Rounds 4 and 5 proceeded similarly.

According to Sumsion (1998), some writers have asserted vigilance "about the reliability and validity of this technique (Williams and Webb 1994a, Walker and Selfe 1996). However, other authors have reviewed previous forecasts made using this technique and found that they were accurate (Ono and Wedemeyer, 1994). There are many strategies that qualitative researchers can use to ensure the credibility of their methodology and as many of these as possible should be employed" (Krefting, 1991, p. 154).

Alternative Techniques

Alternatives to group decision making processes, such as Nominal Group Technique (NGT), are discussed by Delbecq, Van de Ven and Gustafson (1975). Isaac and Michael (1984) examine roundtable discussion. Egan et al. (1995) discuss the value of using multiple methods combining questionnaires, focus groups, and a Delphi process. Key (1996) points out conferences, meetings; Bartram and Gibson (1994) refer to discussion groups on departmental and across departmental basis. Venable (1993) mentions focus groups.

Such dialogue, Isaac and Michael (1984) indicate, can result in:

- a) the bandwagon effect of majority opinion;
- b) the power of a persuasive or prestigious

individual to influence the group decision; c) the tendency for some individuals to be manipulated by group dynamics; and d) the unwillingness of individuals to abandon their already stated positions.

Rationale for the Use of the Delphi Technique

With the Delphi Technique, a group of experts is identified, and then an attempt is made to have the identified experts reach a consensus. In his presidential address at the 114th Annual Congress of Corrections, Moeller (1984) said, "In a period of rapidly moving change in the new age of technology, other issues influencing our work in this field are certain to emerge. These, too, we must address with open minds. They must be openly debated by thoughtful and reasonable practitioners; we cannot afford to allow them to become divisive. We must continue to strive for consensus" (p.23).

The Delphi is very flexible and can be utilized in management and exploration circumstances where consensus on a subject matter is necessary (Sumsion, 1998, p. 156). According to Andranovich (1995), "Shared responsibility is a tonic for developing consensus". He further resolved that shared responsibility also promotes satisfaction through participation in and ownership of the resulting decision.

The anonymity of the technique allows consensus among members of the group, while avoiding the problems that can arise from personal interaction (Godsey, 1992). Pelletier (1972) indicates that Delphi attempts to overcome these problems by the three characteristic features of the process: a) anonymity of group response, b) controlled feedback of individual and group opinions, and c) the utilization of a statistical definition of the group response.

Other qualities of the Delphi method, Hoyt (1978) writes, is that it is in general expeditious, economical, easy to comprehend, and adaptable in the sense that it can be put to use wherever expert opinion is observed to exist (p.11).

Delbecq, Van de Van, and Gustafson (1975) defined the Delphi Technique as, a method for the systematic solicitation and collation of judgments on a particular topic through a set of carefully designed sequential questionnaires interspersed with summarized information as feedback of opinions derived from earlier responses (p. 10).

The purpose is to compile judgments and institute consensus about future likelihood for such variables as time quantity and desirability of some future state (Rasp, 1973). Andranovich (1995, p.15) writes that the Delphi technique is a group approach to idea formation and consensus building. It necessitates technical expertise to carry out and implement, but can render an excellent information base. He cited five tasks that the Delphi can help with (1995),

determining priorities, setting goals, or establishing future directions; designing other needs assessment strategies; improving service delivery; evaluating programs or alternative plans; or aggregating judgements or views of special interests or opposing groups (p.15).

Delbecq, Van de Van, and Gustafson (1975) elaborated the Delphi Technique as essentially a series of questionnaires. The first questionnaire asks individuals to respond to a broad question. (Delphi questions might focus upon problems, objectives, solutions, or forecasts.) Each subsequent questionnaire is built upon responses to the preceding questionnaire. The process stops when consensus has been approached among participants (Dalkey, 1967, p.83) or when sufficient information exchange has been obtained.

The Delphi Technique has been utilized in many different settings and for many different purposes. Delbecq (1975) stated that the Delphi Technique could be used to meet the following objectives,

1. To determine or develop a range of possible program alternatives.
2. To explore or expose underlying assumptions or information leading to different judgements.
3. To seek out information, which may generate a consensus on the part of the respondent group.
4. To correlate informed judgements on a topic spanning a wide range of disciplines.
5. To educate the respondent group as to the diverse and interrelated aspects of the topic (pp. 10-11).
- 6.

According to Andranovich (1995), the Delphi system was intended for non-interacting groups. Non-interacting groups can include groups whose members are geographically far away, groups whose members tend to collide, or groups in which status differences might influence decision-making (p.1).

According to Morrison (1976, p. 9-5), based on a combination of experience, judgment, and a sort of intuitive perception, the Delphi technique has been described as "quantitative intuition". Participants in such a case are usually strong individual thinkers, working better without group interaction. The respondents' behavior is proactive since they can't react to anyone else's ideas. The procedure ends with a modest perceived sense of closure and fulfillment (Eittington, 1989).

The Delphi process was contributory to gathering opinion from expert(s), noted Egan et al (1995, p. 464). Sumsion (1998) reported that,

the Delphi technique allows efficient and rapid collection of expert opinions and the feedback is controlled (Buck et al 1993, Jenkins and Smith 1994). Anonymous feedback allows reappraisal of a viewpoint without loss of face (Walker and Selfe 1996). The technique facilitates the participation of respondents from a wide geographical area and is relatively inexpensive as compared with bringing everyone together (Proctor and Hunt 1994, Williams and

Webb 1994b). Overall, this approach to research guides group opinion to final decisions and facilitates grassroots involvement (McKenna 1994)" (p.154).

One major advantage of the Delphi process, Rumble (1974) reiterates, is that consensus is gained without the influence of dominant individuals. Another is that people are forced to think about the future. As a result, Rumble (1974) further states that, they should become better decision-makers. Finally, for educational purpose, the Delphi Round I is an excellent planning tool to aid in searching out priorities held by members of an organization or group.

Hoyt (1978) additionally asserts, "A Delphi examination is a presentation of pertinent and beneficial information on the area of inquest where none formerly existed. Therefore, she says (*ibid*) that "the Delphi technique should be appraised in its value as a search for public wisdom and deliberate judgment"(p.3).

The worth of the Delphi procedure prevails in its capacity for alerting the participants about the complexity of issues by forcing, urging, and cajoling them into challenging their assumptions (Rowlands, 1969). The method may begin with open-ended questions (Knight & Knight, 1992) or a prepared questionnaire (Lester & Thomson, 1989). According to Holcomb (1996), panelists may respond with a "yes/no" response or a graded response, such as the Likert scale.

A national study like this with limited budget cannot afford to bring all the participants/respondents/experts together for group discussion due to geographical or scheduling obstacles. The Delphi brings participants together without bringing them into the same room, avoiding the costs and hassles of traveling to and from meetings

(Andranovich, 1995). Since there is no expenditure required in congregating the experts, a large number of respondents, if appropriate, may be used.

According to Holcomb (1996), the Delphi technique usually uses a mailed survey questionnaire designed to produce a group or collective response. Mailing questions to participants is less expensive and eliminates the scheduling difficulties of face-to-face discussions. Mailing also allows the participants to remain anonymous to other panelists and it also allows time for thoughtful consideration, which can promote independent thought and considered opinion.

In terms of assessing correctional officer training needs, it would probably be most useful for forecasting future training needs in relation to long-range organizational plans or objectives. Judd (1972) wrote that the Delphi Technique has many uses in higher education. Also,

Although Delphi was originally intended as a forecasting tool, its more promising educational application seems to be in the following areas: (a) a method for studying the process of thinking about the future, (b) a pedagogical tool or teaching tool which forces people to think about the future in a more complex way than they ordinarily would, and (c) a planning tool which may aid in probing priorities held by members and constituencies of an organization (p. 173).

To conduct a Delphi, Turoff (1970) suggested at least three different groups of people who each perform a different task in the process. Turoff (1970) divided the tasks in the following way,

Decision maker(s): The individual or individuals expecting some sort of product from the exercise which is used for their purposes. A staff group: The group, which designs the initial questionnaire, summarizes the returns, and redesigns the follow-up questionnaires. A respondent group: The group whose judgments are being sought and who are asked to respond to the questionnaires (p. 10).

Delbecq, Von de Ven and Gustafson (1975) identify three critical conditions for Delphi research, such as: a) adequate time; b) participant skill in written communication; and c) high participant motivation (p. 84).

Sumsion (1998, p.153) outlines the Delphi technique as, "a multi-stage process where each stage builds on the results of the previous one. It consists of distributing a series of questionnaires, known as rounds, to participants. The results of each questionnaire are analyzed by the researcher who then formulates the next questionnaire. Each round generates a higher degree of consensus (Buck, Gross, Hakim and Weinblatt, 1993) until, finally, either opinions are refined or consensus is reached (Buck et al. 1993, Jenkins and Smith 1994)". Reid (1988) reiterates the same and describes Delphi technique as a method for the systematic collection and aggregation of informed judgements from a group of experts on specific questions or issues repeat rounds of this process can be carried out until full consensus is achieved (p. 232).

The Delphi technique thereby secures "uniformity of expert opinion" (Green, 1996). The final composition is distilled from all previous rounds and is considered reciprocally acceptable to the team of experts (ibid, p.506). Multiple rounds permit refinement of thought through feedback (Holcomb, 1996).

According to Rowe, Wright and Bolger (1991), Delphi's objective is to make use of the positive attributes of interacting groups, that is, knowledge from a variety of judges, while removing the negative aspects largely attributed to the social difficulties within such groups.

Many applications have been found for Delphi studies in prognostic research. According to Hencley and Yates (1974, p. 99), they have been determined useful for

predicting alternative futures in addition to those implicit through current trends; for identifying anticipated societal and technological innovations; and for appraising the probability and time of occurrence of each of a number of options.

Although the Delphi technique made its mark in researching defense matters, education/training and development has recognized the importance of the procedure. Delphi technique has been deemed suitable as a methodology for producing an expert forecast on any given study (Allen, 1978).

Delphi has been used for numerous other objectives, such as citing the positive and negative implications of a crucial decision, assessing the effect of a certain procedure on other variables in a problem, or recognizing obstruction to the implementation or success of a specific procedure (Allen, 1978). The technique has been applied in territory planning to develop a food product (Bolongara, p. H33, 1994).

Helmer (1966) believed in the methodologies applicability in a more comprehensive manner. Helmer (1967) suggested that the Delphi technique could be used for educational planning "at the federal, state, local or individual institutional level" (p.6). Gordon and Sahr (1968) utilized the Delphi to gather opinions about prospective developments, which might have an impact on educational administration, noted Frank E. Rumble (1974). He pointed out that Gordon and Ament (1969) observed the Delphi method's utility in generating an enormous set of certain technological and societal predictions for the State of Connecticut.

Anderson (1971) used the Delphi on teachers, board members, administrators, and other selected experts to determine priorities of goal statements. The successful use of Delphi has been reported by an interdisciplinary, international team of English-speaking

consultants in an Arabic-speaking country, politically dominated by a centralist regime (Smit and Mason, 1990).

The development of Delphi-like procedure and new management are shaping Delphi's ease of use. Matthews et al. (1975) used the Delphi method for planning educational courses for dieticians. Spivey (1971) and Lawrence et al. (1983) used the Delphi technique for determining the content of a surgical curriculum; Williams and Webb (1994) write that Card & Fielding (1986) surveyed the problems experienced by therapy radiographers when dealing with cancer sufferers; Huddleston (1988) used a computer network and the recent 'Snowball Delphi' conducted by World Future Society (ibid, P. 464).

Reid (1988) reported a search of the ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) database, which revealed 368 papers using the Delphi method published since 1966. She further writes that "these covered a wide range of applications from education management to personnel management, indices of quality and the identification of physical and mental problems of children" (p. 235).

Notable utilization of the Delphi, cited by Judd (1972) included curriculum planning, consensus on rating scales, cost effectiveness, and generalized educational goals and objectives for the future. According to Sumsion (1998, p. 155), the Delphi technique has also been utilized to describe the roles and training needs of occupational therapists. Tiedmann's (1985) study depicted Delphi's use in long-range planning by instructional technologists and academic administrators.

According to Linstone and Turoff, (cited in Zodrow, 1995), while many people label Delphi a forecasting procedure because of its important use of that area, there are a

surprising variety of applications in other areas, including examining the importance of historical events, evaluating budget allocations, establishing relationships in complex economic or social phenomenon and delineating the pros and cons of policy options.

Number of Participants

Reid (1988, p.240) submitted that the size of the Delphi panels varies to an extraordinary degree. A study on spending priorities involved 307 participants (Charlton et al., 1981). Pullen (1996) wrote that Wooldridge (1986) used 36 experts in a study to identify issues affecting home economics in the twenty-first century. Pullen (1996) himself used 20 nationally recognized experts on secondary vocational supervision. Massey (1993) used 18 experts to predict the future in the newspaper industry. Sutphin (1981) used a panel of 86 agricultural educators, using professional association officers in a nomination process to select a panel of experts, to identify positions held by agricultural education sub-groups on national issues in agricultural education.

Williams and Webb (1994, p.181) noted that Reid (1986) used 12 nurse educators, and that Beech (1991) does not make the exact size of the panel clear, stating that “a total of seven groups of students eventually participated over a period of 20 months. Numbers in each group ranged between five and ten.” Egan et al.’s research team (1995) identified 24 expert participants as having a broad background in forest management, harvesting, and silviculture. Renzulli (1968) used 21 experts, nominated by peers to be on the panel, to determine curricula for gifted children.

The development of a professional nurse workload involved 196 nurses (Proctor and Hunt, 1994). The AORN sent out a total 700 invitational letters which resulted in 214

responses, of which 176 were selected based on the criteria outlined above. AORN's targeted sample size was 300. A second invitational mailing, proportionate to the membership categories, was sent to the 820 remaining members, generating 137 potential participants, of whom 88 were selected with a final sample of 286 participants. Sumsion (April, 1998) reports that Bond and Bond (1982) worked with 20 nurses in each of 16 specialties to establish clinical nursing priorities.

Williams and Webb (1994) reported that Lawrence et al. (1983) used a series of panels, which covered all the medical schools in the USA. The members of this panel totaled 1685, which Williams and Webb (1994) reports, is the largest recorded Delphi panel to date. Sumsion further writes that a survey of 30 nurses gathered information about communication problems (Hitch and Murgatroyd, 1983) and a panel of 20 was used to study the perceptions of groups responsible for formulating and implementing vocational rehabilitation policies (Buck et al., 1993).

According to Feuer (undated), "in general, reliability tends to increase as the number of test items or survey respondents rises" (p. 219). However, Reid (1988) cautioned that "The larger the panel, the higher the dropout rate appears to be on successive Delphi rounds. The panel of size 20 or fewer tended to retain all their members" (p.241). Regarding number of participants Sumsion (1998) concludes by saying that the number selected will depend on the subject-matter under inquiry and the resources at hand to the researcher to cover the expenses of questionnaire preparation and distribution and the tabulation of results.

Cypert and Gant (1970) identified a sample of 421 experts who generated 61 statements regarding the question of determining an area of emphasis in the University of

Virginia's College of Education. What is interesting in the context of the purpose of this study is that rather than seeking agreement concerning future directions, Cypert and Gant (1970) sought to establish a consensus concerning what "should" be the College of Education's future direction.

The Emmons (1971) Study involved canvassing four separate groups. One of its purposes was to ascertain the ability of a Delphi Technique to reach a consensus. The study reported success in achieving its objectives. Selected published studies in health applications of the Delphi method are offered by Reid (1988, p. 241). She submits the following sizes of Delphi:

<u>Authors</u>	<u>Years</u>	<u>Size of Delphi Panel</u>
Hales	1985	200
Katz	1976	10
Loughlin and Moore	1979	20
Mullen	1985	126
Moscovice	1977	43
Bramwell and Hykawy	1974	13
Elder	1985	10
Matthews et al	1975	18
Lawrence et al	1983	1685
Snow and Imbembo	1986	214
Romm and Hulka	1979	31
Farrell and Scherer	1983	141 (sample from 8980)
Anderson	1986	30 & 367 (two panels)

Holcomb (1996, p. 36) writes that this technique can also be used as a method to elicit consensus of expert opinion through group process and has been shown to be a

good method of measuring the norms of current professional practice (Ashton et al., 1994). Holcomb (1996) reiterated that the Delphi technique was very useful in her study, and that the method served to make the Nurse Practitioners feel invested in her study. The Delphi survey was used to identify the activities of the Nurse Practitioners in primary care and to examine the Nurse Practitioners variables, patient variables, and health system variables that influence practice activities. She stated that it “ takes more investigator time than one-time surveys, but it is very responsive to the panelist” (p. 99).

According to Rieger (1986), “The Delphi technique has had a varied history but continues to receive continuing acceptance, as evidenced by its use in 441 doctoral dissertations since 1980; this despite a setback over a decade ago when Harold Sackman attacked the technique’s scientific respectability and sloppy execution” (p.201).

Zuboy (1980) summarized the use of standard Delphi Round Inquiry with minor modifications, by saying that, “The details need not be discussed here. The important point is that the Delphi exercise was felt by the participants to be successful in meeting specified objectives” (p. 6).

Sumsion (1998) concluded that the Delphi technique was not a perfect tool but adaptable to a variety of situations. “Delphi aims to maintain the advantages of the interacting group”, Rowe, Wright and Bolger (1991) write, “while removing the (largely social) hinderences leading to process loss” (p.238). “The key question is, ” Reid (1988) writes, “of alternatives. As an alternative to the qualitative approach, the Delphi method begins to look thoroughly scientific” (p.244).

Disadvantages Of Delphi

There are a few disadvantages to the use of Delphi technique, Rumble (1974) points out. In the interaction process, people tend to shift their estimates toward the group norm. Secondly, no distinction is made between reasonable judgments and mere guessing. Finally, the focus generally has been on what should happen rather than what can be made to happen.

One of the toughest criticisms of the Delphi technique was offered by Sackman (1975), who stated that the conventional Delphi is:

1. Often characterized by a crude questionnaire;
2. Lacking minimal professional standards for opinion item analysis and pilot testing;
3. Highly vulnerable on its concept of expert with unaccountable sampling and in selection of panelists, expert or otherwise;
4. Abdicating responsibility for item population sampling in relation to theoretical constructs for the object area of inquiry;
5. Virtually oblivious to reliability measurement and scientific validation of findings;
6. Capitalizing on the fallacy of the expert halo effect;
7. Typically generating snap answers to ambiguous questions representing ink blots of the future;
8. Seriously confusing aggregation of raw opinion with systematic prediction;
9. Capitalizing on forced consensus based in group suggestion;
10. Unwittingly inhibiting individuality and adversary process by overtly and covertly encouraging conformity and penalizing the dissident;
11. Reinforcing and institutionalizing premature closure, using a highly questionable ritual for conducive opinion studies that tend to inhibit more scientific approaches;
12. Giving an exaggerated illusion of precision, misleading uninformed uses of the results;
13. Indifferent and unaware of related techniques and findings in the behavioral science in such areas as projective techniques, psychometrics, group problem solving, and experimental design;
14. Producing virtually no serious critical literature to test basic hypotheses;

15. Denigrating group and face to face discussion and claiming superiority of anonymous group opinion over competing approaches without supporting proof; and
16. Encouraging a shortcut social science method that is lacking in minimum standards of professional accountability.

“Another constraint”, reports Smit and Mason (1990), “was that the format of the questions and answers had to permit easy interpretation and permit fast data entry in order to meet a limited turnaround time”. In Smit and Mason's case there was only a three-day turnaround time between rounds, which is usually not the case, especially when correspondence through the mail is contemplated. There is likelihood for delay (Sumsion, 1998) in achieving results due to the amount of time needed for each round (Walker and Selfe, 1996).

Difficulty in identifying experts is possible (Goodman, 1987; Sumsion, 1998; Walker and Selfe, 1994). Sumsion (1998, p.154) points out that it is hard to analyze open-ended data and, because there is no chance for respondents to refine their views (Goodman, 1987; Walker and Selfe, 1996). Such difficulties heighten the possibility that researcher bias will influence the interpretations of the results.

Rieger (1986) tentatively concluded that,

First, Delphi dissertations seem to indicate that the technique continues to be regarded by users as a proven heuristic device, much in the same way as Student's t and chi-square tests represent accepted procedure in the field of statistics. An acceptance that is uncritical and thus fails to examine the assumptions underlying the technique may be the beginning of many “sloppy” Delphi applications.

Second, an analysis of the sample of Delphi dissertations leads one to conclude that at least a part of the community of Delphi users and researchers do not effectively draw on the available cumulative experience of past Delphi procedures. A comprehensive examination of all Delphi dissertations completed so far might lead to the modification or confirmations of this conclusion, but until such an examination has been carried out, it should be sound advice for individuals doing Delphi dissertations to practice “quality control” as the last

decade of Delphi dissertations has not provided cause for significant optimism in this respect.

Third, there is some reason for some encouragement. There is some Delphi dissertations that demonstrate evidence of quality. It is hoped their number will increase (pp. 201-202).

Zuboy (1980) argued that, although Delphi produces a "best" estimate, the user should recognize that the answer may not be unbiased. In fact, the estimate may be off by a relative order of magnitude in some cases. This is more likely to occur, Zuboy insists, in a forecasting-type Delphi, however, than in a Delphi which uses the present as a time frame or one based on real data. The key to success in the latter case, he states, is the selection of experts.

“If panelists participating in the study can be shown to be representative of the group or area of knowledge under the study, then content validity can be assumed” (Goodman, 1987). Zuboy (1980) concludes that as long as the experience of the experts is appropriate to the problem at hand, the resulting estimate should tend to be unbiased.

Summary

The review of the literature indicated that there is no easy answer for determining knowledge needs, value needs, skill needs and training needs of correctional officers in the United States. The literature revealed the significance of relevant knowledge, values, skills and training in fulfilling CO learning and performance needs.

The CO symbolizes the prison to the incarcerated more than anyone else. The development and affirmation of types among officers is affected by the physical aspects of the prison. Its influence on the scope for interaction, and how it transforms the

character of the interaction between COs and inmates was discussed. It was warranted that capable people be placed in such CO positions because of the dangerous nature and complex field of CO work.

The intention to become a CO was briefly explored. Detailed profiles of CO task and duties were discussed. It was noted that an organization's staffing need and its mission can be fulfilled through pre-service training. Several approaches to the selection, retention, and motivation of COs were reviewed and the literature revealed that the basic level of training should be present in every correctional system.

COs enhance the security of jails and prisons. They protect the community by retaining the offenders where the court has intended them to be, and by also doing their part in rehabilitating. These goals are achieved through professional practices. The value and norms that the COs must aim for to be considered as professional are also adapted from what is considered as correct, adequate, humane and as such merit endeavors to achieve it.

COs make a difference in corrections. Unmistakably the vitality of the corrections profession is sustained through contributions made by line COs. They are held more accountable for multiple areas than in the past. Today's COs are neither strictly security oriented nor strictly treatment oriented. Along with watching over the prisoners they now have to play several roles in keeping prisoners in compliance with the rules and conditions of offender supervision. COs work closest to the prisoner, and spend more time with them than any other official. There are new requirements for them. This adds to their already difficult custodial duties. Developing some understanding of the

prisoners is, as such, crucial. Their enriched and broadened professional role calls for service oriented training.

Training of staff is as important as personnel selection. It is critical in sustaining a professional work force. Training can facilitate what management requires done. Training is the guiding component which can impart the pertinent knowledge, values and skills which can make correctional transformation possible. There is an immense need for trained officers who are by common consent determined the most significant change agents in the correctional undertaking.

Training enhances knowledge, and makes implementation of high standards and high ethics possible through professionalism. Such knowledge, skills and values can be imbued through pre-service training. Despite such a necessity, staff training remains a relatively low priority in many organizations. Improvements and reformation of training, as such, must be backed by correctional administrators.

There was much disagreement on what training should encompass and how much time should be spent in providing such training, once the trainees are hired to become COs. The importance of pre-service training lies in imbuing COs with knowledge, skills and values considered “highly relevant” and “relevant” in the study.

Training helps individuals to do their present tasks properly and educate certain employees so that they can assume greater responsibilities in the future. It is expected that, as a consequence of training, officers should be able to exhibit an improved knowledge of behavioral assumptions and processes, and be able to successfully resolve behavioral problems.

Delphi Technique was determined to be the approach taken to identify organizational consensus, ascertain problem areas, and to determine priorities. The review of literature reflects a difference of opinion regarding Delphi's inception and its applicability. However, the process seemed to allow detailed feedback and systematic follow-up of ideas. It also promotes grassroots undertakings.

The basics of the research process entailing the Delphi technique lends itself more to the qualitative nature of research. It was brought to light that panelists participating in a Delphi process should be acclaimed authorities in the area being explored. Other desirable particulars were their personal involvement in the problem of concern, that they should have relevant information to share. Also important is to have sufficient time to spare to go through the process, be motivated and energized to respond, to feel that the results of the process will furnish insight to which they would not otherwise have access, and that they value the topic of inquiry.

Yardsticks for designation or identification as an expert, inclusion criteria of panel members, number of questions that should be addressed, and how consensus can be developed through the use of Delphi were discussed. This relatively economical technique can be utilized over a vast geographic area.

The technique was generally found to be efficient, expeditious, inexpensive, easy to understand, and adaptable wherever the opinion of competent practitioners is desired. The feedback is anonymous and controlled, which allows examination of a perspective without loss of face. Consensus is gained without the influence of dominant individuals and the panelists are compelled to think about the future. Since the mean and standard deviation share common properties and since the standard deviation is based on

deviations about the mean, the two companion measures were used to measure variability. “Stability” and “convergence” were the criteria used in deciding when to bring the Delphi process to an end.

This section also established the use of Delphi Technique which involves a series of probes or questionnaires. The technique has been resolved to be the preferred dependable and methodical way to converge individual opinions or judgements and establish agreement among experts.

The Delphi procedure was put to use as a guide and to develop consensus among the “correctional officer training” / “CO learning and performance needs” experts. Predictive Delphis which project into the future call for the active participation of panelists who are extraordinarily familiar with the substantive area being investigated. Paraphrasing the words of Sumsion (1998), the Delphi technique is not a perfect tool but it is adaptable to a variety of situations and can be used in research situations, such as this study, where consensus on an issue is required.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to identify the learning and performance needs of entry level correctional officers. The following areas were explored to reach that purpose: (1) the most important areas of knowledge; (2) the most important skills; (3) the most important values; and (4) the most important training needs for entry level COs, among nationally recognized experts in the field of CO training. The methods and procedures used to reach the identified purpose are presented in the following pages.

The following topics are included: (1) Research Design, (2) Institutional Review Board, (3) Background of the Researcher, (4) Preferred Characteristics of the Panel Members, (5) Number of Participants, (6) Number of Delphi Rounds, (7) Number of Questions in the Delphi Survey, (8) Instrumentation, (9) Questionnaire Construction, (10) Pilot Testing, (11) Data Collection Process, (12) Development of Ranking and Rating Scales, (13) Continued participation of Panelists, (14) Guideline for Response Rate (15) Analysis of Data, (16) Research Timeline and (17) Summary.

Research Design

The description of the design shows the essential organization of the study. The characteristics of the hypothesis, the variables concerned, and the pressures of the real world all contribute to the design to be used (Gay, 1992, pp.105-106). Leedy (1974) stated that, in order to conduct research, one must first recognize what research is. He defined research as a way of thinking. According to Leedy (1974, p.3) research "is a manner of regarding accumulated fact so that a collection of data becomes articulate to the mind of the researcher in terms of what those data mean and what those facts say." He further stated that research has seven characteristics that lead us to the discovery of truth, which, after all, is the goal of research. Leedy's (1974) seven characteristics of research follow:

1. Research begins with a question in the mind of the researcher;
2. Research requires a plan;
3. Research demands a clear statement of the problem;
4. Research deals with the main problem through sub-problems;
5. Research seeks direction through appropriate hypotheses;
6. Research deals with facts and their meaning;
7. Research is circular (pp. 5-7).

The design of the study address the research questions seeking out the most important knowledge, skill, value and training needs for entry level Correctional Officers (COs). COs are inconsistently trained and vary in their abilities to successfully fulfill their roles as COs because there appears to be no common understanding of their learning and performance needs. The Delphi Technique was chosen as the method for summarizing the information gathered to identify the learning and performance needs of entry level COs.

The Delphi research method is descriptive (Walker and Selfe, 1996). According to Van Dalen (1979), descriptive research attempts to look at the current status and prevailing conditions, practices, and attitudes of these phenomena. He further defined the descriptive research process as a search for correct information about the attributes of particular subjects, groups, institutions, or situations or about the frequency with which something takes place (Dalen, 1979, pp. 284 - 285). According to Green (1996, p.509) “The Delphi Route with its opportunities for collection and distillation of expert opinion, appears to have been effective as a design tool”. This study used a procedure of descriptive research at the ordinal level of statistical analysis to interpret group recommendations and opinions into a compilation of descriptive information for decision making (Dalkey, 1972).

According to Clayton (1997), “Delphi has great strength and utility. It collects and organizes judgements in a systematic fashion. It gains input, establishes priorities and builds consensus. It organizes and helps to focus dissent, turning this group effect into a window of opportunity. In short, Delphi cannot be overlooked as a useful and potent tool when attempting to harness expert opinion for critical decision-making tasks in education”. Craig (1976, p. 9-5), concludes that, rooted in an aggregation of experience, judgment, and clear-sighted perception, the Delphi technique has been depicted as a ‘quantitative intuition’.

Allen (1978) outlines the steps for the process as follows: develop the Delphi question, select the panel of experts, develop and administer the questionnaires, analyze the results, prepare a final report. According to Sumsion (1998), there are frequently seven steps in the Delphi process. These are: a. identification of the primary aim; b.

contacting possible participants; c. the first round, which seeks opinions or provides initial information for comment; d. tabulating and quantifying results; e. the second round, which consists of the tabulated results of the first round now distributed for further comment; f. the third round, which presents the results of round two which are now nearing consensus; and finally, g. publication (Everett, 1993). Each time panelists are asked for responses, it is labeled as a “round”. Two to four rounds are usually needed to develop consensus of panelists’ opinions on an issue (Holcomb, 1996).

Krefting (1991) alerted about the fallacy of evaluating qualitative research against criteria appropriate to quantitative research. She points to Agar (1986) who suggested terms like credibility, accuracy of representation, and authority of the writer. Leininger (1985) likens reliability to gaining knowledge and understanding of the nature (i.e., the meaning, attributes, and characteristics) of the phenomenon under study.

Krefting (1991) offers Guba’s (1981) “Model of Trustworthiness of Qualitative Research” where the investigator institutes reliance in the truth of the findings for the subject matter or informants and the circumstance of the study. In terms of evaluating training requirement, the Delphi technique would probably be most beneficial for predicting future learning and performance needs with regard to long-range company plans or purposes. This process will facilitate the accomplishment of the objectives of the study.

Institutional Review Board

Before investigators can begin their research, all research studies that involve human subjects require review and approval in accordance with the US federal

regulations and Oklahoma State University (OSU) policy. The OSU Office of University Research Compliance and the Institutional Review Board (IRB) conduct this review to protect the rights and welfare of human subjects involved in research. Approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. Approvals are valid for one calendar year.

In accordance with the above-mentioned regulation and OSU policy, the study was processed as “Exempt” status. It received the proper supervision and was, on Monday, April 24, 2000, granted authorization to continue. The “approved” IRB Application Number is ED00254. (See Appendix N).

Background of the Researcher

Detailed background of the researcher is available in the Vita attached at the end of the dissertation. Emran Wasim Khan, CCE, is employed by the Oklahoma Department of Corrections (ODOC), Community Sentencing Division, as a local administrator of the Osage and Pawnee counties. He received his bachelor’s with Honors and his first master’s in International Relations, both from the University of Dhaka in Dhaka, Bangladesh. He has an MBA from the College of Business Administration at Central State University (CSU), and also an MA in Criminal Justice Management & Administration from CSU in Edmond, Oklahoma. He is a doctoral candidate in the School of Educational Studies at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, Oklahoma.

He is the first and only (as of December 2000) Oklahoman to have gained national recognition as a qualified correctional practitioner for his professional abilities and has been designated as a Certified Correctional Executive by the American Correctional Association Commission on Correctional Certification. He has served the

ODOC since 1985. He has held the positions of a correctional officer cadet, a correctional officer, a correctional case manager, a probation and parole officer, a senior probation and parole officer, a grievance review officer, and a senior correctional training officer. He is a member of several professional associations, including the American Correctional Association, the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, the Oklahoma Correctional Association, the American Jail Association, the International Community Corrections Association, the Southern States Correctional Association, the International Association of Correctional Training Personnel, the American Society of Criminology, and the International Association of Correctional Officers.

Preferred Characteristics of the Panel Members

Choosing the array of experts has been very important (Williams & Webb, 1994; Pullen, 1996) to the validity and reliability of the study (Pullen, 1996). The content validity of a Delphi study is measured by the adequacy of the selection of panelists (Goodman, 1987; Holcomb, 1996; Walker & Selfe, 1996).

Weatherman and Swenson (1974) pointed out that panel representativeness, appropriateness, competence, and commitment must be taken into consideration. Allen (1978) delineated such criteria of a panelist. Sumsion (1998) reiterated that "overall, it is important to recruit individuals who have knowledge of the topic and are willing to dedicate the time to this method of discussion".

According to Zodrow (1995), and Dawson and Barker (1995), Delphi methodology does not require random sampling. The population of experts for the Delphi portion of the research was selected with the help of the top administrators for

correctional officer training and education in each of the identified organizations.

Identification of a pool of experts from which participants would be chosen was based on an extensive national nomination process to eliminate potential researcher bias (Pullen, 1996).

Combining the ideas of Delbecq, Von de Ven and Gustafson (1975), Linstone & Turoff (1975), Harmon (1975), Allen (1978), Adams (1980), Brown (1985), Goodman (1987), AORN (1994), Williams and Webb (1994), Andranovich (1995), Sumison (1998), and Marino (1999), the following standards were determined to be desirable in an expert for the purpose of the study's Delphi panel. It was desired that a nominee would conform to at least five of the nine standards outlined below:

1. Track record in professional practice with considerable (a minimum of 5 years) experience as a correctional administrator;
2. Recognition from a national association or a regional organization as an individual knowledgeable in the field of correctional training;
3. Experience as a correctional or, training consultant;
4. Academic with expertise in corrections/criminal justice/criminology, correctional administration, and/or correctional officer training;
5. Continuing professional interest in correctional training development and education;
6. Contributes actively to the training and/or educational needs of correctional staff trainees;
7. Nationally recognized and held in high regard by peer groups.
8. Highly motivated; and

9. Has sufficient time to include Delphi tasks into competing schedule.

Miller's (1991) Guide for Appraisal of the Personal Interview for Data Collection suggest that "(t)he researcher should check the advantages important for his or her study, check the disadvantages that cannot be overcome, and appraise the choice" (p. 159). The choice of five out of nine standards mentioned above was with the intent to maintain a simple majority of the recommended selection standards. Also, a diverse panel was preferred (Harmon, 1975; Linstone & Turoff, 1975).

It was desired that the various panelists were knowledgeable about the content under study (Goodman, 1987; Zodrow, 1995; Sumsion, 1998). Preferences were for panelists to be inclusive of the correctional and training practitioners and academicians (Brown, 1985; Lee, 1995), and individuals with experiences in the field of and related to Criminal Justice/Criminology and/or Training & Development (Laird, 1985; Williams & Webb, 1994). Such an option of number was to assure that it was inclusive enough but restricted sufficiently to assure representativeness and appropriateness (Weatherman and Swenson, 1974) along with panelist competence and commitment (Allen, 1978). This procedure of selection is in concordance with Harmon's (1975) view of verifying experts. He stated that,

A reasonable definition of expertise involves recognition and approbation of peer groups; to wit, someone is an expert in his [sic] field if others in his [sic] field consider him [sic] to be an expert. Some measures of expertise, by this definition are the holding of a position . . . and awards. When a variety of professionals in a field are polled about whom they regard as an expert, and the same individuals keep being mentioned, those individuals must be considered experts (p.5).

Zodrow (1995) wrote that, the technique asks that subjects be chosen because they "have information to share, are motivated to work on the problem and have time to complete the tasks involved with the procedure" (Allen, 1978).

Nominations were collected from personal interviews, articles in scholarly and trade publications, professional and academic credentials and participation in seminars and conferences. Some respondents have primarily professional experience, some primarily academic, and some a blend of the two (Lee, 1995, p.51). Rowe and Wright's (1996) "findings suggest that only 'objective expertise' is an appropriate variable for Delphi panelist selection" (p. 87). "In an effort to eliminate researcher bias, as in these studies", Pullen (1996) concluded, "it seems logical to use a peer nomination or a criteria-referenced, panel-selection process" (p.42).

Number of Participants

"In all research, the goal is to choose the best participants to provide the information that is required and for the researcher to be prepared to justify that choice" (Sumsion, 1998, p.154). According to Reid (1988, p.240), there is a notable variation in the size of the Delphi panels.

Williams and Webb (1994) reiterated that "there is no agreement regarding the size of the panel, nor any recommendations concerning sampling techniques" (p. 182). Walker and Selfe (1996, p. 680) wrote that the optimum number of respondents remains controversial and may need to vary, depending on the study.

Weatherman and Swenson (1974) wrote that panel members should be chosen in a logical manner so that they are representative of the population. Random selection and response rates are not as important (Dawson and Barker, 1995) with this technique as in other survey methods (Mobily et al., 1993).

Miller (1979) wrote that 40 environmental experts were polled by Smil (1974) in a Delphi study at the University of Manitoba in Winnipeg, Canada. Miller (1979) points to Brockhaus (1977) whose investigation reflects that 2% of the studies had five or fewer respondents while 40 % had more than 40 respondents.

According to Eitington (1989), "Since there is no cost entailed in convening the experts, large numbers of respondents may be used", if desired. Sumsion (1998) noted that the number of participants ranged from 12 to 1600 in a variety of studies reviewed by William and Webb (1994a). Of course, too large a group may have other cost implications. "A minimum of seven experts and a maximum of 100 is a general guideline" (p. 171).

The study is an analysis of CO training in the USA. To identify the persons most knowledgeable of learning and performance needs of COs, the first step in the study was to send a letter (see Appendix A) to selected individuals and organizations (Appendix M). The list included the following,

1. Each Director, Secretary or Commissioner in the Department of Corrections or the equivalent of each state of the USA;
2. Federal Bureau of Prisons training academies and training administrators;
3. Training commissions;
4. Selected criminal justice, criminology, sociology, political science, anthropology, human resource, public administration, corrections doctoral and masters granting universities in the US;
5. Selected county and private correctional entities;
6. Collective bargaining associations; and

7. National, regional, international professional organizations (listed in Appendix L).

Each of the agencies and individuals contacted was asked to nominate three to five experts in the field of correctional training. Nominees were expected to be knowledgeable in the field of CO pre-service training, education and strategic planning. The idea of drawing several inclusion criteria by Mead (1992), pointed out by Williams and Webb (1994, p.184), in choosing a panel member who would at least meet five of the nine standards from the list was followed.

Once these experts were identified, using the criteria mentioned above as a guideline, the list of recommended national experts (see Appendix B) was then finalized. The process to make the decision was two-part. The first part was to eliminate anyone who did not receive more than one nomination. The second part was then to eliminate anyone who did not meet the predetermined criterion and/or the approval of the doctoral committee.

A total of at least 50 nominations was desired. The number was chosen in a manner so that the panelists would be representative of the population knowledgeable of learning and performance needs of COs. Consideration was given for it to be large enough (Brockhaus, 1977; Sumsion, 1998) and to be within the budgetary constraints (Eittington, 1989) of this researcher. Based on criteria mentioned in the preceding sentences and above paragraphs, and feedback from some nationally renowned nominees, a number of experts receiving the most nominations in accordance with the pre-set criteria, were asked to participate.

A total of 116 separate names was received. Ninety receiving the most nominations, and who met the criterion of "expert", were selected as potential participants. This number was based on the proportion of non-respondents or attrition rate indicated in many of the Delphi studies cited and the tentative number of panelists (50) desired. Warde (1990) cautioned about the potential attrition of respondents. Lacey (1983) originally included 27 individuals to insure retention of 10 to 15 participants. Dean (1986) reduced a list of potential Delphi panelist to 44. Letters seeking their participation in the study were sent to all 44 experts; 21 experts agreed to participate. Root (1991) asked 29 individuals, and 20 agreed to take part.

William and Webb (1994) reported that Farrell and Scherer (1983) selected a sample of 1411 nurses out of a population of 8980. Of the original sample, 662 agreed to participate, yet only 472 replied to round one and only 141 replied to round two. Rosmait (1996) invited 22 individuals of whom 14 agreed to participate; Villaquiran's (1997) selected population of the study was 230, of which 161 participated.

Once the list of national experts was finalized, a letter explaining the research project was sent to the possible panelists. The 90 experts nominated and fitting the designated criteria of an "expert" for the analysis were each contacted by mail. The letter asked if they would be willing to participate in this doctoral research. The correspondence (see Appendix C) explained the purpose of the study.

Each person in the group of 50 "expert" participants willing to participate in the Delphi probe, a technique developed by the RAND Corporation, was mailed the first probe which was accompanied by a cover letter explaining the process and thanking the

experts for taking the time to participate. Included in the probe was a pre-addressed envelope, to insure ease in responding, “and to encourage timely replies” (Zuboy, 1980).

Each correspondence to the panelists included a self-addressed stamped return envelope. A reply form was included which explained that participation was voluntary and that a panel member could withdraw his or her consent and participation at any time after notifying the researcher or the Oklahoma State University Research Services. Upon reading and fully understanding the content of the consent form would-be panelists were asked to sign it freely and voluntarily. (See Appendix C).

Fifty experts agreed to take part in the research. This conforms to Reid’s (1988) assertion that the panel size varies and Eitington’s (1989) general guideline of 7 to 100 experts. Turoff (cited in Miller, 1979) affirmed that “A policy Delphi can be given to anywhere from ten to fifty people” (p. 153). Allen’s (1978) idea of a panel of experts who have “information to share, are motivated to work on the problem, and have the time to complete the tasks involved with the procedure” (p. 123) was also taken into consideration.

The number of experts selected eventually depended, as Sumsion (1998) stressed, on the subject matter under inquiry, the knowledgeable and experienced subject matter experts availing themselves for the purpose, and the limited resources of this researcher. “Predictive or projective Delphi’s require the involvement of panelists who are exceptionally knowledgeable about the substantive area being examined” (p. 94).

The 50 experts represented all the geographical regions of the USA, such as New England, Middle Atlantic, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, East North Central, West North Central, Mountain, and Pacific. The regions included 26

states, 14 universities, 12 departments of corrections, five sheriff's department, 11 state training institutes, departments, or commissions, one federal staff training academy, three private correctional corporations, one national association, one international association, one private correctional research organization, and two national correctional journals / magazines.

Several collective bargaining associations were invited to nominate individuals. Either none responded or the ones recommended did not meet the predetermined criteria. The panelists represented a wide range of correctional and educational entities.

Though the Delphi panelists anonymously gathered through the Delphi process to converge on the idea of correctional officer knowledge, skill, value and training needs, the professional background of all the experts, employed at such multifarious organizations and institutions, varied. Acquiring information from dissimilar disciplines expands the range of the knowledge base (Linstone & Turoff, 1975).

Number of Delphi Rounds

According to Smit and Mason (1990), the process repeats for as many rounds as resources permit, until consensus emerges, or further questioning reveals nothing of value (p.458). Sackman (1975) observed that questionnaires are administered to the participants for two or more rounds. Sumsion (1998) reported that the classic Delphi technique included four rounds (Miles Tapping et al., 1990). She additionally observed that current consensus appears that two or three rounds are preferred (Bond and Bond, 1982; Jenkins and Smith, 1994; Proctor and Hunt, 1994; Walker, 1994; Maxwell and Selfe, 1996).

According to Brockhaus (cited in Miller, 1979), “most Delphi studies in fact consist of 3 or fewer iterations versus the minimum of 4 iterations as suggested in the literature” (p.109). Care was taken not to over exert or exhaust (Miller, 1991; Sumsion, 1998; Williams and Webb, 1994) the panelists. Andranovich (1995) cautioned that “the Delphi is a labor intensive procedure; the greater the number of panelists, the greater the information load, both for the panelists to consider and for the monitor to analyze” (p. 6).

Buck, Gross, Hakim and Weinblatt’s (1993) criteria of *stability* and *convergence* (Nelson, 1978) (elaborated previously in page 56 of this dissertation) was also applied in making the decision of terminating this Delphi research. Acceptable results (Egan et al., 1995) were available after the third iteration (Delphi Round III) with which this study ended.

Number of Questions in the Delphi Survey

The total number of questions that should be posed in one Delphi survey is not evident (Holcomb, 1996). Lee’s (1995) and Villaquiran’s (1997) study utilized five questions. Lacey (1983), Dean (1986), Payne (1989) and Massey (1993) used three questions each in their respective studies. Spurlin (1992) used four research questions. This study employed four questions, which is also congruent with Rosmait’s (1996) use of four questions.

Instrumentation

The Delphi Technique involved a series of probes or questionnaires. The first questionnaire sought nomination of expert individuals. The second questionnaire sought nominees’ participation in the research. The third questionnaire (Delphi Round I) was an

open-ended instrument that gathered the opinions of the participants. The next two probes (Delphi Round II and III) attempted to refine the opinions of the experts and to reach a consensus (Delbecq, 1975).

The first questionnaire was sent to the highest ranking administrators of training in the Department of Corrections or the equivalent of each state of the USA, federal and municipal correctional organizations. Other recipients were selected criminal justice / corrections / sociology / public administration / anthropology / human resource / education / criminology doctoral and masters granting universities in the US. The instrument was also sent to professional organizations, regional correctional organizations, collective bargaining associations, chosen state-wide organizations, county sheriff's and jail administrators and selected private correctional management firms.

Each of the agencies or individuals contacted was asked to nominate three to five experts in the field of correctional officer pre-service training, education and strategic planning. The questionnaire asked each of the administrators/correctional professionals/educators/ to nominate three to five experts in the field of correctional officer training (see Appendix A).

The nominees receiving the most nominations and/or anyone that met the predetermined criteria was sent a letter requesting the nominee's participation and a response form. (See Appendix C). The nominees who agreed to participate in the Delphi process (See Appendix B) were sent the first open-ended Delphi Round I questionnaire. (see Appendix D).

Questionnaire Construction

Seltiz, Wrightsman and Cook (1976) pointed out the difficulty “to develop rating scales that provide a consistent measurement of the underlying dimensions independently of the concepts being judged”(p. 431). Relevancy of the questions to the objectives (Warde, 1990) of the study was considered very important, and steps were taken to assure such.

Osgood, Suei and Tannenbaum (1957) explored the meaning of an object to an individual. Great care was taken to “avoid ambiguous, vague, loaded, or leading questions” (Warde, 1990, p.203). Warde (1990) recommended the avoidance of queries like, “What does this question really ask?” In preparing a question he suggested that the question be simple, and also maintained the importance of recognizing the possible difference in the frame of reference between the researcher(s) and the respondents. Such possible concerns were taken into consideration and addressed through an “explanation of reasons” in the letters “for the type of data being requested” (Warde, 1990, p.201).

Villaquiran (1997) guided the respondents with a few examples of responses in his “In-Service Education Survey of Extension Professionals.” Delphi Round I (Appendix D) of the study assures the questionnaire is “simpler and more self-explanatory” (Smith, 1975) and provides examples of “knowledge”, “skills”, “values” and "training needs" to demystify possible ambiguities.

Several doctoral dissertations and a few masters theses referred to throughout this study and noted in the bibliography were consulted to select just the right wording of the letters/questionnaires. In Spurlin’s (1992) four-point scale he worded the choices as “need must be addressed” to “should” be addressed, “could” be addressed to “need does

not need to be addressed”. Andranovich’s (1995) choice of phrasing and the questionnaire format used in his “Developing Community Participation and Consensus: The Delphi Technique” was determined to most closely resemble the pursuit of the study and was adapted (with slight modification). Indeed, more care was “taken with questionnaire construction simply because there will be no trained investigator present to explain question, phraseology or instructions to the respondents” (Smith, 1975).

Pilot Testing

Selltiz, Wrightsman and Cook (1976) pointed out the difficulty of developing rating scales. Once the questionnaires for the study (Appendices A, C, E, F and G) were developed, they were tested on a group of 15 state correctional employees attending an advanced training session at the Employee Training and Development Center of the Oklahoma Department of Corrections, in Stillwater, Oklahoma. As incorporated and reiterated by Keel (1992), pilot testing of the questionnaire(s), according to Dunham and Smith (1979), can detect and amend errors in item writing or construction before the final questionnaire is administered.

The questionnaires were reexamined by the Oklahoma State University research design class students on the main campus in Stillwater. As a result of these appraisals, the questionnaires were modified slightly by rewording some of the questions. After the modified instruments were reviewed by the research design class instructor and students and found to be appropriate, it was considered executable.

Data Collection Process

Nomination forms (see Appendix A) seeking Delphi panel members were sent to a selected group of 314 correctional, training and academic (private and public) organizations and /or individuals. A cover letter was included that explained the importance of the study to the future correctional community in the USA. Responses from the organizations were received within one month.

The organizations or individuals that did not respond were then contacted. The second contact of non-respondents was made over the e-mail and/or telephone (in that order of preference) as appropriate. According to Treece & Treece, Jr. (1973), follow-up studies of non-respondents have shown that they differ very little from those who respond the first time. Every positive action or steps were taken to maximize such a situation.

Once the group of experts who were nominated to participate in the research was identified and selected, a letter explaining the purpose of the research was sent to each expert. Buck et al.(1993), reiterated that “Delphy [sic] by mail has the major advantage of incorporating a larger panel” (p.279).

The correspondence (Appendix C) also included a self-addressed envelope with return-postage, which was sent to each to be returned to the researcher. The returned response form verified their willingness or unwillingness to participate. Responses through the e-mail were also entertained.

The group of participants willing to participate in the first Delphi probe was administered the same probe. The probe was accompanied by a cover letter explaining the process and thanking the experts for taking the time to participate. The letter and probe are included in Appendix D.

With the intent of reducing mailing expenses and the anticipation of quicker responses, Delphi Round I was initially administered to all 50 participants via their e-mail addresses (except one because such an e-mail address was not available). Three respondents informed via e-mail that they would prefer to respond via the regular United States Postal Service (USPS). Two responded via fax. Thirty-one individuals responded to Delphi Round I through e-mail. The remaining 17 individuals were mailed duplicates of the same questionnaire via the USPS.

Sixteen individuals (of the 17) responded to all the four questions. One person gathered findings of a previous research in his state training academy and forwarded the same. The information seemed to be useful for this dissertation's Review of Literature section; however, because it did not conform to the questionnaire mailed out and because the content did not address all the questions in the questionnaire it could not be utilized. Included in the mailed probe via USPS was a pre-addressed stamped envelope to insure ease in responding.

Warde (1990) contends that providing a *response time* of ten working days is sufficient. Intervening holidays and weekends were taken into consideration in determining a deadline. Instructions for where to send the completed information was provided in each instrument along with a stamped, self-addressed envelope.

The Delphi Round II probe provided a list the summary of entry level COs most important areas of training, knowledge, skill and value needs gathered through Delphi Round I. It required the experts to rank the Delphi Round II (a) question "what are the most important areas of training needs for entry level correctional officers?" Responses on a scale of one through ten were sought. Delphi Round II (b) required the panelists to

identify the most important areas of knowledge on a scale of one through nineteen.

Round II (c) question asked the panelists to describe the most important skills on a scale of one through twenty. The last question Delphi Round II (d) called for identifying the most important values on a scale of one through forty.

As outlined in Dawson and Barker (1995), the items were designed in random order. In all the questions, panelists were informed that the data was not listed in any particular order. It was requested that respondents adhere to the distribution and to regard "1" as the most important, with declining importance to the other rankings.

Development of Ranking and Rating Scale

According to Miller (1991, p.174), scaling techniques play a major role in the construction of instruments for collecting standardized, measurable data. Scales offer quantitative measures that are amenable to greater precision, statistical manipulation, and explicit interpretation. In the study the Delphi panelists in Round II received a randomly ordered list of items to be ranked. In Delphi III the respondents were asked to rate the ranked items.

Based on the amount of information received, and to the extent initial consolidation would not lose the meaning of ideas for each topic or category proposed, the number of items returned to the panel members for consideration and prioritization remained loosely consolidated. This also was intended to retain the originality of the content proposed. Mead (1992) maintained that the Delphi technique intends to reach a consensus without eliminating minority opinions at an early phase. The four questions in

each of the Delphi questionnaires drew varying responses. The total number of consolidated items also varied from one category to the other.

“Likert scales can and have been used with anything from three to ninety-nine points on the scale” (Warde, 1990, p. 222-223). Smit and Mason's (1990) article outlined the use of “a seven point Likert scale with the extremes represented by values such as ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’”. Root (1991) used a five-point scale prioritizing from “important” to “unimportant”. Spurlin (1992) used a four-point scale of “need must be addressed” to “should” be addressed, “could” be addressed to “need does not need to be addressed”. In other instances respondents were asked to rank choices, select from among alternatives or fill numerical and (in a relatively few cases) verbal responses (*ibid*, p.460). The basis for constructing a ten, eighteen, twenty and forty point ranking scale respectively in the study’s Delphi Round II probe a, b, c and d (see Appendix F) is “logical inference” designed to curtail the possibility of “bias or limitations associated with the Likert-type questionnaire” (Rosmait, 1996).

Miller (1991) said that use of such a scale requires the “assumption of a psychological continuity that the respondent can realistically act upon in self-rating” (p. 175). The respondents in the second Delphi Round II were asked to prioritize the items. The items were randomly (Dawson & Barker, 1995) listed as training, knowledge, skill and value needs of the entry level CO. The respondents were asked to rank their choices “1” through “10”, “1 through 18”, “1 through 20” and “1 through 40” for Delphi Round II, a, b, c and d, respectively. Respondents of the Delphi study were asked to regard a score of “1” as the most important. They were also given the option to add topics, make suggestions to delete item(s), or to make any comments.

According to Sommer and Sommer (1991), “An attitude scale is a special type of questionnaire designed to produce scores indicating the overall degree of favorability of a person’s attitudes on a topic” (pp. 169-170). Seltiz, Wrightsman and Cook (1976) pointed out that such a tool can assemble a large number of items. They urged assuring that the relevant attitude was being investigated. “Within limits, the reliability of a scale increases as the number of possible alternative responses is increased” (p. 419). The respective ten, eighteen, twenty and forty choices available in Delphi Round II was in response to choices made available in the questionnaire to the respondents.

The idea behind limiting the choices was to allow for the respondents to converge (Fusfeld and Foster, 1971). However, it also was one of the limitations of the study because important data may have been eliminated. The respondents were informed of their option to eliminate any items that were felt not of utmost importance and to likewise add any items that were felt missing. (See Appendices F and H). Though the Delphi questionnaire design allowed elimination of several identical ideas, uniformity (Green, 1996) and refinement of ideas through feedback (Holcomb, 1996) was achieved. The panelists appeared satisfied with the method as “fair” and “efficient in extracting information” (Dalkey & Brown, 1967).

In the questionnaire, as delineated by Dean (1986, p.42), it was stated that a ranking of “1” was given ten points, “2” was given nine points and “10” was given one point in the Round II (a) questionnaire as in Appendix F. The second question, Delphi Round II (b) was “what are the most important areas of knowledge for entry level correctional officers?” It used a similar “1” through “18” rating scale. The same design was also followed for the remaining two Round II (c) and (d) research questions. The

last two questions assembled a larger (20 and 40, respectively) number of items as Selltiz, Wrightsman and Cook (1976) proposed, to assure due consideration for relevant attitude being investigated.

In all the questionnaires in the Delphi Round II probe, the experts had the opportunity to add any additional “training”, “knowledge”, “skill”, or “value” needs, delete item(s), or to make any comments that they wanted to make in each of the probes. A copy of the Delphi Round II Probe a, b, c and d can be seen in Appendix F.

Although the instrument indicated the use of points in calculating the weight of the ranking, the statistician and the same data entry expert consulted for the purpose used the raw score indicated by the participants to take advantage of the Excel data base already containing the crude responses. The ease of calculating the mean and standard deviation from the raw data without losing its meaning was taken into account. According to Warde (1990), “From the strict viewpoint of the transfer of data from the questionnaire to a computer record, there is really no problem since one loses no information” (p. 223). Selltiz, Wrightsman, Cook, Balch, Hoffstetter and Bickman's (1976) idea of scoring consistently in terms of the attitudinal direction the respondents indicated, was followed.

The final probe, Delphi Round III a, b, c and d, lists each category of knowledge, skills, values and training needs according to their mean scores based on the assigned raw number given to each of the questions at the second round by the respondents (See Appendix H). Additional items, only two more, were generated from the second questionnaire. These were added to the Round III (b) questionnaire. (See Appendix H).

The Round III questionnaire (Appendix H) contained the same four basic areas of questions from Round II with a slight change in order (Moser and Kolten, 1972). This was intended to improve the “contrast” phenomenon (Noelle-Neuman, 1970) and/or the “logical inference” of providing opinion on the last question “training needs”. Having reviewed and possibly responded to the Delphi Round III questions regarding CO knowledge, skill and value in the first three parts of the four-part questionnaire, may have allowed the panelists to better determine the pre-service training needs of entry level COs.

The questionnaire in Delphi Round III (Appendix H) employs the most commonly used (Warde, 1990, p.222) Likert-type rating scale of (4) highly relevant, (3) relevant, (2) insignificantly relevant, and (1) not relevant or “eliminate”. The panel members rated the ranked results of Round II recommendations from “highly relevant” with a score of “4”, to “relevant” with a score of “3”, to “insignificantly relevant” with a score of “2”, and to “no relevance” with a score of “1”. This *choice of words* used in describing the scales and the range of “1” through “4” was taken from Adranovich (1995). Warde (1990) contends that these are commonly used labels. The respondents had the option to eliminate items they viewed as not essential for the category. They also had the option to add items not on the list be included if it was felt necessary or important to do so.

Mead (1992) asked expert panel members to assess items on a Likert scale. According to Miller (1977, 1991), the Likert technique, which is a summated scale consisting of a series of items to which the subject responds, produces an ordinal scale that generally requires non-parametric statistics, and “is highly reliable when it comes to

a rough ordering of people with regard to a particular attitude or attitude complex. The score includes a measure of intensity as expressed on each statement”(p. 177).

Brooks (1974) used a mean response for each item which was ranked by importance according to participant rating. The means and standard deviations (Godsey, 1992; Massey, 1993; Villaquiran, 1997; White, 1991; William & Webb, 1994 a & b) were calculated for each item with a score of “4” representing the highest degree of importance and “1” being the lowest.

Like Smith and Simpson (1995), the Delphi Probe III, a, b, c, and d (Appendix H) utilized a four-point scale and asked the panelists to “react to the total list of statements”. The questionnaire also incorporated an option to choose “E” as a category for panel members/experts to eliminate an item.

The aggregate was based on the choices available in the questionnaire and the selections made by the panelists. As outlined in the questionnaire, the selection(s) received a corresponding allocated number of points. Ordinal level descriptive statistics were calculated to describe the means and standard deviations for each item (Dean, 1986; Massey, 1993; Morgan and Knox, 1987). According to Miller (1991), “the mean and standard deviation are the central concepts of position and dispersion” (p.246). He mentions that non-parametric tests should focus on the order, ranking or rating of the scores, as was done in this study, not on their “numerical values”.

Williams and Webb (1994a) looked to White’s (1991) study, where it was demonstrated that the mean allowed the definition of ‘high’ or ‘strong’ consensus as in Andranovich’s ‘Highly relevant’ and ‘Relevant’ recommendations to be used in this study in order to be consistent with the results obtained. Together with the removal of

'unimportant' (Mead, 1992), as in this study 'No relevance; should not be a recommendation' (Andranovich, 1995) further influenced attrition by this method (Mead, 1992; Williams and Webb, 1994a&b).

According to Maxfield and Babbie (1995), "Variables whose attributes may be logically *rank-ordered* are ordinal measures. The different attributes represent relatively more or less of the variable" (p. 101). The Delphi Round II, a, b, c and d in the study, asked the experts to examine the rank-ordered consensus and determine if they wanted to reevaluate any of their choices. Delphi Round III a, b, c and d asked the experts to rate the choices by examining the rank-ordered consensus from the previous round and determine if they wanted to reevaluate any of their choices. Williams and Webb (1994a) write that such investigations endorse Orton's (1981) "notion of empiricism as their criterion for consensus". The Delphi Round II probe can be seen in Appendix F and the Delphi Round III probe can be seen in Appendix H.

Continued Participation of Panelist

Criteria for a Delphi panelists continued participation were designed. All the participating Delphi panelists were expected to have pertinent information to share and had agreed to include the Delphi task into their competing tasks. Other desirable credentials were included in the participation acceptance form (Appendix C), where the participants made the following affirmation:

_____ Yes, I would like to be a member of the national panel of experts for correctional officer training.

There was room for refusal to participate at this time and an option to seek further clarification via e-mail or phone. The potential panel members were also asked to check any of the following criteria that applied to the individual making the pledge, such as being an “Expert” in the Development of Correctional Training; Served as a Correctional Consultant; Academician with an Expertise in Corrections/Criminal Justice/Correctional Administration; Recognized as Knowledgeable in Correctional Training by a National or Regional Organization; and/or CO training; Have professional interest in Correctional Training; an individual who makes active contribution to professionalize Correctional Training and a separate category as “Other” along with a request for an explanation of the same.

The potential panel members were assured that such participation was voluntary; that there is no penalty for refusal to participate; that they were free to withdraw such consent and participation at any time without penalty after notifying the researcher. The researcher’s e-mail address, home, pager and office phone numbers were listed and contact address and phone number for the Oklahoma State University Research Services were given.

Although it was expected that all the panelists would participate in all the rounds, the above agreement would reflect a panel member’s option to choose non-participation at any time. All 50 panelists responded in Delphi Round I. In Delphi Round II three panelists did not respond. Three panelists did not respond in Round III.

Tuckman (cited in Payne, 1989), suggests that it is essential to acquire data from non-respondents only when responses are received from less than 80 % of those receiving the questionnaire. No justification is available from the author for making such a

determining factor. However, in a study designed by William and Webb (1994a, p. 185), it was decided to use 100% agreement as the criterion for consensus, because the results of the pilot for the study showed that 80% of the participants achieved 100 % consensus.

In the study's Delphi Round I, the response rate was 100%. Delphi Round II's response rate was 94% and Delphi Round III also obtained a 94% response rate. Non-respondents were followed up with correspondence by e-mail. Two individual's e-mail addresses had become invalid. The OSU webmaster reported such attempted correspondences undeliverable. One person wrote back by e-mail that he was travelling out of state and intended to respond. No additional response was received after the last one, taking the total response count to 47 or 94 %, on November 9, 2000. The remaining three non-responders were called by telephone at the numbers provided, but nobody answered at the multiple times such calls were made.

Miller (1979) mailed questionnaires only to the respondents in his subsequent rounds. Villaquiran (1997) mailed questionnaires to all of his population of 204 Extension educators; 127 participated in his first round. Nevertheless, results of the first round were sent back to all 204 with 196 respondents participating in the second round. This was followed up by sending the third questionnaire again to all 204 panelists with a response received from 161 participants in the third round.

Andranovich (1995) reported his Delphi panel consisted of 25 members, "although not all panelists participated in each round" (p. 10). Huckfeldt's (1972) NCHEMS (National Center for Higher Education Management Systems) at WICHE (Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education) Delphi distributed mail questionnaire to all 385 panel members in each of the five survey rounds "whether or not

they had responded to the previous round” (p. 5). This retained individuals who have interest and knowledge of the topic (Goodman, 1987; Zodrow, 1995; Sumsion, 1998), and minimized the dropout rate (Reid, 1988; Sumsion, 1998). The study mailed out questionnaires to all the 50 panel members who initially agreed to participate during each of the three rounds.

Guideline for Response Rate

As outlined by Schmidt (1997), at the end of each round in this study, the question was asked, “Should another round be conducted to obtain greater consensus?” It was arbitrarily (Hill and Fowles, 1975; Lacey, 1983; Pullen, 1996; Williams and Webb, 1994) determined that there should be a 70% (of the third round) response (of panelist) rate.

It was also established that a particular choice of the group would have to achieve a mean score of 3.5 or greater to be considered a “Highly Relevant (HR)” recommendation (J. Key, personal communication, October 30, 2000); likewise a mean score of 2.5 through 3.4 was needed for an item to be considered “Relevant (R)” by all the Delphi panelists. Conformity to the above described level of rating was established as desirable in describing each of the learning and performance needs: the most important areas of knowledge, skill, value and training needs of entry level COs for it to be considered that a consensus had been achieved at that level (HR, or R) by all the participating panel members. The arbitrary choice conforms to Gay (1976) requiring at least a response rate of 70 % to be able to assure a valid conclusion and assure generalizability. The HR or R rating conforms to the score the Delphi Round III

questionnaire established as the weight that was given for a specific choice. The numerical choices, of course, may be more applicable to an inferential research than in such a qualitative or descriptive study.

The standard deviation was also used (Couger, 1988; Brancheau and Wetherbe, 1987; White, 1991; Williams and Webb, 1994a&b) as a measure of consensus, claiming larger standard deviation to be associated with 'weaker' consensus and conversely, smaller standard deviation demonstrating 'stronger' consensus. Zuboy (1980) deliberates that "the strength of the supporting statements had the most impact on narrowing the range of the estimates towards a consensus". Considering feasibility, the study was terminated when at least a moderate level of consensus (Brancheau and Wetherbe, 1987; Couger, 1988a, 1988b; Schmidt, 1997) was achieved.

"Overall response rate is one guide to the representativeness of the sample respondents. If a high response rate is achieved there is less chance of significant response bias than if a low rate is achieved" (Maxfield and Babbie, 1995, p. 227).

Review of literature reflects a wide range of response rates, and a variation in applying terminology's like "high" or "moderate" response rates (Gay, 1976; Maxfield and Babbie, 1995). "Even so, it's possible to state some rules of thumb", Maxfield and Babbie, 1995 writes, "about return rates. A response rate of at least 50 percent is adequate for analysis and reporting. A response rate of at least 60 percent is good. And a response rate of 70 percent is very good" (p. 227). On an average the response rate of the study was 96 percent; 100 percent response was received in Delphi Round I, with 94 percent participation in each of the two following Delphi Round II and Round III.

Analysis of Data

Following Andranovich's (1995, p.7) suggestion, each item on each of the returned questionnaires of Delphi Round I was considered separately. Each idea on each questionnaire was transferred to a 5 X 7 card. Then, all similar ideas were clustered. The cluster was then designated a name characterizing the idea it embodied.

The data were analyzed using basic descriptive statistics. To determine the degree of consensus among the experts, on the learning and performance needs of entry-level COs including areas of knowledge, skill, value and training needs in a pre-service training, ordinal level descriptive statistics were calculated to describe the mean and the standard deviation scores (Massey, 1993; Morgan and Knox, 1987; Walker and Selfe, 1996) of the criteria in the Delphi Round II and Delphi Round III probes.

The standard deviation was used (Couger, 1988; Brancheau and Wetherbe, 1987; White, 1991; Williams and Webb, 1994) as a measure of consensus, to express the degree of association which existed among the experts as a whole in Delphi Round III probes a, b, c, and d. The sum of all the votes was also reported along with the mode and median to highlight the status of consensus within the context of each question/response.

The data gathered in response to the questionnaires was analyzed by using the Microsoft Excel - a basic descriptive statistical program available for use of the social scientists.

Research Timeline

The entire Delphi process, from question development and testing to closure spanned more than a year. Completion of the literature review took about seven months.

The first questionnaire was mailed on May 10, 2000 to solicit nominations, and the fifth questionnaire or the last probe of the Delphi Round III response was received on November 9. Nominated individuals were requested to participate on July 10. A response affirming participation was due by July 26. The Delphi panelists were all e-mailed the Delphi Round I probe on August 1 with one exception. Based on feedback from some panel members preferring to correspond via the regular United States Postal Service (USPS), a copy of the hard copy of Delphi Round I was mailed via USPS on August 18. The due date was August 30. Delphi Round II was mailed out via USPS on September 3 with a response due date of September 20. The last and the final Delphi probe III was mailed via USPS on October 4, with a due date of October 17. Forty-seven out of the original 50 panel members (94%) responded in the final round by November 9. At each time responses to Delphi probe became due and a response was not received, a reminder requesting a response via e-mail was sent to the non-respondents. If that option was not available or it did not prompt a reply, telephone call was placed to the non-respondents; and upon contact, request for response was made. It took about a total two months to compile the data collected, conduct data analysis and to submit the final report.

Summary

Research design is the overall scheme or program (Keel, 1992). It encompasses the methods to be employed to collect and examine the data (Kerlinger, 1973). The determination of consensus ranking of learning and performance needs of entry level correctional officers was accomplished using a Delphi technique.

The Delphi employed four questionnaires to acquire suggested knowledge, skill, value, and training needs and then to vote on their importance. The questionnaire utilized in this study was a researcher-made survey instrument. The selection of this instrument over others was based on information gathered through a literature review, its suitability to the Delphi technique used and its capacity to obtain pertinent, quantifiable data from a large number of respondents in a relatively short period of time and at minimal expense. This approach allowed the use of ranking scales, and made possible the collection of quantifiable entry level COs knowledge, skill, value, and training needs data from a large number of selected/nominated respondents.

Shared items were reevaluated by the same panel members and reweighed. Such reexamination allowed for fine-tuning of ideas proposed by panel members until a consensus was reached. This approach paved the way for the use of Likert-type responses which made possible the statistical analysis of the huge volume of data brought forth by the study.

According to Maxfield and Babbie (1995), assumptions about the data and methods are almost never satisfied by real social research. As was employed in the study, the Delphi assembled value judgments from the experts. Because, “true value of a judgment, even a consensus judgment, cannot be validated statistically” (Dean, 1986), the study was restricted in its statistical authentication. Descriptive statistical analysis was utilized to ascertain the mean as well as the standard deviation of the experts' rank on each criterion explored in this study. Where appropriate, the median, mode and sum scores have also been reported.

The outcome of the Delphi technique is only a common consent of convictions. It is outside the limits of this type of exploration to ascertain truth from the available figures. Also,

data analysis in qualitative studies is an ongoing process. It does not occur only at the end of the study as is typical in most quantitative studies. The fact that the topic is explored in depth here is simply an artifact of the way human brain works. It is not possible to learn about everything all at once. So realize that analysis in qualitative studies designed within the ethnographic or phenomenological traditions is recursive; findings are generated and systematically built as successive pieces of data are gathered (Stainback & Stainback, 1988).

Since the reservoir of data gathered in the study is from representative correctional subject matter experts from across the nation, the consensus opinions have value and accomplish the objective of the study in identifying an inventory guideline (Delbecq, et al., 1975) of learning and performance needs of entry level correctional officers.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to identify the learning and performance needs of entry level correctional officers. This purpose was achieved through the refinement process of the consensus building Delphi research technique.

This chapter presents the responses to the research questions posed in Chapter I. Information categorizing the response data and comments, and analysis procedures are reported for each probe. Also included in the chapter are comments provided by a number of respondents. The presentation of findings and analysis of the data was compiled with the enumeration of each Delphi probe. The entry level Correctional Officer (CO) knowledge, skill, value, and training needs identified by the panel of experts are presented with a description of the identification process and ranking results. The final section presents the findings of the analysis of the third probe (Delphi Round III) where the above needs were rated and given a final priority rank.

Characteristics of Delphi Survey Respondents

Experts in the field of corrections/training/education participated in the study, from all the regions (cited in Keel, 1992): New England, Middle Atlantic, South Atlantic,

East South Central, West South Central, East North Central, West North Central, Mountain and Pacific. Participants from 26 states of the United States collaborated in this study to provide important information identifying the learning and performance needs of correctional officers. Table I depicts the states and regions represented.

In response to the Delphi Participation Form, 29 individuals claimed to be “expert” in the development of correctional training, 40 affirmed to have served as correctional consultants, 24 persons identified themselves as academicians with an expertise in corrections/criminal justice/correctional administration, 31 individuals stated they were recognized by a national or regional organization as knowledgeable in correctional training, 42 persons attested to have a professional interest in correctional training, and 40 individuals maintained that they made an active contribution to professionalize correctional training. Table II shows the background claimed by the Delphi panelists. Also see the same in Figure 1.

Panelists represented 26 states in the USA, 14 universities in the USA, 12 state departments of corrections, five sheriff’s departments, 11 state training institutes, departments, or commissions, one federal staff training academy, three private correctional corporations, one national association, one international association, one private correctional research organization, and two national correctional journals/magazines. Position titles of the respondents varied from assistant, or associate, to full professor, director of correctional programs, sentencing commissioner, branch director, curriculum/training specialists, state correctional system director and/or secretary, superintendent, warden, training director, and correctional professional

organization's leadership. Table III shows the breakdown of the varying organizational affiliations represented by the 50 Delphi panelists in the study.

TABLE I
REGIONS AND STATES REPRESENTED BY THE 50 DELPHI

PANELISTS		
West North Central	East North Central	Middle Atlantic
Missouri (2) Nebraska (1)	Illinois (1) Indiana (1) Michigan (1) Wisconsin (1)	New Jersey (1) New York (3)
Mountain	West South Central	Pacific
Colorado (1) Idaho (1) New Mexico (1) Utah (1)	Louisiana (1) Oklahoma (8) Texas (3)	California (1) Oregon (1) Washington (2)
East South Central	South Atlantic	New England
Kentucky (2) Mississippi (2) Tennessee (2)	Florida (2) Georgia (2) Maryland (6) Virginia (2)	Massachusetts (1)

Note. The numbers within parentheses are the number(s) of individual(s) from the states noted.

TABLE II
BACKGROUND OF THE 50 DELPHI PANELISTS

Category	Number	Percentage
Have Professional Interest in Correctional Training	42	84
Correctional Consultant	40	80
Contribute to Professionalize Correctional Training	40	80
Received Regional or National Recognition	31	62
“Expert” in the Development of Correctional Training	29	58
Academicians with an Expertise in Corrections/CJ	24	48

Note. The background cited is self-report. The “percentage” cited above is greater than 100. The percentage is based on the “number” of each category listed above and is in proportion to all the 50 Delphi panelists.

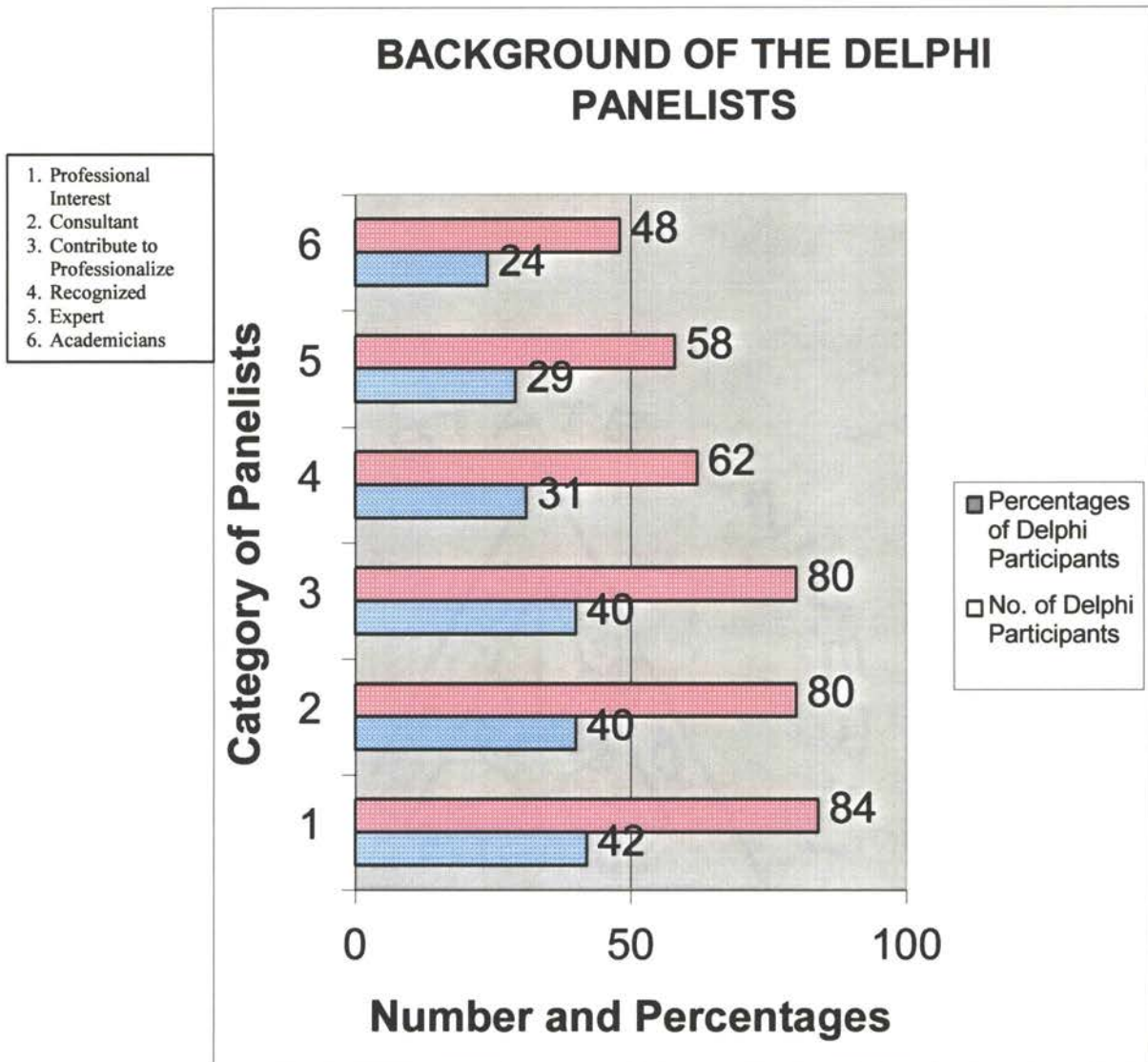


Figure 1. Background of the Delphi Panelists

TABLE III

BREAKDOWN OF THE VARYING CATEGORIES REPRESENTED
BY THE 50 DELPHI PANELISTS

States & Organizations	Number of Respondents	Percentage
US States	26	52
US Universities	14	28
State Department of Corrections	12	24
County Sheriff's Departments	05	10
State Training Institutes/Departments/Commissions	11	22
Federal Correctional Staff Training Academies	01	02
National Associations	01	02
International Associations (US based)	01	02
Private Correctional Corporations	03	06
Private Correctional Research Organizations	01	02
National Correctional Journals/Magazines	02	04

Note. The "percentage" cited above is greater than 100. The percentage is based on the number of respondents listed in each category.

Response Data

The first step in the study was to send the Questionnaire 1 - a letter (see Appendix A) to a total of 314 addresses belonging to organizations and individuals. Nomination for Delphi panelist was sought. A total of 116 separate recommendations was received. Based on the pre-set criteria the nominees were appraised. Anyone who did not receive more than one nomination was eliminated. Also anyone who did not meet the predetermined criteria was removed from further consideration. Ninety individuals receiving the most nominations and meeting the criteria of an "expert" were selected as potential participants and were asked to participate. A letter explaining the research endeavor and a Delphi Participation Form along with pre-addressed and stamped envelopes was sent to each of the selected experts. (See Appendix C). It was explained in the communication that there was no penalty to refuse participation, and that they were free to withdraw their consent and participation at any time after proper notification. Of the 90 individuals contacted, 50 completed and signed the Delphi Participation Form indicating agreement to voluntarily participate in the study.

Delphi Round I

Introduction of the Delphi Round I probe reiterated CO training as a major issue facing all prison, jail and correctional agencies. It pointed to the available research which reflect that COs are provided with training in varying degrees. The Delphi Round I sought expert opinion to identify the learning and performance needs of entry level COs.

The probe consisted of four open-ended questions. The first question in Delphi Round I was: 'What are the most important areas of knowledge for entry level

correctional officers?’ It listed examples such as knowledge of laws, policies, procedures, job content, current technology, and/or philosophy. The second question was: ‘What are the most important skills for entry level correctional officers?’ Examples given were skills in negotiating, communication; and/or leadership & management. The third question was: ‘What are the most important values for entry level correctional officers?’ Examples cited were respect for people; a sense of personal and professional self-worth; and/or personal honesty and integrity. The fourth questions was: ‘What are the most important training needs of entry level correctional officers?’ Examples included basic correctional officer training as a prerequisite, minimum content and training hours required, and a need for a standardized basic training courses.

Respondents telephone, e-mail and fax numbers were requested. The Delphi panelists were asked if the researcher could quote them in the study identifying learning and performance needs of entry-level correctional officers and in related publications.

With the intent of reducing mailing expenses and the anticipation of quicker responses, the Delphi Round I was administered to all the 50 participants via their e-mail addresses. An exception was made for a respondent who did not have access to e-mail. The Round I questionnaire was e-mailed on August 1, 2000. Three respondents informed via e-mail that they would prefer to respond via the regular United States Postal Service. Two individuals returned completed instrument via fax. Thirty-one individuals responded to Delphi Round I through their e-mail.

The remaining 17 individuals were mailed via the United States Postal Service the duplicates of the same questionnaire on August 18. Sixteen individuals responded to all four questions by the deadline of August 31. One person gathered findings of a previous

research in his state training academy and forwarded the same. The information seemed to be useful for this dissertation's Review of Literature section. However, because it did not conform to the questionnaire mailed out and because the content did not address all the questions in the questionnaire, it could not be utilized. A total of 50 persons or 100 % responded; usable responses were available from 49 individuals or 98 % of respondents.

Included in the mailed probe via the United States Postal Service was a pre-addressed stamped envelope to insure ease in responding. An attempt was made to contact the remaining one respondent by telephone to acquire a usable response. The respondent contacted by telephone did not respond in time to be considered for the second probe.

In the Delphi Round I probe, the 49 experts identified a total of 984 items related to entry level COs learning and performance needs. Incorporated in it were close to 270 separate items listed as pre-service training needs, 241 items for the most important areas of knowledge, 227 items for the most important skills, and 246 items for the most important values for entry level COs. All similar ideas were combined.

The reorganized clusters (Table IV, V, VI, VII) included all of the responses to Delphi Round I. Utilizing the ideas of the National Institute of Corrections (1992) in developing a "Competent Profile of Correctional Officer" the DACUM process to categorize multiple ideas, available information was grouped and condensed into 20 most important pre-service training needs, 38 most important areas of knowledge, 40 most important skills and 80 most important values. This principal inventory then became the set of questions for Delphi Round II.

Delphi Round II

The results of the Delphi Round I probe refined and consolidated the training, knowledge, skill and value needs of entry level COs. The information base for the set of questions in the Delphi Round II iteration were the condensed and categorized version of the Delphi Round I probe containing the 20 most important pre-service training needs, 38 most important areas of knowledge, 40 most important skills and 80 most important values.

The Delphi Round II probe and cover letter were sent on September 3, 2000 and it was requested that the experts complete and return the questionnaire by September 20. While the Delphi Round I was in progress, several panel members expressed the preference to receive and respond via the traditional route of the postal service. Though many panelists responded via e-mail and probably would have been comfortable communicating via e-mail, to maintain uniformity and to synchronize the distribution and receipt of questionnaires, the Delphi Round II instrument was mailed via United States Postal Service to all 50 panelists.

The Delphi Round II probe requested the expert panel members to rank the contents that had been selected in the first probe. According to Laird (1985), "Ordinal scales are more useful in measuring such 'invisible' elements as perceptions or values. Ordinal scales put items into a rank order. They tell who has more or less of something, or which values rank highest" (p.245).

The following 12 pages contain a synopsis of the items generated in the Delphi Round I. Entry level correctional officer pre-service training needs identified in Round I are listed in Table IV, knowledge needs are placed in Table V, skill needs are listed in

Table VI, and value needs are cited in Table VII.

The contents of all the following tables are randomly listed. The sum and substance of all the ensuing tables list items judged to be appropriate by the panelists for each category of needs being investigated. To retain the originality of the ideas shared by panel members, many of the items are listed word-by-word as referred to by the panelists. Some were categorized and sub-categorized (Pelletier, 1972; Pullen, 1996; Weatherman & Swenson, 1974), yet retaining true representation of the data received. Table IV contains a list of 20 pre-service training needs of COs. Table V comprises the 28 most important areas of knowledge needs, and Table VI is composed of 40 skill needs of entry level COs. The last table in this set of four tables, Table VII identifies the 80 Value Needs of COs. A further condensed version of similar ideas can be seen on Tables VIII, IX, X and XI.

TABLE IV

SYNOPSIS OF PRE-SERVICE TRAINING NEEDS
OF ENTRY LEVEL CORRECTIONALS OFFICERS IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I

1. Newly hired CO's should participate in ____ hours of Institutional Orientation prior to attending pre-service training.
2. Entry Level Correctional Officer (CO) basic training is essential/is a prerequisite for the new CO with a minimum of ____ week long or a minimum of ____ classroom hours.
3. Impart some sense of the stages of evolution that anyone goes through when entering a new and difficult career. The basic CO training needs to be long enough for the new officers to bond with each other, learn the organizational culture and feel part of the new organization.
4. Basic CO training should be comprehensive and sufficiently long enough to meet the requirements of the Standards for ACA Accreditation and to cover all the topics for a CO to do a good job.
5. Basic CO training should equate to state peace officer training and should impart a peace officer license.
6. Subject to annual review, all topics should be approved for subject and actual content by the SMEs in the organization and further reviewed by legal counsel. This needs to be documented with a copy of the current lesson plan, copy of all handouts or visuals, information on the instructor(s) and a brief justification of why each topic is taught and that it meets current guidelines.
7. Basic CO training content should be interactive and stimulating. Training must be clearly connected to job requirements applying examples of practical corrections work to training content.
8. Basic CO training delivery must employ principles of educational technology in designing lesson plans, audio/visual aids, computer based training, and training manuals. There should be classroom training, demonstrations, and guided practice.
9. Basic training should be provided using the principle and theories of adult learning to assist COs to learn in a creative, educationally sound, pleasant, and safe environment. Such training should also incorporate strong hands-on (skill demonstration) components.

TABLE IV (Continued)

SYNOPSIS OF PRE-SERVICE TRAINING NEEDS OF ENTRY LEVEL
CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I

10. All trainers need to be carefully screened and selected. Then they are to be provided with a ___ hour trainer certification program. Reliance on adjunct trainers should ___/should not ___ be at a minimum.
11. In such a pre-service training, trainers should be empathetic and apply reflective listening skills in providing feedback to a CO trainee in a non-threatening manner and showing ways to improve future performance. Trainee should be provided feedback on a daily ___/weekly ___/monthly ___ basis.
12. To ensure competency, upon completion of a basic training course, conduct at least a ___ hour on the job training (OJT) with a field training officer (FTO) back at the assigned institution. It should be completed prior to being assigned a post. This reality check needs to be tied to tours and periods of observation of the facilities where they will work and exposing them to the people they will work with and the conditions they will work under.
13. All COs must be evaluated for appropriateness for the position and training. Each new officer needs to go through a thorough physical/mental fitness test and evaluation at the beginning of the academy.
14. All COs must meet all the same basic objectives determined through a job task analysis. An understanding of much of what the officer does is driven by legal requirements and and understanding that there can be serious legal repercussions should errors be made in these key areas.
15. The trainee should at least have a GED ___/Some ___ College Credit Hours/Associates Degree ___/Bachelors ___/Masters Degree ___ .
16. A pre-service training course for CO's needs to be designed to meet the educational level of its students.
17. Curricula, lesson plans, quality of instructors, physical environment, and equipment should be properly assessed in determining a quality program of training. Basic CO training should be based on CO occupational job analysis devised by a diverse curriculum and design team.

TABLE IV (Continued)

**SYNOPSIS OF PRE-SERVICE TRAINING NEEDS OF ENTRY LEVEL
CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I**

-
18. Train COs in the specific skills an officer needs. This includes both general training, and training that is specific to agency or institution policies and procedures.
19. CO training should address:
- Physical/Medical fitness- to rise to the needs of the job;
 - Educational fitness – to communicate and to make reports;
 - Emotional/Mental fitness – to stand the stresses of the job;
 - Attitudinal fitness – to show a proper attitude to their charges, colleagues and to the institution. The importance of using verbal tools and skills over physical force as the proper way of dealing with most situations.
20. Monitor the outcomes of pre-service training. Determine whether or not it meets the needs of the potential officers. Is the officer able to perform the duties of the position? Is the supervisor satisfied with the ability of the officer to perform the duties?
-

TABLE V

**SYNOPSIS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF KNOWLEDGE FOR
ENTRY LEVEL CORRECTIONAL OFFICER IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I**

-
1. Interpersonal Relations/Communication to include crisis intervention, conflict resolution, etc.
 2. Knowledge of Defensive Tactics/Use of Force/Restraints and other issues dealing with care, custody and confinement of prisoners/inmates/offenders.
 3. Knowledge of Security Procedures/Offender Classification/Offender Disciplinary Process.
 4. Job Requirement/Expectations of the Job: Role in the Agency
 5. Constitutional/Statutory Laws, Correctional Policies, Procedures, Practices based on Post Orders and other specific expectations for Jobs and Tasks the officer will encounter.
 6. Awareness of the environment of a prison and the potentiality of being set up. Areas of vulnerability for COs; an understanding of boundary and the proper role and relation between officer and inmate/offender.
 7. Knowledge of Abnormal Psychology, Criminal Thinking, and Anti-Social Personality; an understanding of Human Development and Behavior including the knowledge of how people respond to stressful situations and Stress Management. The impact of incarceration on offenders and staff.
 8. Knowledge that everyone deserves to be treated with dignity and respect, to include all staff/employees and inmates/offenders.
 9. Knowledge of appropriate Sentencing Structures, and Municipal, County, State and Federal guidelines concerning the supervision of prisoners.
 10. Basic understanding of the psychology of personality types, as well as some insight into their own preferred work-style and awareness of own strengths and weaknesses.
 11. Knowledge of the Rights and Responsibilities of offenders/inmates.
 12. Knowledge of the Criminal Justice System, including sentencing and organizational theories.
 13. Knowledge of Use of Force philosophy, policies and procedures.

TABLE V (Continued)

SYNOPSIS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF KNOWLEDGE
FOR ENTRY-LEVEL CORRECTIONAL OFFICER IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I

14. Understanding of correctional philosophy, agency vision, mission, strategic plan, purposes and goals.
15. Ethnic/cultural/social/religious differences; the importance and advantages of workplace diversity.
16. Knowledge of assigned Post, Basic Security Practices including Knowledge of Equipment and Tools; Weapons, Counts, Tool control, Searches, Escapes, Alarms, Fire, Riots, Key Control, and Contraband Control.
17. Ethics/Morality/Values and Professionalism.
18. Correctional/Departmental History and Culture.
19. Knowledge of Employee/Staff Rules; Rights, Regulations and Responsibilities.
20. Knowledge of ACA standards and other Jail & Prison Management issues.
21. Career Development and Retirement Planning. Benefits and opportunities of their position.
22. Knowledge of Offender Types, Patterns, Mental make-up and their strengths and weaknesses as a human being.
23. Knowledge of relevant technology/computer/hardware/software.
24. Drug Identification.
25. Chain of Command: what it means and how it works.
26. Restorative Practices.
27. Understanding Facility Operations and how it fits the Criminal Justice System (CJS)
28. Report Writing, consistency and proper format.
29. Suicide Prevention and Deaths in Correctional Institutions.
30. First Aid/CPR.
31. Knowledge of Inmate Behavior/Culture/Supervision/Management
32. Group dynamics, Leadership and Interpersonal Interaction.
33. Knowledge of Teamwork.

TABLE V (Continued)

**SYNOPSIS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF KNOWLEDGE
FOR ENTRY-LEVEL CORRECTIONAL OFFICER IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I**

34. Knowledge of Available Training and what they are expected to accomplish.
 35. Knowledge of law & policies on Harassment, Discrimination and Workplace issues such as Privacy, People with Disabilities, and Violence in the Workplace.
 36. Knowledge of Daily Procedures, Logging/Recording and Officer Survival/Self Defense.
Knowledge of Facility Manuals regarding CO Dress Code, Employee Conduct Standard
 37. Discipline, Salary Structure, Promotion Rules, Insurance & Benefits, and Personnel policies and procedures.
 38. Knowledge of relationship between resources and individual needs.
-

TABLE VI

MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF SKILLS FOR ENTRY-LEVEL CORRECTIONAL
OFFICER IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I

-
1. Communication: verbal and non-verbal; especially interpersonal.
 2. Leadership.
 3. Role Modeling/Mentoring and Supervision (Lead/Direct).
 4. Problem Solving/Negotiation/Arbitration/Mediation. Conflict Resolution/Violence de-escalation/Crisis intervention.
 5. Ability to understand and work well with various cultures, contexts, and situations.
 6. Capacity to make decisions based on facts of the situation along with skills to weigh conflicting values.
 7. Ability to listen, learn and follow directions/orders.
 8. Writing Skills.
 9. Technical skills: restraints, firearms, weapons retention, OC spray/chemical agents application, key control and searches of various types.
 10. Awareness of the environment.
 11. Supervision skills centered on safety and security issues.
 12. Physical training skills, such as self-defense/defensive tactics/prisoner control and non-violent intervention.
 13. Skills to handle individuals with special needs, including mentally ill offenders.
 14. People Skills; skills to get along with supervisors and coworkers.
 15. Effective time management skills.
 16. Skills to deal with situations when and where have little or no control.
 17. Crisis Intervention/First responder skills -administering CPR & First Aid.
 18. Basic Computer usage skills.
 19. Analytical and Management skills.
 20. Ability to display concerns for others and Motivational Skills.
 21. Community and Public Relations skills.
 22. Team Building.
 23. Observation skills.

TABLE VI (Continued)

MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF SKILLS FOR ENTRY LEVEL CORRECTIONAL
OFFICER IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I

-
24. Proper use of Authority/Skills in dealing with power in a reasonable manner.
 25. Communication with co-workers and inmates/offenders/"verbal judo".
 26. Presentation/Skills to testify in a court of law.
 27. Communication with non-English speaker or hearing/sight impaired.
 28. Mental conditioning and Survival tactics.
 29. Human Relations: Ability to create relationship, win the trust of their charges and the ability to influence them in a positive way.
 30. Responsible Decision making/Judgement and Deception detection skills.
 31. Offender movement/Escort Techniques.
 32. Group dynamics: advising inmates in groups and individually.
 33. Skills to use lawful rewards and punishments (Behavior Modification).
 34. Fairheadedness/Level-headed: skills to deal with potential & real grudges.
 35. Driving Skills: Defensive and Evasive driving.
 36. Demonstrating Calmness/Self-control/Anger Management both of selves and others.
 37. Creative questioning of self and others.
 38. Supportive group behavior/Political Skills.
 39. Vigilance to duty and responsibility.
 40. Skills to inventory and operate equipment and tools.
-

TABLE VII

SYNOPSIS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF VALUES
FOR ENTRY-LEVEL CORRECTIONAL OFFICER IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I

1. Honesty
2. Courage
3. Integrity and concern for the good.
4. Empathy and having the desire to understand other's perspective.
5. Trustworthiness.
6. Dependability.
7. Accountability.
8. Desire to help others.
9. Compassion.
10. Commitment.
11. Responsibility.
12. Willingness to do what is right over what is expedient.
13. Avoid malfeasance of duty.
14. Respect for life/self and others.
15. Open mindedness.
16. Sense of Justice.
17. Loyalty (but not blind) to the organization and co-workers; being loyal to the law, departmental practices and procedures.
18. Mentoring.
19. Desire to work with others.
20. Sense of humor.
21. Flexibility and need for multiple perspectives and solutions.
22. Courtesy.
23. Self-directed/Self motivated.
24. Emotionally stable.
25. Consistency.
26. Optimism.

TABLE VII (Continued)

SYNOPSIS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF VALUES
FOR ENTRY-LEVEL CORRECTIONAL OFFICER IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I

27. Punctuality.
28. Sincere
29. Adaptable/change oriented.
30. Cooperative.
31. Perceptive.
32. Analytical.
33. Credible.
34. Assertive.
35. Neat personal appearance.
36. Value of what is right over what is legal.
37. Pride in oneself and the job.
38. Respectful.
39. Leader.
40. Self-restrained.
41. Value Human Dignity.
42. Equal treatment of People.
43. Fairness.
44. Firmness.
45. Sense of personal and professional self-worth.
46. Understanding of the value and importance of diversity.
47. Understanding the intrinsic value of all people.
48. Holding selves to high standards.
49. Belief the human beings can change/reform and knowing the value of helping inmates/offenders adjust.
50. Development of healthy, supportive relationships among staff and organization responsiveness to staff needs.

TABLE VII (Continued)

**MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF VALUES FOR ENTRY-LEVEL CORRECTIONAL
OFFICER IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I**

51. Striving for Excellence in personal leadership, judgement & professional actions.
52. Loyalty to Principles and Values.
53. Active participation in the development & accomplishment of organizational objectives.
54. Sense of fair play/advocate for inmates depending on the circumstance(s).
55. Honest communication with inmate/offender families.
56. Belief in human worthiness.
57. Mutual responsibility for maintaining safe and secure facilities and for modeling societies mainstream values.
58. Enthusiasm.
59. Comfortableness with chaotic situations.
60. Being a "stand-up" person.
61. An understanding of power in order to avoid abuse of this power.
62. Strong morals and high ethical standards.
63. Promotion of physically and emotionally sound environment.
64. Respect for Laws and Due Process.
65. Belief that Correctional Security is a worthy public profession.
66. Ensure high standards of safety, security, sanitation and discipline.
67. Authenticity.
68. Confidence and application of proper authority.
69. Love of life and laughter.
70. Positive outlook.
71. Having the perspective of Career vs Job, and Profession vs Occupation.
72. Humanity.
73. Understanding and implementation of Code of Conduct.
74. Desire to learn.
75. Avoidance of favoritism.

TABLE VII (Continued)

MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF VALUES FOR ENTRY-LEVEL CORRECTIONAL
OFFICER IDENTIFIED IN DELPHI ROUND I

-
76. Team player- support peers/supervisors/command.
 77. Giving importance to keeping word and not making false promises.
 78. Willing to work for more than money.
 79. Value Community Involvement.
 80. Value of what is right over legal.
-

Considering the applicable perspective being investigated, the requisite ranking of questions 1 through 10 in Delphi Round II a, 1 through 18 in Delphi Round II b, 1 through 20 in Delphi Round II c, and 1 through 40 in Delphi Round II d, scales was germane (Selltiz, et al., 1976). “Within limits, the reliability of a scale increases as the number of possible alternative responses is increased” (*Ibid*, p. 419). This was also aimed at reducing the possibility of “bias or limitations” correlated with the Likert-type survey (Rosmait, 1996). A copy of the Delphi Round II probes (a, b, c and d) can be seen in Appendix F.

The raw score provided by the participants of Delphi Round I was used to take advantage of the Excel data-base where the rudimentary responses were stored. The capacity of Excel and the convenience of enumerating the mean and standard deviation from the raw data without losing its meaning was taken into account in tallying such a manner. It was assured that the data would be scored consistently in terms of the attitudinal direction the respondents indicated (Selltiz, et al., 1976). “From the strict viewpoint of the transfer of data from the questionnaire to a computer record”, Warde (1990) wrote, “there is really no problem since one loses no information” (p. 223).

The above mentioned Excel program provided the researcher with basic descriptive statistics. The program also provided the mean and standard deviation. Such *measures of central tendency* “average” or “typical” (Shavelson, 1988) score value in the distribution, and *variability* – the standard deviation: an average variability of scores in the distribution measured in units of the original scores (*ibid*, 1988).

Brooks (1974), Godsey (1992), Massey (1993), Villaquiran (1997), White (1991) employed such measures of central tendency and variability for each items listed,

based on the assigned ranking scores selected by the panel members. Panelists were asked to review the lists which consisted of 20 pre-service *training needs*, 38 knowledge needs, 40 skills needs and 80 values needs of entry level COs identified in the first probe.

Each was a topic that one of the panel members felt should be addressed. The topics were not listed in any particular order. The panelists were asked to indicate the 10 of the 20 most important pre-service training needs, 19 of 38 the most important knowledge needs, 20 out of the 40 most important skill needs and 40 of the 80 most important value needs out of the listed items by first using a check (3) mark in making a selection and then appropriately ranking the items selected by using the numerals 1 through 10, 1 through 19, 1 through 20, and 1 through 40. It was specified that the panelists regard “1” as the most important, “2” as the second most important and so forth.

The highest hierarchical number corresponding with the lowest rank for the particular category scored was to be selected as the least important. Likewise the lowest hierarchical number with the corresponding highest rank was to be regarded as the most important. Respondents were encouraged to add topics or make any comment; space was provided at the bottom of the instrument for that purpose. The suggestion to insert appropriate choice(s) when a particular question called for it was also made.

The Tables VIII, IX, X and XI in the following pages detail all the ranked knowledge, skills, values and training needs items. Table VIII contains rank ordered knowledge needs identified by the Delphi panelists in Round II. With a mean score of 4.6 “knowledge of interpersonal relations/communication to include crisis intervention, conflict resolution, etc.” was the best choice of the panelists. This was followed by

“knowledge of security procedures/offender classification/offender disciplinary process” with a mean score of 6.9.

The following four choices had a range of mean scores from 7.21 to 7.98. The selections were “knowledge of job requirement/expectations of the job: COs role in the agency, comprehension of the profession's vision and mission, along with an understanding of correctional philosophy and the criminal justice system”, “knowledge of defensive tactics/officer survival/use of force/self defense/restraints and other issues dealing with care, custody and confinement of prisoners/inmates/offenders in accordance with the policies and procedures and with philosophical clarity”, “knowledge that everyone deserves to be treated with dignity and respect, to include all staff / employees and inmates / offenders including, but not limited to, knowledge of law & policies on harassment, discrimination and workplace issues such as privacy, people with disabilities, and violence in the workplace” and “knowledge of assigned post, & daily procedures: accurately logging/recording; basic security practices, including knowledge of equipment and tools; weapons, counts, tool control, searches, escapes, alarms, fire, riots, key control, and contraband control”.

The next three choices ranged from 8.1 to 8.8. The selections were “knowledge of constitutional/statutory laws, correctional policies, procedures, practices based on post orders and other specific expectations for jobs and tasks the officer will encounter which should be complemented by knowledge of rights & responsibilities of offenders/inmates”, “knowledge of the environment of a prison/jail/correctional facility and the potentiality of being set up. Areas of vulnerability for COs; an understanding of

boundary and the proper role and relation between officer and inmate/offender”, and “knowledge of ethics/ morality/values and professionalism”. The remaining 10 selections received a mean score of 10 or greater. Those and the above are listed in rank order in the following Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

DELPHI ROUND IIa
 MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF KNOWLEDGE FOR ENTRY LEVEL
 COs RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Knowledge Needs Rank Order

Statements /Mean Scores/ Standard Deviation/Number of Votes

- 1). Knowledge of Interpersonal Relations/Communication to include crisis intervention, conflict resolution, etc.
 4.6 / 4.2/ 45

- 1) Knowledge of Security Procedures/Offender Classification/Offender Disciplinary process.
 6.9 / 4.6 /42

- 3). Knowledge of Job Requirement/Expectations of the Job: CO's Role in the Agency, comprehension of the profession's vision and mission, along with an understanding of correctional philosophy and the Criminal Justice System.
 7.21 / 5.0/ 28

- 4). Knowledge of Defensive Tactics/Officer Survival/Use of Force/Self Defense/Restraints and other issues dealing with care, custody and confinement of prisoners/inmates/offenders in accordance with the policies and procedures and with philosophical clarity.
 7.43 / 4.9 / 39

- 5). Knowledge that everyone deserves to be treated with dignity and respect, to include all staff/employees and inmates/offenders including, but not limited to, knowledge law and policies on harassment, discrimination and workplace issues such as privacy, people with disabilities, and violence in the workplace.
 7.4 / 6.1 /29

TABLE VIII (Continued)

DELPHI ROUND IIa
MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF KNOWLEDGE FOR ENTRY LEVEL COs
RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Knowledge Needs Rank Order

Statements/Mean Scores/ Standard Deviation/ Number of Votes

- 6). Knowledge of assigned Post, & Daily Procedures: Accurately logging/recording; Basic Security Practices, including Knowledge of Equipment and Tools; Weapons, Counts, Tool control, Searches, Escapes, Alarms, Fire, Riots, Key Control, and Contraband Control.
7.98 / 6.6 / 38
- 7). Knowledge of Constitutional/Statutory Laws, Correctional Policies, Procedures, Practices based on Post Orders and other specific expectations for Jobs and Tasks the officer will encounter which should be complemented by knowledge of Rights & Responsibilities of Offenders/Inmates.
8.1 / 5.2 / 31
- 8). Knowledge of the environment of a prison/jail/correctional facility and the potentiality of being set up. Areas of vulnerability for COs; an understanding of boundary and the proper role and relation between officer and inmate/offender.
8.8 / 5.1 / 36
- 9). Knowledge of Ethics/ Morality/Values and Professionalism.
8.8 / 5.3 / 34
- 10). Knowledge of Employee/Staff Rules, Rights, Regulations and Responsibilities.
10.2 / 5.3 / 30
- 11). Knowledge of Inmate Behavior/Culture/Supervision/Management.
10.2 / 4.9 / 25

TABLE VIII (continued)

DELPHI ROUND IIa

Knowledge Needs Rank Order

Statements / Mean Scores/ Standard Deviation/ Number of Votes
12). Knowledge of First Aid/Cardio Pulmonary Resuscitation (CPR) 10.4 / 4.5/ 32
13). Knowledge of Suicide Prevention and Deaths in Correctional Institutions 10.54 / 5.0/ 25
14). Knowledge of Offender Types, Patterns, Mental make-up, Abnormal psychology and understanding of human development. 10.6 / 4.9/ 15
15). Correctional/Departmental History and Culture. 10.9 / 3.9/ 7
16). Knowledge of Leadership. 10.9 / 3.8/ 10
17). Knowledge of ACA standards and other Jail/Prison/Correctional facilities Management issues. 10.9 / 4.9/ 9
18). Knowledge of the psychology of personality types, insight into own preferred work-style and awareness of strength and weaknesses. 11.1 / 5.7/ 18
19). Knowledge of writing accurate & timely reports maintaining consistency and proper format. 11.1 / 5.8/ 35

Table IX contains rank ordered skill needs identified by the Delphi panelists in Round II. Clearly the number one choice of skill needs of CO, with a mean of 3.5, was “communication skills: verbal and non-verbal; especially interpersonal”. This choice was distant from the others. This area was followed by three skill areas “conflict resolution/violence de-escalation/crisis intervention” which scored 6.4, “problem solving/negotiation/arbitration/mediation” with a score of 7.2, followed by “people skills; skills to get along with supervisors and co-workers” which received a mean score of 7.9. Then there were another four skill areas under a mean score of 10, such as the “ability to understand and work well with various cultures, contexts, and situations”, “observation skills”, “ability to listen, learn and follow directions/orders”, and “leadership, role modeling/mentoring and supervision (lead/direct)”.

The following ten skill areas scored a mean of 10 through 10.8. The areas are “skills to deal with situations when & where COs have little or no control”, “demonstrating calmness/self-control/anger management both of selves and others”, “fair-headedness /level-headed: skills to deal with potential and real grudges”, “awareness of the environment”, “capacity to make decisions based on facts of the situation along with skills to weigh conflicting values”, “vigilance to duty and responsibility”, “crisis intervention/first responder skills - administering CPR & First Aid”, “responsible decision making/judgement and deception detection skills”, “human relations: ability to create relationship, win the trust of their charges and the ability to influence them in a positive way”, and “creative questioning of self and others”. The remaining choices scored a mean greater than 11. All the ranked skill needs of CO are listed in Table IX.

TABLE IX

DELPHI ROUND IIb
MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF SKILLS FOR ENTRY LEVEL COs
RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Skill Needs Rank Order

Statements/ Mean score/ Standard Deviation/ Number of Votes

1. Communication Skills: verbal and non-verbal; especially interpersonal.
3.5 / 4.6/ 44
2. Conflict Resolution/Violence de-escalation/Crisis intervention.
6.4 / 4.3/ 40
3. Problem Solving/Negotiation/Arbitration/Mediation.
7.2 / 4.7/ 35
4. People Skills; skills to get along with supervisors and co-workers.
7.9 / 5.0/ 32
5. Ability to understand and work well with various cultures, contexts, and situations.
8.5 / 4.7/ 34
6. Observation Skills.
8.6/ 5.6/ 34
7. Ability to listen, learn and follow directions/orders.
8.7 / 5.6/ 42
8. Leadership, Role Modeling/Mentoring and Supervision (Lead/Direct).
9.5 / 6.5/ 27

TABLE IX, (Continued)

DELPHI ROUND IIb
 MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF SKILLS FOR ENTRY-LEVEL
 COs RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Skill Needs Rank Order

Statement/Mean Score/Standard Deviation/Number of Votes

- | | | |
|-----|---|----------------|
| 9. | Skills to deal with situations when & where CO's have little or no control. | 10.0/ 4.8/ 23 |
| 10. | Demonstrating Calmness/Self-control/Anger Management both of selves and others. | 10.0/ 4.8/ 34 |
| 11. | Fairheadedness/Level-headed: skills to deal with potential & real grudges. | 10.1/ 5.6/ 20 |
| 12. | Awareness of the environment. | 10.2/ 4.8/ 28 |
| 13. | Capacity to make decisions based on facts of the situation along with skills to weigh conflicting values. | 10.5 / 4.5/ 27 |
| 14. | Vigilance to duty and responsibility. | 10.5 / 6.2/ 32 |
| 15. | Crisis Intervention/First responder skills -administering CPR & First Aid. | 10.5 / 5.7/ 39 |

TABLE IX (Continued)

DELPHI ROUND II b
 MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF SKILLS FOR ENTRY-LEVEL
 COs RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Skill Needs Rank Order

Statement/Mean Score/Standard Deviation/Number of Votes

16. Responsible Decision making/Judgement and Deception detection skills.
 10.6 / 4.4/ 28
17. Human Relations: Ability to create relationship, win the trust of their charges and the ability to influence them in a positive way.
 10.7 / 5.4/ 34
18. Creative questioning of self and others.
 10.8 / 4.9/ 28
19. Physical Training Skills, such as self-defense/defensive tactics/prisoner control and non-violent intervention.
 11.0 / 5.4/ 29
20. Writing Skills.
 11.3 / 4.9/ 41

Additional recommendations by a Delphi panel member:

- a. Skills and ability to deal with an offender of the opposite sex.
 - b. Ability to understand the behavior of a mentally disturbed inmate/offender, and the consequences of his behavior.
-

Table X contains the value needs of COs in rank order. With a mean score of only 4.3 and 41 panelists voting for "honesty" was by far the number one choice of the

panelists. With mean scores of 7.1 and 7.8 respectively, the next two picks were “integrity and concern for the good” and “value of what is right over what is legal or expedient”. “Trustworthiness” scored a mean of 10.2, followed by “credibility & truthfulness: keeping word & not making false promises”, which scored 12.5, closely followed by fairness, respect for laws and due process” with a score of 12.6. “Dependability” and “responsibility” followed with scores of 13.1 and 13.9 respectively. The next two choices were very close to each other with “courage” receiving a mean score of 14.3 and “value human dignity/respect for life: self and (diverse) others” scoring 14.4.

The next three selections ranged between 15.3 and 15.9. The choices were “professionalism: striving for excellence in personal leadership, judgement & professional actions”, “commitment”, and “accountability”. Then there were five areas under a mean of 17, which were “loyalty (but not blind) to the organization and co-workers; being loyal to the law, departmental practices and procedures”, “cooperative / helpful”, “emotional stability”, “flexibility with multiple perspectives for solutions”, and “firmness”. Within the mean scores of 17.2 and 17.9 there were four more selections, such as “mutual responsibilities for maintaining safe and secure facilities and for modeling societies mainstream values”, “empathy and having the desire to understand other's perspective”, “compassion” and “confidence and application of proper authority with an understanding of power: its use and misuse”. The next four choices received a mean score of greater than 18, and the remaining nine areas scored between 19.15 to 20.2.

TABLE X

DELPHI ROUND IIc
 MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF VALUES FOR ENTRY LEVEL COs
 RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Value Needs Rank Order

Statements/Mean score/ Standard Deviation/ Number of Votes

1. Honesty.
4.3 / 5.9/ 41
2. Integrity and concern for the good.
7.1 / 8.8/ 35
3. Value of what is right over what is legal or expedient.
7.8 / 9.8/ 33
4. Trustworthiness.
10.2 / 9.8/ 36
5. Credibility & truthfulness: keeping word & not making false promises.
12.5/ 12.7/ 36
6. Fairness, respect for laws and due process
12.6/ 11.4/ 36
7. Dependability.
13.1 / 9.1/ 40
8. Responsibility.
13.9 / 12.2/ 34
9. Courage.
14.3 / 13.1/ 23

TABLE X (Continued)

DELPHI ROUND IIc
 MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF VALUES FOR ENTRY-LEVEL COs
 RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Value Needs Rank Order

Statements/Mean Score/Standard Deviation/Number of Votes

10. Value Human Dignity/Respect for life: self and (diverse) others.
 14.4 / 10.2/ 38
11. Professionalism: Striving for excellence in personal leadership, judgement and professional actions.
 15.3 / 12.5/ 34
12. Commitment.
 15.4 / 9.7/
13. Accountability.
 15.9 / 9.9/ 35
14. Loyalty (but not blind) to the organization and co-workers; being loyal to the law, departmental practices and procedures.
 16.0 / 9.7/ 29
15. Cooperative/Helpful.
 16.0 / 9.9/ 23
16. Emotional stability.
 16.4 / 10.0/ 35
17. Flexibility with multiple perspectives for solutions.
 16.8 / 10.9/ 31

TABLE X (Continued)

DELPHI ROUND IIc
 MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF VALUES FOR ENTRY-LEVEL COs
 RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Value Needs Rank Order

Statements/Mean Score/Standard Deviation/Number of Votes

18. Firmness.

16.8 / 11.6 / 29

19. Mutual responsibilities for maintaining safe and secure facilities and for modeling societies mainstream values.

17.2 / 8.3 / 21

20. Empathy and having the desire to understand other's perspective.

17.8 / 10.5 / 32

21. Compassion.

17.9 / 10.3 / 23

22. Confidence and application of proper authority with an understanding of power: its use and misuse.

17.9 / 10.9 / 21

23. Optimism/Positive Outlook.

18.3 / 11.3 / 34

24. Consistency.

18.5 / 9.7 / 30

25. Assertiveness.

18.7 / 11.7 / 20

26. Strong morals and high ethical standards.

18.8 / 9.9 / 32

TABLE X (Continued)

DELPHI ROUND IIc
 MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF VALUES FOR ENTRY-LEVEL COs
 RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Value Needs Rank Order

Statements/Mean Score/Standard Deviation/Number of Votes

27. Sense of Justice.

19.15/ 11.9/ 17

28. Open-mindedness.

19.18 / 8.5/ 19

29. Holding selves to high standards.

19.4/ 11.9/ 25

30. Sense of humor.

19.5 / 12.1/ 30

31. Sense of personal and professional self-worth.

19.5 / 10.4/ 21

32. Belief that human beings can change/reform and knowing the value of helping inmates/offenders adjust.

19.5 / 10.4/ 22

33. Pride in oneself and the job.

19.8 / 11.2/ 30

34. Desire to work with others/Teamwork.

20.0 / 11.9/ 32

35. Cleanliness/Neatness.

20.2 / 12.3/ 2

Training needs of entry level COs are listed in rank order in Table XI. The top choices with a mean of 3.4 and 3.9 respectively were “basic CO training should be comprehensive and sufficient length to cover at a minimum those topics required by ACA standards” and that “entry level correctional officer (CO) basic training is essential/is a prerequisite for the new CO”. The panelists also selected a minimum number of weeks or classroom hours they felt were appropriate.

The following four choices ranged quite close to each other with mean scores of 3.9 through 4.9. The selections were “a pre-service training course for CO's needs to be designed to meet the educational level of its students. It should be provided using the principles of adult learning and components of hands-on (skill demonstration). Trainees should be regularly provided feedback”, “All trainers need to be carefully screened and selected”. The panelists chose number of hours, they felt were appropriate for a trainer certification program. The panelists also voted for reliance or non-reliance on adjunct trainers.

The next area gave the panelists the opportunity to vote for the number of hours they believed a CO should participate in institutional orientation prior to attending pre-service training. Selection was made on the number of hours an entry level CO should participate in on-the-job training upon completion of pre-service training.

The last decision within the range of choices scoring up to 4.9 was that “training should be clearly connected to job requirements applying examples of practical corrections work to training-content. Subject to annual review, all topics should be approved for subject and actual content by the subject-matter-experts (SME's) in the organization and further reviewed by legal counsel. This needs to be documented with a

copy of the current lesson plan, copy of all handouts or visuals, information on the instructor(s) and a brief justification on why each topic is taught and that it meets current guidelines. Monitor the outcome of training to determine if it meets the need(s)".

All the following four areas scored a mean of greater than 5, ranging from 5.1 to 5.5. The nominated items were "train COs in the specific skills an officer needs determined through a Job Task Analysis and in compliance with the law. This includes both general training, and training that is specific to agency or institution policies and procedures", "CO training should address: physical/medical fitness- to rise to the needs of the job; educational fitness – to communicate and to make reports; emotional/mental fitness – to stand the stresses of the job; attitudinal fitness – to show proper attitude to their charges, colleagues and to the institution. The importance of using verbal tools and skills over physical force as the proper way of dealing with most situation", "curricula, lesson plans, quality of instructors, physical environment, and equipment should be properly assessed in determining a quality program of training. Basic CO training should be based on CO occupational job analysis devised by a diverse curriculum and design team's need(s) assessment", and the last, but also voted "highly relevant" by all the participating panelists, was the choice that entry level CO trainee should at least have a secondary education. All the selections are rank ordered and can be seen in Table XI that follows.

TABLE XI

DELPHI ROUND II
 MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF TRAINING FOR ENTRY LEVEL COs
 RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Training Needs Rank Order

Statements/Mean Scores/Standard Deviation/Number of Votes

- 1). Basic CO training should be comprehensive and sufficient length to cover at a minimum those topics required by ACA standards.

3.4 / 2.5/ 21

- 2). Entry Level Correctional Officer (CO) basic training is essential/is a prerequisite for the new CO with a minimum of (please circle or insert, as appropriate) 3/ 4/ 5/ 6/ 7/ 8/ 10/ 12 weeks long or a minimum of 120/ 160/ 200/ 240/ 280/ 320/ 400/ 480/ 560/ classroom hours.

3.9 / 3.0/ 31

- 3). A pre-service training course for CO's needs to be designed to meet the educational level of its students. It should be provided using the principles of adult learning and components of hands-on (skill demonstration). Trainees should be regularly provided feedback.

4.5 / 3.3/ 24

- 4). All trainers need to be carefully screened and selected. Then they are to be provided with a (please circle or insert: as appropriate) 8/ 30/ 40/ 80/ hour trainer certification program. Reliance on adjunct trainer's should /should not be at a minimum.

4.6 / 2.6/ 31

- 5). Newly hired COs should participate in (please circle or insert: as appropriate) 3/ 8/ 20/ 24/ 32/ 40/ 80 hours of Institutional Orientation prior to attending pre-service training. Upon completion of training the CO should participate in at least 20 24/ 80/ 200/ 240/ hours of on-the-job training (OJT).

4.8 / 3.5/ 23

TABLE XI (Continued)

DELPHI ROUND II
 MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF TRAINING FOR ENTRY-LEVEL COs
 RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Training Needs Rank Order

Statements/ Mean Scores/ Standard Deviation/ Number of Votes

- 6). Training should be clearly connected to job requirements applying examples of practical corrections work to training-content. Subject to annual review, all topics should be approved for subject and actual content by the Subject-Matter-Experts (SME's) in the organization and further reviewed by legal counsel. This needs to be documented with a copy of the current lesson plan, copy of all handouts or visuals, information on the instructor(s) and a brief justification on why each topic is taught and that it meets current guidelines. Monitor the outcome of training to determine if it meets the need(s).

4.9 / 2.7/ 22

- 7). Train COs in the specific skills an officer needs determined through a Job Task Analysis and in compliance with the law. This includes both general training, and training that is specific to agency or institution policies and procedures.

5.1 / 2.5/ 28

- 8). CO training should address:

Physical/Medical fitness- to rise to the needs of the job; Educational fitness to-communicate and to make reports;

Emotional/Mental fitness – to stand the stresses of the job.

Attitudinal fitness – to show proper attitude to their charges, colleagues and to the institution. The importance of using verbal tools and skills over physical force as the proper way of dealing with most situation

5.4 / 2.5/ 29

- 9). Curricula, lesson plans, quality of instructors, physical environment, and equipment should be properly assessed in determining a quality program of training. Basic CO training should be based on CO occupational job analysis devised by a diverse curriculum and design team's need(s) assessment.

1.4 / 2.5/ 29

TABLE XI (continued)

DELPHI ROUND II
 MOST IMPORTANT AREAS OF TRAINING FOR ENTRY-LEVEL COs
 RANKED IN DELPHI ROUND II

Training Needs Rank Order

Statements/ Mean Scores/ Standard Deviation / Number of Votes

- 10). The trainee should at least have a (please circle or insert: as appropriate)
 GED ___/High School Diploma/Some ___ College Credit Hours/Associates
 Degree ___/Bachelors ___ .

5.5 / 3.8/ 27

Twenty-three individuals responded to the Delphi Round II probe by the due date of September 20, 2000. The remaining 27 panelists were all sent an e-mail (Appendix G) reminding them of the deadline and requesting response at their earliest convenience. E-mail responses indicated many had mailed their response and the responses just had not arrived yet. Twenty-four more responses trickled in shortly thereafter and within the next ten days of the deadline.

Out of the total of 50 instruments mailed out, 47 panelists returned the questionnaire for a response rate of 94 percent. However, one respondent only sent a note stating her desire to participate but expressing her "reluctance to respond in the manner which you have prescribed". She also suggested that the instrument be simplified and redundancy eliminated.

Additional comments noted on the completed questionnaires from some panelists were not specific to the questions; the brief contents of the notes basically expressed happiness, delight and thankfulness for the opportunity to participate. Many other

comments encouraged the researcher to successfully complete the doctoral degree process.

Three responses arrived when the available data were already compiled and Delphi Round III was prepared to be mailed. That left 44 total or 88 percent of usable responses. Three panelists, or six percent, did not respond. Follow-up telephone calls were made. One phone was never answered and two others did not return the call in response to messages left on their voice mail.

The Delphi Round III probe (see Appendix H) demonstrates the amount of consensus reached on the knowledge, skills, values and training needs of entry level COs from the Delphi Round II rankings. All the items are ranked using the mean or average scores and standard deviation scores to determine the hierarchy.

The most important *knowledge* need with a mean score of 4.6 and a standard deviation of 4.2 was voted for the “knowledge of interpersonal relations / communication to include crisis intervention, conflict resolution, etc.” Most important *skill* listed is “communication skills: verbal and non-verbal; especially interpersonal” with a mean score of 3.5 and a standard deviation of 4.6.

With a mean score of 4.3 and a standard deviation of 5.9 “honesty” was scored as the most important *value* need of entry-level COs. That “basic CO training should be comprehensive and sufficient length to cover at a minimum those topics required by the American Correctional Association standards”, with mean score of 3.4 and the least of all the standard deviations 2.5 calculated, came out to be the most important *training* need.

Delphi Round III

The purpose of the third Delphi iteration was to reach a conclusion on the learning and performance needs of entry-level Correctional Officers. Such closure was sought through the four research questions seeking to determine the most important knowledge, skill, value and training needs. Based on panel member input identical or similar responses were further condensed; additional recommendations made by panel members were included at the end of the tally.

The Delphi III a, b, c & d probe was mailed out to all the 50 panelists on October 4, 2000 with a return due date of October 17. This questionnaire provided the experts a final opportunity to review and prioritize their choices of 19 knowledge needs, 20 skills needs, 35 values needs and the 10 most important training needs of entry level COs.

The panel members were given the option to eliminate any items that they felt are not of utmost importance. Likewise, any items considered important but missing from the choices could be added. The respondents were informed that the mean and standard deviation will be calculated for each item with a score of "4" representing Highly Relevant (HR), "3" for Relevant (R), "2" for being Insignificantly Relevant (IR), and "1" for being not relevant and to Eliminate (E) an item.

The Delphi III d contained the "Training Needs" recommendations from Round II. All the items in the Round III were listed in order of highest ranking first. The panelists were asked to rate the items selected in the previous rounds. This final probe also asked to a affix length of time proposed for CO basic training, length of orientation and on-the-job-training, trainer certification requisite hours and desired trainee academic background.

Besides a slight change in order (Moser and Kolten, 1972), the questionnaire contained the same four questions to improve the “contrast” phenomenon (Noelle-Neuman, 1970) and/or the “logical inference” of providing opinion on the last question “training needs”. Having reviewed and possibly responded to the Delphi Round III questions regarding CO training knowledge, skill and value in the first three parts of the four-part questionnaire, the panelists were able to better determine such training needs.

The most commonly used (Warde, 1990, p.222) Likert-type scale of (4) highly relevant, (3) relevant, (2) insignificantly relevant, and (1) not relevant or “eliminate” was the chosen measure. In describing the scales and the range of 1 through 4 the preceding *choice of words* was incorporated from Adranovich (1995). Warde (1990) contends that these are commonly used labels. Space was available on the questionnaire for the panel members to make additional comments.

Twenty-two of the 50 panelists responded by the due date of October 17. Thirteen more responses arrived by the end of the week. A follow-up reminder via e-mail was sent to the non-respondents. Many acknowledged the delay with regrets and assured its completion and mailing in the very near future. A total of 43 responses (86%) arrived by October 28, 2000. By the end of October, three more responses arrived. The last response was received on November 9, 2000. A grand total of 47 Delphi panelists (94%) responded. The overall ‘response rate’ is listed in table XII.

TABLE XII

RESPONSE RATE OF PANELISTS

<u>Round</u>	<u>Total Response</u>	<u>% of Response</u>	<u>Usable Response</u>	<u>% of Usable Response</u>
I	50	100	49	98
II	47	94	44	88
III	47	94	47	94

Note. The “percentage” cited above is greater than 100. It is the proportionate % of each category listed.

A few of the respondents inadvertently left one or two questions or some parts of a question unanswered. In such a case correspondences were made via e-mail requesting clarification. In some cases telephone calls were made to request the information.

Another source of clarification was the response to the previous Delphi Round II probe, especially for the Delphi Round III, d section where most of the gaps were noticed. If a response was not available via e-mail, or the respondent could not be reached by phone, their specific choices of (entry level CO trainee’s) academic preparation, orientation or training length noted in Delphi Round II was used to complete the gaps in Delphi Round III.

Items scoring between 2.5 and 3.4 were rated as “relevant” and items scoring 3.5 or greater were considered “highly relevant”. The following lists the sequential “highly relevant” knowledge needs final choices of the panelists. The sequence is rated from high to low and is listed in order of highest ranking first. The rankings, based on the Delphi Round III rating, are listed as the underlined number on the left below the item.

The next number is the item's standing at the end of Delphi Round II ranking. And the third number is the final mean score given in Delphi Round III rating for each question by all the participating panelists.

The available figures of the statistical analyses, mean and deviation scores, connote a strong congruity in the ranking of Delphi Round II and the Delphi Round III ratings on the most important knowledge needs of entry level COs. A complete listing of all the rated items of the 'knowledge needs' category can be seen on Table XIII. The resulting "highly relevant" and "relevant" choices of knowledge needs could be considered as the items that should be incorporated by correctional entities nationwide.

Eight Highly Relevant Knowledge Needs of COs

Final Rank

Delphi Round II Rank

Delphi Round III Final Mean

1. 1, (3.9) Knowledge of Interpersonal Relations/Communication to include crisis intervention, conflict resolution;
2. 2, (3.8) Knowledge of Security Procedures/Offender Classification/Offender Disciplinary process;
3. 6, (3.7) Knowledge of assigned Post, & Daily Procedures: Accurately logging/recording; Basic Security Practices, including Knowledge of Equipment and Tools; Weapons, Counts, Tool control, Searches, Escapes, Alarms, Fire, Riots, Key Control, and Contraband Control;
4. 4, (3.72) Knowledge of Defensive Tactics/Officer Survival/Use of Force/Self Defense/Restraints and other issues dealing with care, custody and confinement of prisoners/inmates/offenders in accordance with the policies and procedures and with philosophical clarity;

Eight Highly Relevant Knowledge Needs of COs, ContinuedFinal Rank

Delphi Round II Rank

Delphi Round III Final Mean

5. 5, (3.6). Knowledge that everyone deserves to be treated with dignity and respect, to include all staff/employees and inmates/offenders including, but not limited to, knowledge of law & policies on Harassment, Discrimination and Workplace issues such as Privacy, People with Disabilities, and Violence in the Workplace;
- 6.5. 3, (3.5). Knowledge of Job Requirement/Expectations of the Job: CO's Role in the Agency, comprehension of the profession's vision and mission, along with an understanding of correctional philosophy and the Criminal Justice System;
- 6.5 9, (3.5). Knowledge of Ethics/ Morality/Values and Professionalism; and
8. 8, (3.53). Knowledge of the environment of a prison/jail/correctional facility and the potentiality of being set up. Areas of vulnerability for COs; an understanding of boundary and the proper role and relation between officer and inmate/offender.

TABLE XIII

DELPHI ROUND IIIa DATA
KNOWLEDGE NEEDS OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS

Total Scores	Votes	Mean Score	Median	Mode	Deviation	Question #	Rating
185	47	3.9362	4	0.25	0.249637	1	HR
182	47	3.8723	4	0.34	0.340503	2	HR
176	47	3.7447	4	0.44	0.443961	6	HR
175	47	3.7234	4	0.45	0.455243	4	HR
169	47	3.5957	4	0.58	0.580271	5	HR
167	47	3.5532	4	0.5	0.50361	3	HR
167	47	3.5532	4	0.5	0.50361	9	HR
166	47	3.5319	4	0.62	0.623222	8	HR
164	47	3.4894	4	4.0	0.62361	19	R
159	47	3.383	3	3.0	0.649042	11	R
157	47	3.3404	4	3.0	0.518731	10	R
157	47	3.3404	4	3.0	0.604332	12	R
156	47	3.3191	3	0.69	0.695048	7	R
156	47	3.3191	4	3.0	0.662305	13	R
142	47	3.0213	4	3.0	0.682776	14	R
137	47	2.9149	4	3.0	0.724985	16	R
134	47	2.8511	4	3.0	0.665579	18	R
123	47	2.617	4	3.0	0.744708	17	R
121	47	2.5745	3	3.0	0.77895	15	R

Items scoring 3.5 or greater were considered “highly relevant”, and items scoring between 2.5 and 3.4 were rated as “relevant”. The following lists the sequential “highly relevant” skill needs final choices of the panelists.

The sequence is rated from high to low and is listed in order of highest ranking first. The ranks, based on Delphi Round III rating, are listed as the underlined number on the left below. The next number is the item’s standing at the end of Delphi Round II ranking. And the third number is the final mean score given in Delphi Round III rating for each question by all the participating panelists.

The available facts represented through mean and deviation scores, suggest a strong congruity in the ranking of Delphi Round II and the Delphi Round III ratings on the most important skill needs of entry level COs. A complete listing of all the rated items of the 'skill needs' category can be seen on Tables XIV. The resulting "highly relevant" and "relevant" choices of skill needs could be considered as the items that should be included by correctional entities nationwide.

Six Highly Relevant Skill Need of COs

Final Rank

Delphi Round II Rank

Delphi Round III Final Mean

1. 1, (3.89). Communication Skills: verbal and non-verbal; especially interpersonal;
2. 2, (3.75). Conflict Resolution/Violence de-escalation/Crisis intervention;
3. 7, (3.70). Ability to listen, learn and follow directions/orders;
4. 4, (3.68). People Skills; skills to get along with supervisors and co-workers;
5. 6, (3.62). Observation Skills; and
6. 3, (3.60). Problem Solving/Negotiation/Arbitration/Mediation.

TABLE XIV

DELPHI ROUND IIIb DATA
SKILL NEEDS OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS

Votes	Mean Score	Mode	Standard Deviation	Total Score	Median	Question Number	Rating
47	3.893617	4	0.31166	183	4	1	HR
47	3.744681	4	0.48759	176	4	2	HR
47	3.702128	4	0.46227	174	4	7	HR
47	3.680851	4	0.51526	173	4	4	HR
47	3.617021	4	0.60982	170	4	6	HR
47	3.595745	4	0.5381	169	4	3	HR
47	3.446809	4	0.58267	162	3	5	R
47	3.446809	3	0.54408	162	3	14	R
47	3.425532	4	0.68349	161	4	20	R
47	3.382979	3	0.70874	159	3	10	R
47	3.382979	3	0.57306	159	3	17	R
47	3.340426	3	0.73059	157	3	8	R
47	3.297872	4	0.80528	155	3	12	R
47	3.297872	3	0.65657	155	3	15	R
47	3.276596	3	0.64949	154	3	13	R
47	3.276596	3	0.64949	154	3	19	R
47	3.234043	3	0.56	152	3	16	R
47	3.212766	3	0.68955	151	3	11	R
47	3.12766	3	0.7972	147	3	21	R
47	3.085106	3	0.71717	145	3	9	R
47	3	3	0.58977	141	3	22	R
47	2.553191	3	0.77484	120	3	18	R

As before, items scoring between 2.5 and 3.4 were rated as “relevant” and items scoring 3.5 or greater were considered “highly relevant”. The following lists the sequential “highly relevant” value needs final choices of the panelists.

The sequence is similarly rated from high to low and is listed in order of highest ranking first. The ranks, based on Delphi Round III rating, are listed as the underlined number on the left below. The next number is the item’s standing at the end of Delphi Round II ranking. And the third number is the final mean score given in Delphi Round III rating for each question by all the participating panelists.

Eleven Highly Relevant Value Needs of COs

Final Rank

Delphi Round II Rank

Delphi Round III Final Mean

1. 1, (3.87). Honesty;
2. 2, (3.86). Integrity and concern for the good;
3. 4, (3.81). Trustworthiness;
5. 5, (3.79). Fairness, respect for laws and due process;
5. 6, (3.79). Responsibility;
5. 8, (3.79). Credibility & truthfulness: keeping word & not making false promises;
7. 7, (3.72). Dependability;
- 8.5. 10, (3.57). Value Human Dignity/Respect for life: self and (diverse) others;
- 8.5. 11, (3.57). Professionalism: Striving for excellence in personal leadership, judgement & professional actions;

Eleven Highly Relevant Value Needs of Cos. (Continued)Final Rank

Delphi Round II Rank

Delphi Round III Final Mean

10. 13, (3.53). Commitment; and11. 16, (3.51). Emotional stability.

A great congruity in the ranking of Delphi Round II and the Delphi Round III ratings on the most important value needs of entry level COs can be inferred from the statistical analyses, mean and deviation scores.

A methodical record of all the rated items of the 'value needs' category can be seen on Tables XV. The resulting "highly relevant" and "relevant" choices of value needs may perhaps be considered as the topics that should be integral to the correctional training entities nationwide.

Table XV

DELPHI ROUND IIIc DATA
VALUE NEEDS OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS

Votes	Mean	Mode	Standard Deviation	Median	Total Score	Question	Rating
47	3.87234	4	0.337318	4	182	1	HR
47	3.851064	4	0.359875	4	181	2	HR
47	3.808511	4	0.49512	4	179	4	HR
47	3.787234	4	0.463267	4	178	5	HR
47	3.787234	4	0.413688	4	178	6	HR
47	3.787234	4	0.413688	4	178	8	HR
47	3.723404	4	0.452151	4	175	7	HR
47	3.574468	4	0.58028	4	168	10	HR
47	3.574468	4	0.541523	4	168	11	HR
47	3.531915	4	0.584252	4	166	13	HR
47	3.510638	4	0.655158	4	165	16	HR
47	3.468085	4	0.620346	4	163	26	R
47	3.404255	3	0.538095	3	160	12	R
47	3.382979	4	0.795454	4	159	3	R
47	3.361702	3	0.60525	3	158	33	R
47	3.319149	3	0.555854	3	156	24	R
47	3.319149	3	0.629229	3	156	29	R
47	3.276596	3	0.682136	3	154	22	R
47	3.276596	3	0.578684	3	154	34	R
47	3.255319	3	0.674636	3	153	31	R
47	3.212766	3	0.657273	3	151	14	R
47	3.191489	3	0.647346	3	150	17	R
47	3.191489	3	0.537235	3	150	20	R
47	3.148936	3	0.509848	3	148	15	R
47	3.148936	3	0.658679	3	148	28	R
47	3.12766	3	0.646631	3	147	27	R
47	3.106383	3	0.698882	3	146	18	R
47	3.085106	3	0.775432	3	145	30	R
47	3.06383	3	0.704157	3	144	32	R
47	3.042553	3	0.721033	3	143	9	R
47	3.021277	3	0.793708	3	142	19	R
47	3.021277	3	0.570635	3	142	25	R
47	3.021277	3	0.675322	3	142	35	R
47	3	3	0.589768	3	141	21	R
47	3	3	0.625543	3	141	23	R

The following lists the sequential “highly relevant” training needs choices of all the 47 panelists. In this category all the questions scored 3.5 or greater and all were regarded as “highly relevant”.

The progression is rated in the same way from high to low and is listed in order of highest ranking first. The ranks, establish as a result of Delphi Round III rating, are listed as underlined number on the left below. The next number is the item’s standing at the end of Delphi Round II ranking. And the third number is the final mean score given in Delphi Round III rating for each question by all the participating panelists.

All the Ten Highly Relevant Training Needs of COs

Final Rank

Delphi Round II Rank

Delphi Round III Final Mean

1. 2, (3.8). Entry Level Correctional Officer (CO) basic training is essential/is a prerequisite for the new CO with a minimum of 8.13 average weeks long or a minimum of 331.06 classroom hours;
3. 5, (3.72). Newly hired COs should participate in an average of 38.45 hours of Institutional Orientation prior to attending pre-service training. Upon completion of training the CO should participate in at least 80 hours of on-the-job training (OJT);
3. 6, (3.72). Training should be clearly connected to job requirements applying examples of practical Corrections work to training-content. Subject to annual review, all topics should be approved for subject and actual content by the Subject-Matter-Experts (SME's) in the organization and further reviewed by legal counsel. This needs to be documented with a copy of the current lesson plan, copy of all handouts or visuals,

All the Ten Highly Relevant Training Needs of COs, Continued

Final Rank

Delphi Round II Rank

Delphi Rounds III Final Mean

information on the instructor(s) and a brief justification on why each topic is taught and that it meets current guidelines. Monitor the outcome of training to determine if it meets the need(s);

3. 10, (3.72). The trainee should at least have 12.55 years of schooling with a minimum of a GED or the High School Diploma;

5.5. 1, (3.70). Basic CO training should be comprehensive and sufficient length to cover at a minimum those topics required by ACA standards;

5.5. 4, (3.70). All trainers need to be carefully screened and selected. Then they are to be provided with an average of 55.49 hours of trainer certification program. Reliance on adjunct trainer's should be at a minimum;

7.8, (3.68). CO training should address:

Physical/Medical fitness- to rise to the needs of the job;

Educational fitness – to communicate and to make reports;

Emotional/Mental fitness – to stand the stresses of the job;

Attitudinal fitness – to show proper attitude to their charges, colleagues and to the institution. The importance of using verbal tools and skills over physical force as the proper way of dealing with most situation;

8. 9, (3.61). Curricula, lesson plans, quality of instructors, physical environment, and equipment should be properly assessed in

All the Ten Highly Relevant Training Needs of COs, Continued

Final Rank

Delphi Round II Rank

Delphi Rounds III Final Mean

determining a quality program of training. Basic CO training should be based on CO occupational job analysis devised by a diverse curriculum and design team's need(s) assessment.

9. 3, (3.59). A pre-service training course for COs needs to be designed to meet the educational level of its students. It should be provided using the principles of adult learning and components of hands-on (skill demonstration). Trainees should be regularly provided feedback.

10. 7, (3.57). Train COs in the specific skills an officer needs determined through a Job Task Analysis and in compliance with the law. This includes both general training, and training that is specific to agency or institution policies and procedures.

The available figures of the statistical analyses, mean and deviation scores, show a change in emphasis from the ranking of Delphi Round II to the Delphi Round III ratings of the most important training needs of entry level COs. Overall the 'training need' category had the lowest standard deviations among the panelists compared to the knowledge, skill and value needs. A complete listing of the Delphi Round III data can be seen on Tables XVI and XVII. The resulting "highly relevant" choices of training needs may well be considered as the items that ought to be put in place by correctional entities nationwide.

TABLE XVI
DELPHI ROUND III d DATA

TRAINING NEEDS OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS

Total Score	Number of Votes	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation	Question Number	Rating
182	47	3.87234	4	4	0.337318	2	HR
175	47	3.723404	4	4	0.452151	5	HR
175	47	3.723404	4	4	0.452151	6	HR
175	47	3.723404	4	4	0.452151	10	HR
174	47	3.702128	4	4	0.622579	1	HR
174	47	3.702128	4	4	0.462267	4	HR
171	47	3.638298	4	4	0.640161	8	HR
170	47	3.617021	4	4	0.573062	9	HR
169	47	3.595745	4	4	0.613599	3	HR
168	47	3.574468	4	4	0.499769	7	HR

Within the category of training need, the lowest mean with no standard deviation was for a choice not to rely on adjunct trainers. It was the panelist's recommendation that the CO trainee should have a minimum of 12.6 years of schooling. With a standard deviation of .830 this was the next most agreed on an item. Next in line was the CO pre-service training length. The group voted for an average of 8.13 weeks of training. The mode was 6 weeks and the median score was 8.

The next item emphasized was a newly hired COs participation in Institutional Orientation prior to attending pre-service training. With a standard deviation of 27.80 hours the voted mean was 38.45 hours. The mode was 40 and the median score was also 40. The standard deviation was quite high regarding on-the-job training. The deviation score was 75.78. The voted mean hours for such a training was 126.98, with both a mode and median score of 80 training hours each.

The greatest standard deviation, with a score of 137.99 was in the choice of correctional officer basic training hours. On an average the recommendation was for 331.06 hours of pre-service training. However, the mode was 240 hours and the median recommendation was 320 hours. This can be seen in Figure 2 and Table XVII.

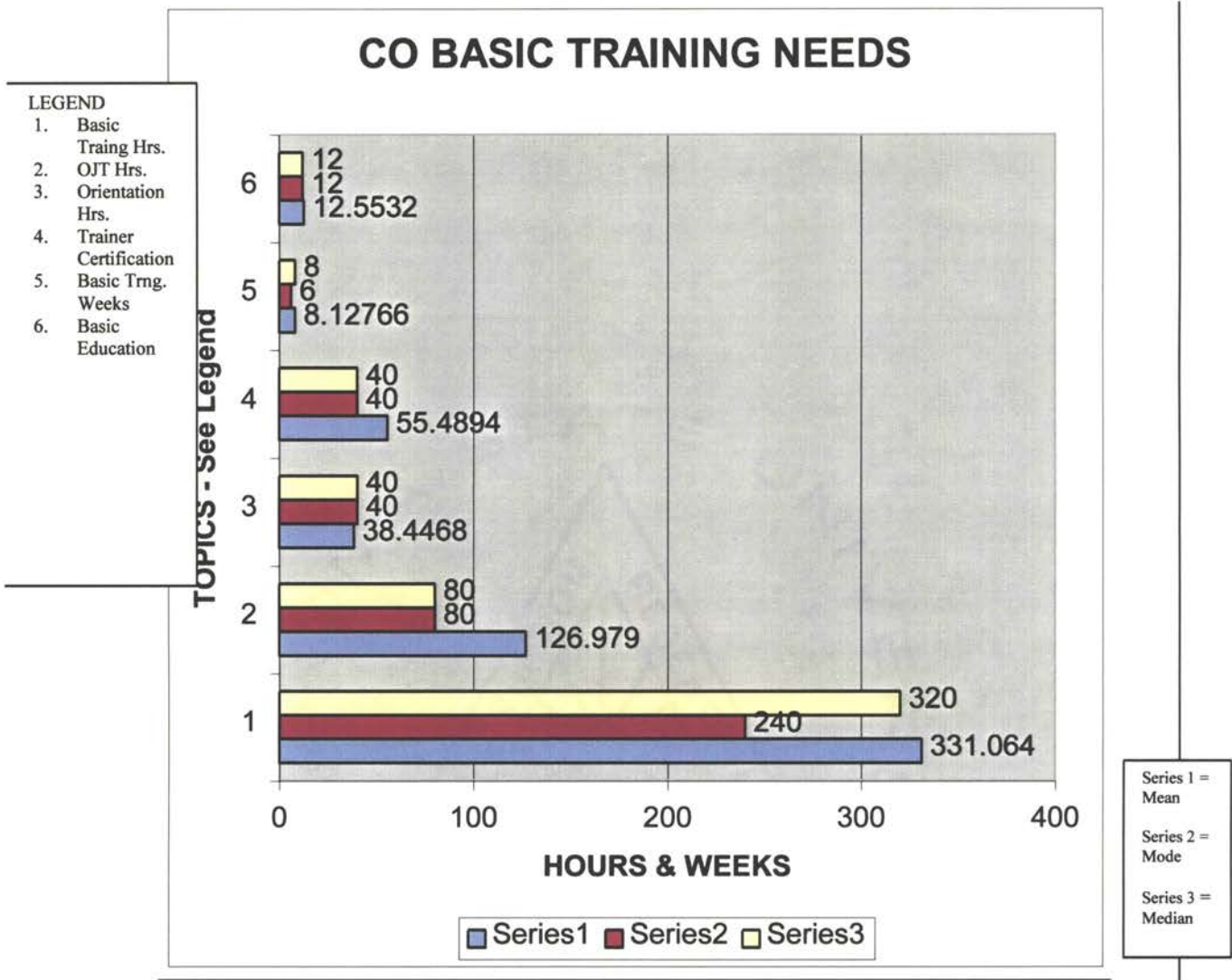


Figure 2. CO Basic Training Needs

TABLE XVII

DELPHI ROUND IIIa DATA

SUPPLEMENTARY TRAINING INFORMATION

Number of Votes	Mean	Mode	Median	Standard Deviation	Total Score	Topic
47	331.064	240	320	137.986	15560	CO Basic Training Hours
47	126.979	80	80	75.77756	5968	On the Job Training
47	38.4468	40	40	27.79725	1807	Institutional Orientation
47	55.4894	40	40	20.92832	2608	Trainer Certification Prog. Hrs.
47	8.12766	6	8	3.327207	382	CO Basic Training Weeks
47	12.5532	12	12	0.829052	590	Basic CO Education
47	1.38298	1	1	0	65	Reliance on Adjunct Should=1; Should Not=2 be at a minimum

Summary

Many of the identified needs in the Delphi Round III probe were rated close to their rankings from the Delphi Round II probe. In the Delphi Round III (a) rating remained the same (as in Delphi Round II) for the first and second choices. Equally rated were “knowledge need” questions numbers four, five, eight, eleven, thirteen and quite closely rated were number 17 and 18. The top two choices for Delphi Round III (b and c) remained the same as in Delphi Round II (b and c). The number two choice of training needs in Delphi Round II also was scored the highest in Delphi Round III.

An item marked with “no relevance” scored the lowest and received a rating of “1”. “insignificantly relevant” items were scored “2”. Likewise, a score of “3” was given to a “relevant” rating and the highest rated items received a score of “4”. In the preceding pages all the “highly relevant” items scoring on an average 3.5 or greater for all the four categories of knowledge, skill, value and training needs have been noted. All the items in “training needs” were considered “highly relevant”. Items with a mean scores of 2.5 through 3.4 were rated as “relevant”. Except for the noted “highly relevant” items the remaining ideas were all considered on an average “relevant” by all the 47 participating Delphi Round III panelists.

Following are comments by some Delphi panelists. The basics of constitutional or statutory laws, and correctional policies and procedures should be taught at entry level training; other detailed matters can be taught on the job. Further comments include that knowledge of leadership should be geared towards entry level COs.

One panel member believed that additional team concepts should be adopted for current training. The emphasis for entry level staff, she said, should certainly focus on

such concepts due to the nature of correctional environments. Another panel member reiterated that though the knowledge of ACA standards and other jail, prison or correctional facilities management issues are “highly relevant” for managers, these are certainly “relevant” for COs. In Delphi Round III b, one of the panelists in grading the “skills and ability to deal with an offender of the opposite sex” commented that “perhaps we should go back to same sex facilities”. Another individual stated that “we train officers to be just and fair, not to have sex with inmates”. The same person mentioned that “an inmate is an inmate whether having an IQ of 22 or of 200 (MENSA)”.

Also in Delphi Round III b, commenting on a COs fair/level-headedness: “skills to deal with potential and real grudges”, it was mentioned by a panel member that “a professional does not have grudges! I think the person suggesting it meant – potential and past bad behavior”. In the context of responding to a need for crisis intervention or first responder skills, she reminded that the facility “. . . will have medical personnel assessable [sic]”.

Several comments were made by multiple respondents in Delphi Round III, c. With regards to valuing courage a panelist commented that “we’re not looking for John Wayne’s”. Another person believes that “psychological screening should eliminate concerns for emotional stability!” Though “cleanliness/neatness” scored at the bottom of choices in Delphi Round II, and also achieved low scores (32nd out of 35) during the Delphi Round III probe, the item was stated to be “an indicator of self-respect” and another person believed that it is “actually a part of professionalism” (which was the eighth choice in the Delphi Round III of this category).

‘Compassion’ was rated lower (34th) in Delphi Round III than in II (21st). To this item of ‘Compassion’ one person added “but not to excess.” Regarding ‘mutual responsibilities for maintaining safe and secure facilities and for modeling society’s mainstream values’, which was rated 31st and was “relevant”, one person expressed that “we enforce our state constitution, not mainstream values”. Delphi Probe III, c, 3 was rated 14th in Delphi Round III. One panelist expanded the item ‘value of what is right over what is legal or expedient’; in his own words “what is ‘right’, moral, ethical – not just what is necessary. My only problem with this is that some people interpret it to mean that what is “right” (and this may be to protect staff or see that the guilty parties are punished) is more important than the law of reporting abuse and other staff action”.

This final Delphi Round III probe also asked the experts in Round III, d to determine the entry level CO basic training length. Answers ranged from three weeks to 16 weeks, or 120 hours to 640 hours, with a mean of 330.44 and a median score of 320. The mode was 240 hours.

One panel member stated that “several of these items are basically the same. Also in terms of training it is usually a joke! So quality would be the overriding concern; not hours completed”. Regarding the question of CO on-the-job training, another panelists scored “240” hours and commented “Or more. The best method of learning this is O.J.T”. The Delphi panelists as a group recommended an average of 128 hours, with a mode and median score of 80 for on-the-job training.

Very few panelists varied on the sequence of training. One panelist stated that “training should be first, then orientation and on-the-job-training”. They also varied on

hours of training that should be required of a training officer, orientation and OJT requirements.

Many respondents wished that the CO trainees would have a bachelor's degree, but at the same time did not express optimism as the pool of available candidates seem to have, on an average, a GED or a HS certification. Comments include, "High School [diploma]/GED realistic, at least"; "college credit ideal". "Bachelors – unlikely, but would be wonderful. Incentives for more years of education should be provided".

About fulfilling the requirements to be a trainer, it was said that "the instructor doesn't have to have a college degree, but (he/she) should possess significant course work in their area of expertise". Regarding reliance on adjunct, a panelist expanded that it "depends on your definition of adjunct trainer: as long as the trainer is a trained trainer, knowledgeable in his/her topic; they don't have to be a full-time trainer, and we must work and review to maintain standards". Like Bales (1997), a Delphi panel member concluded by saying that "It is critical (highly relevant) that basic CO training is: 1) job specific (hands-on application) when possible; 2) able to convey the 'whole picture' of the agency's mission and each employee's essential part, and 3) instills professional pride".

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS

RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to identify the learning and performance needs of entry level correctional officers. The Delphi technique was adopted to identify and prioritize knowledge, skill, value and training needs of entry level correctional officers (COs) through group consensus of the selected panel members.

The study was prompted by a growing offender population and subsequent need for highly trained COs to deal with such population. Also consequential was the awareness and concern that there seem to be no common understanding of the learning and performance needs of entry level COs who are entrusted with the burgeoning correctional entities.

Four research questions were presented to accomplish the identification of CO learning and performance needs. They were:

1. What are the most important knowledge needs for entry level correctional officers?
2. What are the most important skill needs for entry level correctional officers?
3. What are the most important value needs for entry level correctional officers?
4. What are the most important training needs of entry level correctional officers?

The above four questions were presented to a national panel of 50 experts who are knowledgeable and interested in the learning and performance needs of COs. Several planned steps were taken to successfully generate the multiple Delphi Round iterations.

All like ideas were clustered (Andranovich, 1995). The cluster was then given a name characterizing the idea it manifested. These items provided the substance for the next questionnaire. Available data were grouped and condensed into 38 most important areas of knowledge, 40 most important skills, 80 most important values, and 20 most important pre-service training needs. This principal inventory comprised the set of questions for Delphi Round II. The next two probes (Delphi Round II and III) attempted to refine the opinions of the experts and to reach a consensus (Delbecq, 1975).

The Delphi Round II probe requested the expert panel members to rank the contents that had been selected in the first probe. It asked all the panel members to rank the Delphi Round II questionnaire “a” 1 through 10, “b” 1 through 18, “c” 1 through 20, and “d” 1 through 40. The panelists had the option to add, delete or improvise the ideas presented. Space was made available in the questionnaire’s welcoming comments.

The 19 most important knowledge needs, 20 skill needs, 35 value needs and the 10 most important training needs that were prioritized in Delphi Round II became the inventory for the final Delphi Round III probe.

The purpose of Delphi Round III was to reach a consensus by the panel of experts to identify the most important knowledge, skill, value, and training needs of entry level COs. All the 50 panel members were mailed the Delphi Round III instrument via the United States Postal Services. Twenty-two responses arrived by the due date of October 17. An additional 16 responses (for a total of 38) were received by the following weekend. The remaining 12 individuals were again contacted via E-mail requesting their completed responses. Another eight responses for a total of 46 or 92 % of panelists responded by October 30. A few of the panelists were working out of town which

delayed their responses. The last response was received on November 9, 2000 for a total of 47 or 94 % responses.

Following are some of the details brought about after the culmination of the examination of data:

1. The panel of experts gathered for the purpose generated a total of 984 items related to entry-level COs learning and performance needs.
2. Included in the 984 items were 241 most important areas of knowledge, 227 most important skills, 246 most important values, and 270 most important pre-service training needs for entry-level COs.
3. The most important areas of knowledge were condensed into 38 items. The most important 40 skills were consolidated, 80 most important values were listed, and finally 20 most important pre-service training needs were identified.
4. The 38 knowledge needs were further clustered into 19 items, 40 skills were categorized into 20 items, 80 most important values were assorted into 35 items, and 20 pre-service training needs were arranged into 10 items by the ranking vote cast by the Delphi panel members.

Knowledge Needs

A consensus of the panelist was reached regarding eight (42% of 19) knowledge needs as “highly relevant” and the remaining 11 (58% of 19) knowledge needs as “relevant”. (See Figure 3). The panelists were asked to score “4” for a “highly relevant” item, “3” for “relevant” recommendation, “2” for an item considered “insignificantly

relevant” and “1” for the lowest need with no relevance. All the items in Delphi Round III scored “relevant” and above. Items scoring between 2.5 and 3.4 were rated as “relevant” and items scoring 3.5 or greater were considered “highly relevant”. The mean of scores ranged from 3.53 to 3.94 for highly relevant knowledge needs, and from 2.58 to 3.49 for the relevant needs. For the category of knowledge needs, deviation score ranged from .259 to .789 for a difference of .53 between the highest and the lowest standard deviation scores.

The variance of CO tasks in itself is not difficult as it is to combine and sometimes switch from one to another as operational circumstances demand (Bryans, 1995). Accrued knowledge allows the transformation professionally. In the study entry level COs greatest “knowledge needs” seemed to be knowledge of interpersonal relations and communication to include crisis intervention, and conflict resolution. This is followed by the need to have the knowledge of security procedures, offender classification and the offender disciplinary process along with knowledge of assigned post and daily procedures, basic security practices, including the knowledge of equipment’s and tools, weapons, counts, tool control, searches & contraband control, escape prevention, alarms, fire, riots and key control.

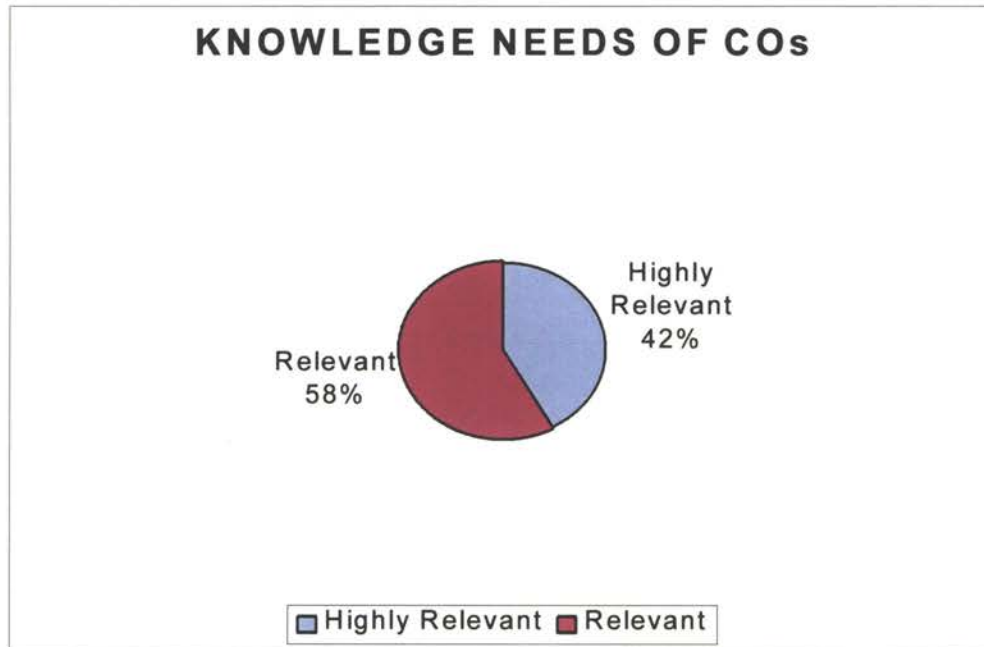


Figure 3. Knowledge Needs of COs

Skill Needs

A consensus of the panelist was reached regarding six (27% of 22) skill needs as “highly relevant” and the remaining 16 (73% of 22) skill needs as “relevant”. (See Figure 4). The mean of scores ranged from 3.53 to 3.94 for highly relevant skill needs, and from 2.60 to 3.45 for the relevant skills. For the whole skill need category, deviation score ranged from .31 to .81 for a difference of .50 between the highest and the lowest standard deviation scores.

Providing the skills to address issues and situations adequately allow people to respond appropriately and with self-assurance and respect for the training they receive (Singletary, 1999). Proficiency as a CO can be attained through the use of interpersonal skills (Bryans, 1995). Entry level COs greatest skill needs seemed to be both verbal and

non-verbal communication skills. Interpersonal or people skills were emphasized. This need is followed by the skills to listen, learn and follow directions or orders.

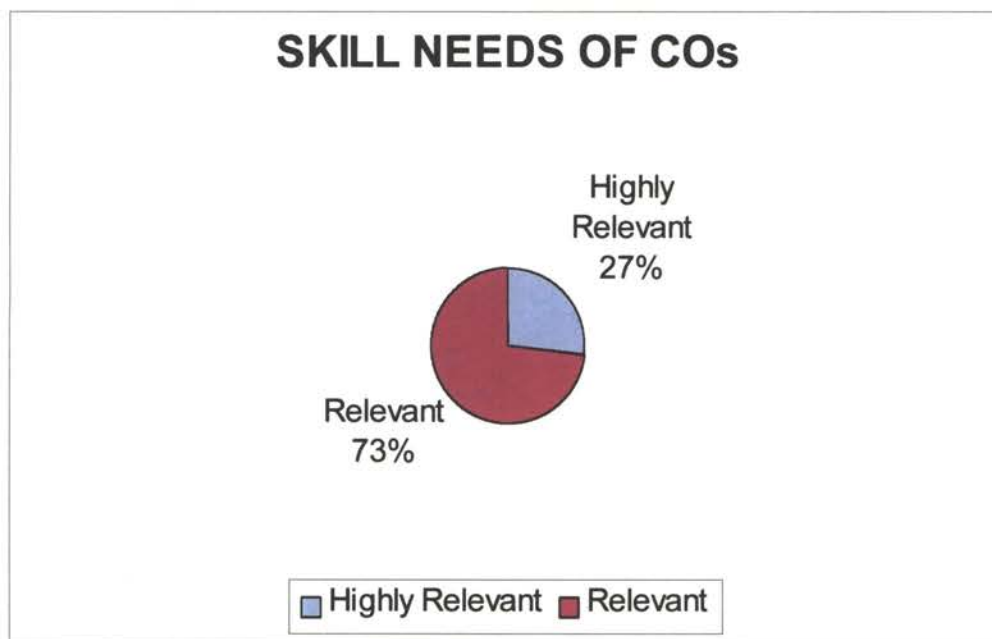


Figure 4. Skill Needs of COs

Value Needs

A consensus of the panelist was reached regarding 11 (31% of 35) value needs as “highly relevant” and the remaining 24 (69% of 35) value needs as “relevant”. (See Figure 5). The mean of scores ranged from 3.51 to 3.87 for highly relevant value needs, and from 3 to 3.47 for the relevant values. For the whole value need category, deviation score ranged from .34 to .80 for a difference of .46 between the highest and the lowest standard deviation scores.

Corrections must be value centered (Rion, 1998). Entry level COs greatest value need is honesty. Along with that, integrity and concern for good, trustworthiness is closely followed by responsibility, fairness, with respect for laws and due process, credibility and truthfulness: keeping words and not making false promises to be of utmost

importance. It is essential to do things right but it is equally necessary to do the right thing. The allegiance to vision and values ensure positive work culture and begins a tradition that can transcend administrations (Singletary, 1999).

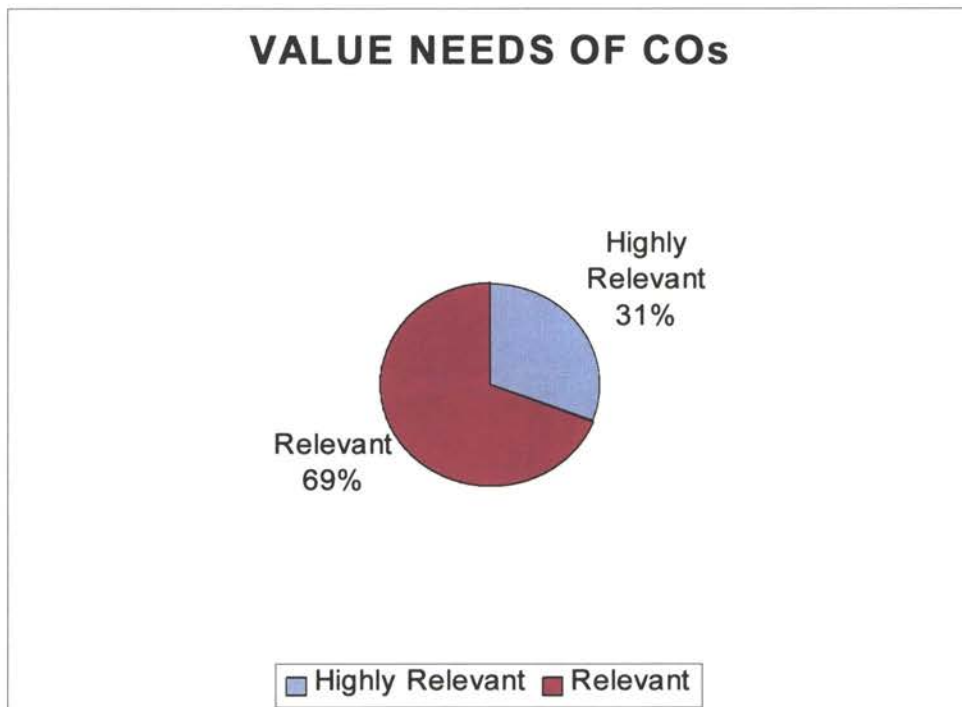


Figure 5. Value Needs of COs

Training Needs

A consensus of the panelist was reached regarding all the 10 (100%) training needs as “highly relevant”. (See Figure 6). The mean of scores ranged from 3.57 to 3.87 for all the highly relevant training needs. For the whole training needs category, deviation score ranged from .34 to .64 for a difference of .30 between the highest and the lowest standard deviation scores.



Figure 6. Training Needs of COs

The experts were also asked to identify the minimum number of weeks or the minimum number of classroom training hours for entry level COs. The mean score was 8.13 weeks, or 331.06 hours and the median score was 8 weeks or 320 hours. The modal score was 6 weeks or 240 hours.

The panel members were requested to identify the hours of institutional

orientation prior to attending pre-service training. On an average 38.45 hours of orientation was recommended. The median score was 40, so was the mode.

The panelists also identified the hours of on-the-job training upon completion of pre-service training. The mean score was 126.98 hours; both mode and median scores were 80 hours.

The 47 panelists also identified the need for 55.49 mean hours of trainer certification program. Both the mode and median scores were 40 hours. 61.70% of the 47 respondents believe reliance on adjunct should be at a minimum; 38.30% believes reliance on adjunct trainers should not be at a minimum.

One hundred percent of the panelists reflected that CO trainees should “at least” have a GED/High School Diploma; the mean score was greater than assigned 12 for the GED/12th grade. Thirteen points were assigned for some college, with 14 for an associates degree. Though the mode and median score was 12, with the least amount of standard deviation (0.83) in the Delphi Round III, d Training Needs category, a mean score of 12.55 reflects educational expectation greater than a GED or a High School diploma.

The Microsoft Excel program was used to conduct statistical analysis of the data received. The analysis revealed that 42 % of the 19 knowledge needs selected by the panelists was scored “highly relevant”, 58 % was considered “relevant”; 27 % of the identified 20 skill needs was assessed as “highly relevant” and 73 % was considered “relevant”; 31 % of the 40 value needs was assessed as “highly relevant” and 69 % was considered of “relevant”; and 100 % of all the training needs were assessed as “highly relevant”.

The standard deviation scores for each of the knowledge, skill, value and training needs were found to be as follows. Between the highest and the lowest for each of the categories, knowledge needs scored .53; skill needs totaled .50; value needs scored .46; and the training needs deviation shows .30. Though the numerical value in itself is not important in such a descriptive study, focus can be placed on the order, ranking or ratings of the scores derived. The above standard deviation scores show that with a score of .53 the greatest dispersion of opinions was in the “knowledge needs” category, followed by .50 of the “skill needs”, and “value needs” score of .46. The least amount of deviation, .30, was noted in the “training needs” category. This was also the category where all the ten items were scored as “highly relevant”.

Majority items listed as knowledge, skill, values and training needs were determined to be analogous to those delineated in the 105 KSA’s clustered by the California State Board of Corrections (1987) and the National Academy of Corrections' (1992) Competency Profile of Correctional Officers. The results of the study seem to help prioritize the KSA’s even further.

Conclusions

From the assessments and interpretation of data, the following conclusions were established:

Despite the diversity of the correctional services, varying institutions of higher learning such as universities and colleges, and the variety of educational and experiential backgrounds the national panel of experts represented, there is general agreement as to core knowledge, skills, values and training needs of entry level COs.

There is a need for COs to be knowledgeable and skillful. A sense of personal and professional worth, respect for people and values is essential. Embracing the knowledge, skills, values and training needs identified in the study can help design training programs which will make possible entry level COs to be better prepared in their role of a change agent and to improve their learning and performance needs.

Structured staff training is vital. There is prevailing conformity in the study that entry level CO basic training in the USA is essential. Pre-service training must be a prerequisite for all the new COs. It is concluded that the performance and learning needs of entry level COs are more similar regardless of where they work.

A guiding list of core knowledge needs, skill needs, value needs and pre-service training needs can be developed to determine what ideally should be. Upon review (need assessment) of current reality, it has to be determined what needs to be incorporated to bridge the unfulfilled needs of entry level COs. To best prepare, CO training needs to be designed based on an assessment of actual job demand. The strategy and framework of pre-service training should also be consistent with the skills, value, training and knowledge considered “highly relevant” and “relevant” by the Delphi panelists.

Professionals serving the learning and performance needs of correctional employees believe that there is a continued need and a need to continue professionalizing the field of Corrections. It can be concluded, that professionalism is achieved through training. The success of subsequent development of programs, and such programs to attain desired goals for offender ‘correction’ and ‘rehabilitation’ will be dependent upon COs trained in the knowledge, skill, value recommended by the panelists.

The overall conclusion of this study was that the needs reflected as “highly relevant” and “relevant” in all the four categories explored would be a vehicle by which Correctional Officers would be able to achieve a higher standard of performance and further professionalize the field of corrections.

Recommendations for Practice

Based on the findings of the study several recommendations appear to be appropriate. The following recommendations are aimed at the practitioners:

1. The panel members reached a consensus on the most important knowledge needs, skill needs, value needs, and pre-service training needs of entry level COs.

Results of this study should be furnished to the correctional decision-makers to determine the differences that exist between the COs current learning and performance standards versus what is recommended in this study.

2. Serious consideration should be given to devise ways to incorporate the recommended knowledge, skills, values and training needs in their respective training programs or academic curricula and performance evaluations. Once these knowledge, skill, value and the training needs are instituted, desired CO behavior can be expected. The recommendations of the panelists can be used to develop correctional training strategy.
3. Endeavors should be taken to ascertain what barriers exist in the correctional organizations in the United States, in order to increase the training requirements at a minimum of what the panelists have recommended. Based upon the findings it

is recommended that all entry level COs should receive a minimum of 39 hours of institutional orientation prior to attending pre-service training.

4. The role of pre-service training is indispensable in preparing individuals for a career in corrections. However, there is remarkable disparity in the length of existing pre-service training programs. Variation is also illustrated in the study. The recommended mode was 240 hours of CO pre-service training. The median score was 320, and on an average all the 47 panelists recommended 331 hours of pre-service training. The standard deviation was 138 hours. Based on the above it is recommended that all entry level COs should receive a minimum of 331 hours or 8.25 weeks of pre-service training.

The mean scores of all the participating Delphi panelists were used in making the recommendations. Mead (1992) used mode and median values “in order to take out responses for which there was little consensus” (cited in Williams & Webb, 1994). However, Brooks (1974) used a mean response to rank items. Mean and standard deviations were also used by White (1991), Godsey (1992), Massey (1993), William & Webb (1994 a & b), and Villaquiran (1997). Sommer & Sommer (1991) further concluded that the “mean is the most frequently used measure of central tendency. It is usually the most reliable of the three measures since it varies less among the sample drawn from the same population” (p. 240).

5. Based on the same logic of using the mean, described above, it is also recommended that upon completion of training the CO should participate in at least 127 hours of on-the job-training.

6. Effort should be made to find out what obstacles exist in the correctional organizations in the United States, to increase the trainer certification requirements at a minimum of what the panelists have endorsed. It is recommended that all trainers need to be carefully screened and selected and then provided a minimum of 56 hours of trainer certification program. In providing pre-service training, reliance on adjunct trainer's or guest instructor(s) should be at a minimum.
7. There seems to be a consensus that completing a secondary education is required of those applying for the position of a CO. Options for the COs to obtain more formal education through work-study programs, educational furloughs and university extension courses should be considered.
8. For training to make a lasting difference in the lives of COs and those whom they serve, training programs ought to be developed by incorporating the identified knowledge, skill and value needs, and the training should be imparted in a way that communicates development of the whole person. Such commitment to training must be present and visible. This, in turn can aid in the development of the whole organization and can ultimately transform corrections as a profession.

Recommendations for Further Research

1. A study should be conducted to ascertain the profile of COs who will have traversed a program which has been geared towards or has incorporated the knowledge, skill, value and training needs outlined in this study.
2. Even though many articles allude to increased professionalism through accrued knowledge, skills and values from education and training, not many studies address

its materialization. Further study should determine if fulfilling such needs in addition meet the learning and performance needs of correctional employees.

3. A study should be conducted to ascertain if individual or group differences exist among the panelists due to differing backgrounds of the panelists and to compare the results of this study.
4. A study focusing on the specific training needs of COs should be conducted which compares the needs of a CO in a jail, or short-term correctional/rehabilitational versus COs in a long-term correctional/rehabilitational facilities. Such a study could be combined or conducted independently by deciphering the needs of COs in a community level institution, minimum, medium and maximum security facilities or in specialized geriatric, sex offender, regimented discipline/boot camps, offenders with children, special need(s) offenders units, or substance abuse recovery facilities.
5. Prospective researchers might want to take the results of this study to the professional COs and gather their opinions on what they should be learning in an entry level training program.
6. A call for renewal is made to review existing vision and mission statements of the jails and corrections departments nationwide to determine if the COs are in the business of “corrections” only or also of “rehabilitation” and accordingly act on revising appropriate policies and procedures to materialize the necessary changes for the change agents, such as the Cos. Researching changes in the law to align the “correctional/rehabilitational” goals with the knowledge, skills, values and training needs recommended by the panelists, should be considered by the legislators.

7. The methodology used in this study can be utilized by other correctional organizations and educators for further research.

Implications

The data in this investigation were collected in a manner which made possible the analysis of learning and performance needs of correctional officers from a diverse background of “experts” on correctional officer education and training. In the study, the knowledge, skills, value and pre-service training needs of correctional officers in different parts of the United States were found to be similar.

The most suitable training for the corrections field lacks consensus. The study corroborated some findings and conclusion of other studies where the significance of training for COs was emphasized. The study found that, more or less, similar needs are being met, if at all, with differing approaches. A lot more remains to be done.

The knowledge, skill, value and training needs expressed by the panelists of the study seem to agree on a few of the items which were explored, but there does not seem to be clear idea on what role a CO should play. The propensity of variation seem to be influential on how the individuals view the role of education and training of COs.

Correctional training can facilitate the appreciation for an organization’s policies, procedures and philosophy. This, in turn can improve and encourage harmony and security within jails or correctional facilities. Such access to learning seemed proportionate to value placed by the society and correctional leaders on learning actually making a difference in how such a group of employees perform.

Since correctional agencies, in general, seem to place less value on education and training, even when such initiatives are taken, the individuals entrusted with carrying on the responsibilities of learning and performance development stays on the “staff side” (Laird, 1985) and the line COs end up getting neglected.

Its an apt reminder that “The person who sees a career as one of perpetual investment in education stands a much better chance of surviving in today’s world” (Peters, cited in Phillips & McConnell, 1996, p. 366). The human resource needs, including the needs of the COs, in corrections can only be met if training resources are stretched. Correctional education and training is not an expense but an investment into the future which can contribute much, not only to the learning and performance needs, but to further professionalize the field of corrections.

Much professionalism has been achieved, much more, on the other hand, must be done. Private prisons gain to utilize the same ideas, however, since such employees are mostly public employees, funds and its sources are controlled by the public and occasionally the governmental bureaucracy. As long as the public remains unenlightened about the potential misguided policies due to latent, but perhaps, oblivious apathy of its citizenry, and success or failure for that matter is judged by its short-term output, only history will tell how abridged vision can shortchange the same public in its long-term conceivable auspicious outcome unless correctional professionals take charge of improving their own ‘luck’ defined as “laboring under correct knowledge”.

Whether the present correctional training systems in the USA are inadequate is not the question anymore (McCollum, 1976). Some of the best theoreticians and practitioners in correctional staff training and development have been assembled through

the use of the study's Delphi method. Within and despite the limits of the research they have spoken and it is time to further evolve and deliver.

What all of this means, is that we must transform into *perpetual learners* (Schein, 1994). As a rising number of observers and analysts have observed, it will be the ability to learn that will make the difference in the future (Michael, 1992; Peters, 1987; Rosell, 1992; Senge, 1990). The stressful nature of the work COs perform may not change, the competing demands of rehabilitation and the maintenance of order may not go away, but added learning and performance skills, knowledge and values recommended by the panelists can shape how the CO of the future react and sustain the challenges professionally. Transformation is not equal to advancement. Critical thinking and the confidence to challenge the past learning and experiences can set the stage for correctional training to explore new ideas and progress.

In Corrections, the main ingredient for changing people is other people (Task Force Report: Corrections, 1967). Helen Keller's teacher Annie Sullivan (ABC, November 12, 2000) said of once defiant Keller that, "what you demand of her now is what she will ever be!" Corrections and rehabilitation is an occupation and a profession axiomatic to the stability of our society, hence COs should be educated and trained accordingly because what we demand of Corrections as a profession now is what it ever will be!

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

REQUEST FOR NOMINATIONS

NOMINATION FORM

Date

NAME
ADDRESS 1
ADDRESS 2

Dear :

I am a doctoral candidate at Oklahoma State University (OSU) in Human Resource Development (HRD) as well as a full-time employee at the Oklahoma Department of Corrections (ODOC). The subject of my study is to identify the performance and learning needs of correctional officers (COs). My goal also is to determine the most important areas of knowledge, skill, value and training needs for entry level correctional officers.

The Delphi technique will be the method used to obtain the ideas. I hope to identify about fifty experts nationwide in the field of correctional training who can develop a consensus and project the future of entry level correctional officer learning and performance needs. The Delphi method is dependent upon a group of recognized experts responding to an original questionnaire, and then later helping to arrange responses by order of importance. The process allows to achieve consensus of opinion on a given topic, but it does not require that all of the experts be brought together to achieve this consensus. I can assure you and your nominees the Delphi study preserves anonymity and will involve no cost to the nominee, only a small time commitment. The study will require about 15 minutes of the nominee's time on three different occasions.

I am requesting your recommendation for nomination of individual(s) whom you would consider to be leaders/pioneers, who are knowledgeable and an "expert" in the development of correctional training.

Experts need not be from your state or organization. Please consider nominees who have pertinent information to share and can include the Delphi task into their competing tasks. Other desirable credentials include a proven track record in professional practice; recognized as knowledgeable in correctional training by a national or regional organization; served as a correctional consultant or an academician with an expertise in corrections/criminal justice/correctional administration and/or CO training; an individual who demonstrates continuing professional interest in correctional training, development and education, and an individual who makes active contribution to professionalize correctional training.

I have enclosed a form on which you may nominate three to five people. Feel free to include yourself. A postage-paid, return-addressed envelope is enclosed for your convenience. Please complete and return this form by **Friday, May 26**. You may remain anonymous to the nominee(s) or you may permit me to use your name in asking for their participation; please let me know either way.

As a result of the development of this inventory, the learning and performance needs of correctional officers will be better identified, therefore helping professionalization of correctional personnel and to better serve the correctional population.

If you have any questions about this research project and its results, I would be glad to discuss with you.

Sincerely,

Emran Wasim Khan, Local Administrator
Community Sentencing Division, ODOC
kemran@okstate.edu
(405) 372-5444

c. Dr. William Venable
School of Educational Studies

Doctoral Candidate
Human Resource Development
Oklahoma State University

NOMINATION FORM

(1)
 NAME _____
 TITLE/POSITION _____
 ADDRESS _____
 PHONE/E-mail _____
 Brief Reason for nomination: _____

Please check one of the following for each nominee
 Keep me anonymous (kma)____
 Permission to use my name is
 granted (pung)____

(2)
 NAME _____
 TITLE/POSITION _____
 ADDRESS _____
 PHONE/E-mail _____
 Brief Reason for nomination: _____

(kma)____ (pung)____

(3)
 NAME _____
 TITLE/POSITION _____
 ADDRESS _____
 PHONE/E-mail _____
 Brief Reason for nomination: _____

(kma)____ (pung)____

(4)
 NAME _____
 TITLE/POSITION _____
 ADDRESS _____
 PHONE/Email _____
 Brief Reason for nomination: _____

(kma)____ (pung)____

5)
 NAME _____
 TITLE/POSITION _____
 ADDRESS _____
 PHONE/E-mail _____
 Brief Reason for nomination: _____

(kma)____ (pung)____

Nominated By _____ Address _____
 Phone _____ E-mail _____

Feel free to use the back of this form if necessary. Please use the enclosed postage-paid return-addressed envelope to return or mail to Emran Khan, P. O. Box 2553, Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553. Call (405) 372-5444 or write via E-mail at kemran@okstate.edu if have a question.

APPENDIX B

LIST OF
RECOMMENDED/SELECTED PANELISTS

LIST OF RECOMMENDED/SELECTED PANELISTS

<p>(1) Ronald Allen, Director of Training & Development Indiana DOC 2050 N. County Road 50 E New Castle, Indiana 47362 (765) 521-0091</p>	<p>(2) Dr. Laura Bedard, Director Florida State University 634 West Coll Street Tall, FL. 32306-1127 Lbedard@mailers.fsu.edu (850)644-7367</p>	
<p>(3) Holly Braun Agency Program Trainer 2575 Center Street, NE Salem, OR. 97301-4667 Holly.braun@doc.state.or.u S (503) 378-2842</p>	<p>(4) Angela Burnice Branch Director II Mississippi Dept. of Corrections P. O. Drawer G Parchman, MS. 38738 Aburnice@mdoc.state.ms.us (662) 745-6611 xt. 4015</p>	<p>(5) Anthony Callisto, Jr., Chief Deputy 555 South State Street Syracuse, New York 13202 Tonycall1@aol.com (315) 435-1710</p>
<p>(6) Todd Clear Distinguished Professor Dept. of Law & Police Science John Jay College 899 10th Avenue New York, NY. 10019 Tclear@jjay.cuny.edu (212) 237-8470</p>	<p>(7) William Collins, Attorney at Law Editor, Correctional Law Reporter 4923 Lemon Road NE Olympia, WA. 98506 billcol@home.com (360) 754-9205</p>	<p>(8) Gary Cornelius, Lieutenant Programs & Recreation Supervisor Fairfax Co. Adult Detention Center 10520 Judicial Drive Fairfax, VA. 22030 GCornel1307@aol.com (703) 246-4440</p>
<p>(9) The Hon. Helen Corothers, Commissioner US Sent. Com. 3104 Beaverwood Lane Silver Spring MD. 20906 (301) 871-6685</p>	<p>(10) Sam DiNicola Director of Training Tennessee Corrections Academy P. O. Box 1510 Tullahoma, TN. 37388 Sdinicola@mail.state.tn.us (931) 454-1730</p>	<p>(11) Michael Dutton, Superintendent Tennessee DOC P. O. Box 1510 Tullahoma, TN. 37388 MDutton@mail.st.tn.us.gov (931) 454-1938</p>
<p>(12) Charles Felts, Director Staff Training Academy Federal Bureau of Prisons FLETC Building 24 Glynco, GA. 31524 Cfelts@bop.gov (912) 267-2856</p>	<p>(13) Pam Ferguson Mgmt/Ldrship Devt Specialist 2200 Classen Boulevard, # 1900 Oklahoma City, OK. 73106 Pam.ferguson@doc.state.ok.us (405) 523-3087</p>	<p>(14) Larry Fields, Vice President Dominion Correctional 450 South Coltrane Edmond, OK. 73034 larryf@domgp.com (405) 348-9852</p>
<p>(15) Gary Hill, President Contact Center CEGA Box 81826 Lincoln, NE. 68501-1826 Garyhill@cega.com (402) 464-0602</p>	<p>(16) Royce Hudson, Chief of Staff Missouri DOC P. O. Box 236 Jefferson City, MO. 65102 Rhudson@mail.doc.state.mo.us (573) 522-5976</p>	<p>(17) Dennis Hutchinson Assistant Director Utah Department of Corrections 14727 Minuteman Drive Draper, Utah 84020 Dhutchin@udc.state.ut.us (801) 495-6602</p>

<p>(18) Randy Johnson, Director Training Resource Center –WKU Academic Complex 208 Bowling Green, Kentucky 42101 Randy.johnson@wku.edu (270) 745-5087</p>	<p>(19) Lenora Jordan, Warden Oklahoma Dept. of Corrections Route 1, Box 8 Helena, OK. 73741 Lenora.jordan@doc.state.ok.us (580) 852-3221</p>	<p>(20) Stephen Kaiser, Warden Corrections Corporation of America 6888 East 133rd Holdenville, OK. 74848 Stephen.kaiser@correctionscorp.com (405) 379-6400</p>
<p>(21) Dr. Ken Kerle Managing Editor American Jail Association 2053 Day Road Hagerstown, Maryland 21740-9795 Jails@worldnet.att.net (301) 790-3930</p>	<p>(22) Dr. Richard Kiekbusch, Assistant Professor University of Texas at Permian Basin 4901 East University Boulevard Odessa, TX. 79762-0001 Kiekbusch_r@utph.edu (915) 552-2357</p>	<p>(23) W. Keith King Branch Director II P. O. Box 88550 Pearl, MS. 39288 kking@mdoc.state.ms.us (601) 932-2880 xt. 6441</p>
<p>(24) Dr. Dan Lawrence Executive Assistant Oklahoma DOC 3400 M.L. King Avenue P. O. Box 11400 Oklahoma City, OK. 73136 Dan.lawrence@doc.state.ok.us (405) 425-2565</p>	<p>(25) Prof. Lucien Lombardo Dept. of Sociology and Criminal Justice Old Dominion University Norfolk, VA. 23529 Llombardo@odu.edu (757) 683-3800</p>	<p>(26) Dr. Jess Maghan, Professor The University of Illinois Dept. of Criminal Justice 1007 West Harrison Street Chicago, Illinois 606-7140 Jessmaghan@uic.edu (312) 996-5290</p>
<p>(27) Dr. Jim Marquart, Professor Sam Houston State University College of Criminal Justice Huntsville, TX. 77341 lcc_wm@shsu.edu (936) 294-1657</p>	<p>(28) General Gary Maynard, Director University of Oklahoma 2001 Priestly Avenue NB Bldg. 605 Norman, OK. 73072-6400 Gmaynard@ou.edu (405) 325-2868</p>	<p>(29) Dr. Mario Paparozzi Associate Director & Assistant Professor The Criminal Justice Center 2000 Pennington Road P. O. Box 7718 Ewing, NJ. 08625 Paparozz@tcnj.edu (609) 771-2288</p>
<p>(30) Dr. Michael Parsons Executive Director Washington Training Commission 19010 1st Avenue South Seattle, WA. 98148-2055 Mparsons@cjtc.state.wa.us (206) 835-7347</p>	<p>(31) Peter Perroncello, CJM Supt. Of Jail Operations Norfolk Co. Sheriff's Office 200 West Street Dedham, MA. 02027 (781) 329-3701? 3705?</p>	<p>(32) Keith Price, Senior Warden 9601 Spur 591 Amarillo, Texas 79107 ClementsI@amaonline.com (806) 381-7081</p>

<p>(33) Jane Sachs, Supervisor 11651 Nebel St. Rockville, MD. 20852 Corectns.sachs@co.mo.md.us (301) 468-4200</p>	<p>(34) Dr. Harjit Sandhu Professor Emeritus, Oklahoma State University 663 View Ridge Drive Pacifica, CA. 94044 Harjitroop@aol.com (650) 355-6763</p>	<p>(35) Terry Satterfield 3085 Hemwood Road Woodstock, Maryland 21163 Tsatterfield@mpctc.net (410) 750-6546</p>
<p>(36) Alan Shuman, Director New Mexico DOC P. O. Box 5277 Santa Fe, NM. 87505 Nmacad@aol.com (505) 827-8900</p>	<p>(37) Frank Sizer, Jr., Deputy Commissioner 6776 Reiserstown Road Baltimore, Maryland 21215 Sizerfc@ns1.dpscs.state.md.u (410) 585-3302</p>	<p>(38) Gale Smith, Executive Director Juvenile Justice Trainers Association 930 Coddington Road Ithaca, NY. 14850 mgale930@aol.com (607) 256-2112</p>
<p>(39) Walter Smith, Division Chief Denver Sheriff's Department P. O. Box 1108 Denver, CO. 80201 Smithw@ci.denver.co.us (303) 331-4137</p>	<p>(40) Twyla Snider, Warden Corrections Corporation of America 3700 South Kings Highway Cushing, OK. 74023 (918) 225-3336</p>	<p>(41) Dr. William Sondervan, CCE, Commissioner 6776 Reisterstown Road Maryland 21215 sonderww@ns1.dpscs.state.md.us (410) 585-3301</p>
<p>(42) Richard Stadler, Secretary Louisiana DOC Cap Station P. O. Box 94304 Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70804 brownF@ovd01.corrections.state.la.us (225) 342-5723</p>	<p>(43) Dr. Jeanne Stinchcomb, Professor Florida Atlantic University Criminology/Criminal Justice Department 2912 College Avenue Davie, FL. 3314 Stinchco@fau.edu (954) 236-1242</p>	<p>(44) Dr. Mary Stohr Associate Professor & Department Chair Boise State University 1910 University Drive Boise, Idaho 83725 Mstohr@boisestate.edu (208) 426-1378</p>
<p>(45) Dr. Stan Stojkovic, Professor University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee 1141 Endens Hall 2400 Hartford Avenue Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201 Stojkovi@uwm.edu (414) 229-6038</p>	<p>(46) Ron Ward, Regional Director Oklahoma Deptt. Of Corrections 201 East Cherokee McAlester, OK. 74501 ron.ward@doc.state.ok.us (918) 423-4144</p>	<p>(47) Dr. Bruce Wolford, Director Kentucky University Training Resource Center 300 Stratton Building 521 Lancaster Avenue Richmond, KY. 40475-3102 Bruce.trc.@gte.net (895) 622-1498</p>
<p>(48) Ed Yahnig Curriculum Specialist Missouri Department of Corrections P. O. Box 236 Jefferson City, MO. 65101 (573) 522-5980 Phone eyahnig@mail.doc.state.mo.us</p>	<p>(49) Glenn Zuern, Associate Professor Albany State University Department of Criminal Justice Albany, GA. 31705 gzuern@asurums.edu (912) 430-4865</p>	<p>(50) Dr. Linda Zupan, Professor Northern Michigan University 1401 Presque Isle Avenue Marquette, MI. 49855 lzupan@nmu.edu (906) 227-1616</p>

APPENDIX C
REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION
PARTICIPATION FORM

July 10, 2000

«Title»«FirstName»«LastName»
 «JobTitle»
 «Company»
 «Address 1»
 «Address2»
 «City»
 «State»«PostalCode»

Dear «Title»«LastName»

This letter is to request your participation in a futures study that will attempt to identify the pre-service training needs of correctional officers. I am a doctoral candidate at Oklahoma State University (OSU) in Human Resource Development (HRD) as well as a full-time employee at the Oklahoma Department of Corrections (ODOC). The subject of my study is to identify the training needs of entry-level correctional officers. My *goal is to determine* with your help the most important areas of knowledge, skills and values for entry level correctional officers.

You have been identified by other correctional practitioners and educators from across the country as one of the top professionals in the nation. Your participation is critical to the success of this study. The process will require your valuable input in a three to four round Delphi study.

The Delphi method is dependent upon a group of recognized experts responding to an original questionnaire, and then later helping to arrange responses by order of importance. The process allows to achieve consensus of opinion on a given topic, but it does not require that all of the experts be brought together to achieve this consensus. Your participation would involve filling out three to four short questionnaires, mailed to you over the next two months. Delphi questionnaires are designed to require minimal amount of your time and effort. However, you will be allowed a great amount of freedom in your responses. Your responses will be distributed anonymously to other panel members, and you will receive their responses. In reporting the data, I will not associate your name directly with any of your answers on the questionnaires. As a participant, you could also request a summary of the results of the study. Further, panelists will be recognized in the final research report.

I would appreciate a response as to your willingness to participate by **Wednesday, July 26, 2000**. A reply form and a pre-addressed, postage-paid envelope are enclosed for your response. If you have questions feel free to call me at (405) 372-5444 or if you prefer to respond by E-mail, please write to kemran@okstate.edu. Participation on the panel, I feel, shall contribute to our continuing pursuit of correctional training excellence. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Emran Wasim Khan, Local Administrator
 Community Sentencing Division
 Oklahoma Department of Corrections

Doctoral Candidate
 Human Resource Development
 Oklahoma State University

c. Dr. William Venable
 School of Educational Studies

NATIONAL PANEL OF EXPERTS IN CORRECTIONAL OFFICER TRAINING:
DELPHI PARTICIPATION FORM

NAME: _____
 TITLE: _____
 WORK ADDRESS: _____
 CITY: _____
 STATE & ZIP: _____
 WORK TELEPHONE: _____
 WORK E-MAIL: _____
 HOME ADDRESS: _____
 CITY: _____
 STATE & ZIP: _____
 HOME TELEPHONE: _____
 HOME E-MAIL: _____

PLEASE CHECK ONE:

_____ **Yes, I would like to be a member of the NATIONAL PANEL OF EXPERTS FOR CORRECTIONAL OFFICER TRAINING.**

From the following please check (✓) all that applies to you:

- "Expert" in the Development of Correctional Training
 Served as Correctional Consultant
 Academician with an Expertise in Corrections/Criminal Justice/Correctional Administration
 Recognized by a National or Regional organization as Knowledgeable in Correctional Training
 Have professional interest in Correctional Training
 Make active contribution to professionalize Correctional Training
 Other (please explain) _____

Please feel free to attach resumes or vita, use the back of this page, or add pages for additional response.

I understand that participation is voluntary; that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free to withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time without penalty after notifying the project director. I may contact Emran W. Khan via E-mail at kemran@okstate.edu or at telephone numbers (405) 372-5444 or (405) 377-6678.

I may also contact the University Research Services at 001 Life Sciences East, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK. 74078; Telephone (405) 744-5700.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily.

Date: _____ Time: _____ (a.m. /p.m.) Signature: _____

_____ **No, I am unable to participate at this time.**

_____ **I would like additional information. Please contact me by telephone number / E-mail address above.**

Please use the enclosed postage-paid return-addressed envelope to return, or mail to Emran Khan, P. O. Box 2553, Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553.

APPENDIX D

**COVER LETTER
AND
DELPHI ROUND I PROBE**

August 1, 2000

ADDRESS 1

ADDRESS 2

Dear :

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my study dealing with Correctional Officer Training in the United States of America. You are among the 50 experts in the field of corrections/training, from all across the United States, who will be providing important information identifying the learning and performance needs of correctional officers. With your important input perhaps we can come to some conclusions as to what Correctional Officer training in the United States should entail.

I am specifically asking you to identify the learning and performance needs of entry-level correctional officers, and the most important areas of knowledge, skills and also the most important values for entry level correctional officers.

Enclosed you will find the first of three to four part probe that will help to identify learning and performance needs. Please feel free to include as many responses as you feel necessary. It would be appreciated if you could complete your response and return it in the enclosed self-addressed postage-paid envelope by **Friday, August 18, 2000**.

As soon as the result of the first probe has been tabulated you will receive the second probe. The second probe will be based on the results of the first probe. The second probe will allow you to further clarify the training, knowledge, skills and values needs that you feel are essential for entry-level Correctional Officers.

Thank you again for your willingness to participate in this study. Also, let me remind you that the Delphi process preserves anonymity: therefore, names will not be used in tabulations. If you have any questions concerning the questionnaire or the study, please feel free to call at (405) 372-5444 or E-mail me at kemran@okstate.edu.

Sincerely,

Emran W. Khan, Local Administrator
Community Sentencing Division
P. O. Box 2553
Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553

Doctoral Candidate
Human Resources Development
Oklahoma State University

c. Dr. William Venable
School of Educational Studies

DELPHI ROUND I

Name:

Correctional Officer training is a major issue facing all prison, jail and correctional agencies. Available research reflects that correctional officers are provided pre-service training in varying degrees. Your expert opinion will help to identify the pre-service training needs of correctional officers.

Directions: Please answer the following questions with brief and concise statements, or you may choose to list your answers. Feel free to use additional pages and include as many responses as you consider necessary.

1. What are the pre-service *(basic) training needs* of entry level correctional officers?

Examples: Basic correctional officer training is a prerequisite; Minimum content and training hour is required; There is a need for a standardized basic training courses.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

2. What are the *most important areas of knowledge* for entry level correctional officers?

Examples: Knowledge of laws, policies, procedures, job content, current technology, and/or philosophy.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

3. What are the most important skills for entry level correctional officers?

Examples: Skills in negotiating; Communication; Leadership & Management.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

4. What are the most important values for entry level correctional officers?

Example: Respect for people; A sense of personal and professional self-worth;
Personal honesty & integrity.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

Thank you again for agreeing to participate in this study.

PLEASE RESPOND TO THE ABOVE QUESTIONNAIRE, AS SOON AS POSSIBLE AND AT YOUR CONVENIENCE, BY THURSDAY, AUGUST 18, 2000. Kindly return the completed response in the self-addressed stamped envelope, via e-mail at kemran@okstate.edu, or at the address below. Please page me, call me, or write to me if you have a question.

Emran Wasim Khan Home Phone: (405) 372-5444 Fax Number: (405) 377-6754
P. O. Box 2553 Pager Number:(405) 559-7738 E-mails: kemran@okstate.edu
Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553 Office Phone: (405) 377-6678 emran.khan@doc.state.ok.us

Please list the following information that I may not currently have.

Telephone number(s): _____.

Fax number(s): _____.

E-mail address: _____.

Please check /initial one:

_____ You may quote me in the study identifying pre-service training needs of entry-level correctional officers.

_____ Please keep this information completely confidential.

APPENDIX E

**COVER LETTER FOR
DELPHI ROUND I
FOLLOW UP**

August 18, 2000

«Title» «FirstName» «LastName»
 «JobTitle»
 «Company»
 «Address1»
 «Address2»
 «City»
 «State» «PostalCode»

Dear «Title» «LastName»:

I want to thank you again for agreeing to participate in my study to identify the learning and performance needs of correctional officer. During the first week of August 2000, a correspondence containing a Delphi probe was e-mailed to you. If you have already completed the probe and returned it to me, please accept my thanks for your participation in this survey. If you have not had the opportunity to do so, please complete it now and return it to me.

I have enclosed a hard copy of the Delphi Probe I in case the first one was lost in the cyber space or was not retrievable. I am specifically asking you to identify the most important areas of knowledge, skills, values and pre-service training needs of entry level correctional officers.

Please feel free to include as many responses as you feel necessary. It would be appreciated if you could complete your response and return it in the enclosed self-addressed postage-paid envelope by **Thursday August 31, 2000**.

As soon as the result of the first probe has been tabulated you will receive the second probe. The second probe will be based on the results of the first probe. The second probe will allow you to further clarify the learning and performance needs that you feel are essential for entry level Correctional Officers.

Thank you again for your willingness to participate in this study. Also, let me remind you that the Delphi process preserves anonymity: therefore, names will not be used in tabulations. If you have any questions concerning the questionnaire or the study, please feel free to call, page or E-mail me.

Sincerely,

Emran W. Khan, Local Administrator
 Community Sentencing Division
 P. O. Box 2553
 Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553

Doctoral Candidate (ABD)
 Human Resource Development
 Oklahoma State University

(405) 372-5444 Home
 (405)559-7738 Pager
kemran@okstate.edu

c. Dr. William Venable
 School of Educational Studies

APPENDIX F

COVER LETTER
AND
DELPHI ROUND II PROBE

September 3, 2000

Address
Address

Dear :

Thank you again for agreeing to participate in my research on entry-level correctional officer pre-service training. I have had excellent response, and I greatly appreciate you taking the time to share your expertise.

I received close to 270 separate items that you felt are pre-service training needs of entry level correctional officers; 241 items for the most important areas of knowledge; 227 items for the most important skills; and 246 items for the most important values for entry level correctional officers. Through a group process and a systematic analysis, which grouped identical or similar responses, all of your responses were grouped and condensed into 20 categories, 38 categories, 40 categories, and 80 categories of like responses respectively. These identified number of responses will make up this second Delphi probe.

This probably will be the most time-consuming round; only one more easy round and it will be over! I need your help to further identify the pre-service training needs of entry-level correctional officers. The items are listed in random order and I am asking you to prioritize the items in terms of your perception of the importance of each. Specifically, I ask that you (1) review the list of identified training, knowledge, skills and values needs for entry level needs of correctional officers; (2) comment beside each item if you feel it is necessary; (3) select the 10, 19, 20 and 40 most important items for each respective category; (4) rank the 10, 19, 20 and 40 items you selected; and (5) add any new criteria you feel have been omitted.

I ask that you kindly return this second probe in the self-addressed stamped envelope or at the address below by Wednesday, **September 20, 2000** so that it may be analyzed and the third probe can be constructed. Again let me thank you for your time and continued participation in this study. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

Emran W. Khan, CCE, Local Administrator
Community Sentencing Division, ODOC
P. O. Box 2553
Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553

Doctoral Candidate
Human Resources Development
Oklahoma State University

Home phone # (405) 372-5444
Pager # (405) 559-7738
E-mail: kemran@okstate.edu

cc: Dr. William Venable
School of Educational Studies

DELPHI ROUND II (a)

NAME _____

INSTRUCTIONS: Please review the following list which consists of 20 pre-service training needs identified in the first probe. Each is a topic that one of you felt should be addressed in an entry-level correctional officer pre-service training. **The topics are in no particular order.** Indicate the 10 most important needs of the 20 using a check (✓) mark. Then rank the 10 you have selected (using numerals 1 through 10). Please regard "1" as the most important. A ranking of "1" will be assigned ten points; "2" will be given nine points; and "10" will be given one point. Please feel free to add topics or make any comment. Insert appropriate choice(s) when a particular question calls for it. Please feel free to add basic training needs of COs or make any comment

Most Important Needs	Rank of Selected Items	Pre-service training needs of entry level correctional officer:	Comments:
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		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Newly hired CO's should participate in _____ hours of Institutional Orientation prior to attending pre-service training. 2. Entry Level Correctional Officer (CO) basic training is essential/is a prerequisite for the new CO with a minimum of _____ weeks long or a minimum of _____ classroom hours. 3. Impart some sense of the stages of evolution that anyone goes through when entering a new and difficult career. The basic CO training needs to be long enough for the new officers to bond with each other, learn the organizational culture and feel part of the new organization. 4. Basic CO training should be comprehensive and sufficiently long enough to meet the requirements of the Standards for ACA Accreditation and to cover all the topics for a C.O. to do a good job. 5. Basic C.O. training should equate to state peace officer training and should impart peace officer license. 6. Subject to annual review, all topics should be approved for subject and actual content by the SMEs in the organization and further reviewed by legal counsel. This needs to be documented with a copy of the current lesson plan, copy of all handouts or visuals, information on the instructor(s) and a brief justification on why each topic is taught and that it meets current guidelines. 7. Basic CO training content should be interactive and stimulating. Training must be clearly connected to job requirements applying examples of practical corrections work to training content. 8. Basic CO training delivery must employ principles of educational technology in designing lesson plans, audio/visual aids, computer based training, and training manuals. There should be classroom training, demonstration, and guided practice. 9. Basic training should be provided using the principle and theories of adult learning to assist CO's to learn in a creative, educationally sound, pleasant, and safe environment. Such training should also incorporate strong hands-on (skill demonstration) components. 10. All trainers need to be carefully screened and selected. Then they are to be provided with a _____ hour trainer certification program. Reliance on adjunct trainer's should _____/should not _____ be at a minimum. 	
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	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. In such a pre-service training, trainers should be empathetic and apply reflective listening skills in providing feedback to a CO trainee in a non-threatening manner and showing ways to improve future performance. Trainee should be provided feedback on a daily ___/weekly___/monthly__ basis. 12. To ensure competency, upon completion of basic training course, conduct at least a _____hour On the Job Training (OJT) with a Field Training Officer (FTO) back at the assigned institution. It should be completed prior to being assigned a post. This reality check needs to be tied to tours and periods of observation of the facilities where they will work and exposing them to the people they will work with and the conditions they will work under. 13. All CO's must be evaluated for appropriateness for the position and training. Each new officer needs to go through a thorough physical/mental fitness test and evaluation at the beginning of the academy. 14. All CO's must meet all the same basic objectives determined through a job task analysis. An understanding that much of what the officer does is driven by legal requirements and that there can be serious legal repercussions should errors be made in these key areas. 15. The trainee should at least have a GED___/Some ___College Credit Hours/Associates Degree_____/Bachelors_____/Masters Degree_____. 16. A pre-service training course for CO's needs to be designed to meet the educational level of its students. 17. Curricula, lesson plans, quality of instructors, physical environment, and equipment should be properly assessed in determining a quality program of training. Basic CO training should be based on CO occupational job analysis devised by a diverse curriculum and design team. 18. Train CO's in the specific skills an officer needs. This includes both general training, and training that is specific to agency or institution policies and procedures. 19. CO training should address: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Physical/Medical fitness- to rise to the needs of the job; Educational fitness – to communicate and to make reports; Emotional/Mental fitness – to stand the stresses of the job; Attitudinal fitness – to show proper attitude to their charges, colleagues and to the institution. The importance of using verbal tools and skills over physical force as the proper way of dealing with most situations. 20. Monitor the outcomes of pre-service training. Determine whether or not it meet's the needs of the potential officers. Is the officer able to perform the duties of the position? Is the supervisor satisfied with the ability of the officer to perform the duties? 	
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Additional training needs or comments:

DELPHI ROUND II (b)

NAME _____
INSTRUCTIONS: Please review the following list which consists of 38 areas identified as most important knowledge in the first probe. Each is a topic that one of you felt should be addressed in an entry-level correctional officer pre-service training. The topics are in no particular order. Indicate the 19 most important knowldgw needs of the 38 using a check (✓) mark. Then rank the 19 you have selected (using numerals 1 through 19). Please regard "1" as the most important. A ranking of "1" will be assigned nineteen points; "2" will be given eighteen points; and "19" will be given one point. Please feel free to add topics or make any comment. Insert appropriate choice(s) when a particular question calls for it. Please feel free to add knowledge needs of COs or make any comment

Most Important Knowledge	Rank of Selected Items	Most important areas of Knowledge for entry level Correctional Officer:	Comments:
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		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Interpersonal Relations/Communication to include crisis intervention, conflict resolution, etc. 2. Knowledge of Defensive Tactics/Use of Force/Restraints and other issues dealing with care, custody and confinement of prisoners/inmates/offenders. 3. Knowledge of Security Procedures/Offender Classification/Offender Disciplinary process. 4. Job Requirement/Expectations of the Job: Role in the Agency. 5. Constitutional/Statutory Laws, Correctional Policies, Procedures, Practices based on Post Orders and other specific expectations for Jobs and Tasks the officer will encounter. 6. Awareness of the environment of a prison and the potentiality of being set up. Areas of vulnerability for CO's; an understanding of boundary and the proper role and relation between officer and inmate/offender. 7. Knowledge of Abnormal Psychology, Criminal Thinking, and Anti-Social Personality; an understanding of Human Development and Behavior including the knowledge of how people respond to stressful situation and Stress Management. The impact of incarceration on offenders and staff. 8. Knowledge that everyone deserves to be treated with dignity and respect, to include all staff/employees and inmates/offenders. 9. Knowledge of appropriate Sentencing Structures, and Municipal, County, State and Federal guidelines concerning the supervision of prisoners. 10. Basic understanding of the psychology of personality types, as well as some insight into their own preferred work-style and awareness of own strengths and weaknesses. 11. Knowledge of the Rights and Responsibilities of offenders/inmates. 12. Knowledge of the Criminal Justice System, including sentencing and organizational theories. 13. Knowledge of Use of Force philosophy, policies and procedures. 	
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		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 14. Understanding of correctional philosophy, agency vision, mission, strategic plan, purposes and goals. 15. Ethnic/cultural/social/religious differences; the importance and advantages of workplace diversity. 16. Knowledge of assigned Post, Basic Security Practices including Knowledge of Equipment's and Tools; Weapons, Counts, Tool control, Searches, Escapes, Alarms, Fire, Riots, Key Control, and Contraband Control. 17. Ethics/ Morality/Values and Professionalism. 18. Correctional/Departmental History and Culture. 19. Knowledge of Employee/Staff Rules, Rights, Regulations and Responsibilities. 20. Knowledge of ACA standards and other Jail & Prison Management issues. 21. Career Development and Retirement Planning. Benefits and opportunities of their position. 22. Knowledge of Offender Types, Patterns, Mental make-up and their strengths and weaknesses as a human being. 23. Knowledge of relevant technology/computer/hardware/software. 24. Drug Identification. 25. Chain of Command: what it means and how it works. 26. Restorative Practices. 27. Understanding Facility Operations and how it fits the CJS. 28. Report Writing, consistency and proper format. 29. Suicide Prevention and Deaths in Correctional Institutions. 30. First Aid/CPR 31. Knowledge of Inmate Behavior/Culture/Supervision/Management. 32. Group dynamics, Leadership and Interpersonal Interaction. 33. Knowledge of Teamwork. 34. Knowledge of Available Training and what they are expected to accomplish. 35. Knowledge of law & policies on Harassment, Discrimination and Workplace issues such as Privacy, People with Disabilities, and Violence in the Workplace. 36. Knowledge of Daily Procedures, Logging/Recording and Officer Survival/Self Defense. 37. Knowledge of Facility Manuals regarding CO Dress Code, Employee Conduct Standard, Discipline, Salary Structure, Promotion Rules, Insurance & Benefits, and Personnel policies & procedures. 38. Knowledge of relationship between resources and individual needs. 	
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Additional knowledge needs or comments:

DELPHI ROUND II (c)

NAME _____

INSTRUCTIONS: Please review the following list which consists of 38 areas identified as **most important skills** in the first probe. Each is a skill that one of you felt should be addressed in an entry-level Correctional officer pre-service training. **The skills are in no particular order.** Indicate the 20 most important skills of the 40 using a check (✓) mark. Then rank the 20 you have selected (using numerals 1 through 20). Please regard "1" as the most important. A ranking of "1" will be assigned twenty points; "2" will be given nineteen points; and "20" will be given one point. Please feel free to add topics or make any comment. Insert appropriate choice(s) when a particular question calls for it. Please feel free to add skills needs of COs or make any comment

Most Important Skills	Rank of Selected Items	Most important areas of Skills for entry level Correctional Officer:	Comments:
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		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Communication: verbal and non-verbal; especially interpersonal. 2. Leadership. 3. Role Modeling/Mentoring and Supervision (Lead/Direct). 4. Problem Solving/Negotiation/Arbitration/Mediation.Conflict Resolution/Violence de-escalation/Crisis intervention. 5. Ability to understand and work well with various cultures, contexts, and situations. 6. Capacity to make decisions based on facts of the situation along with skills to weigh conflicting values. 7. Ability to listen, learn and follow directions/orders. 8. Writing Skills. 9. Technical skills: restraints, firearms, weapons retention, OC spray/chemical agents application, key control and searches of various types. 10. Awareness of the environment. 11. Supervision skills centered on safety and security issues. 12. Physical training skills, such as self-defense/defensive tactics/prisoner control and non-violent intervention. 13. Skills to handle individuals with special needs, including mentally ill offenders. 14. People Skills; skills to get along with supervisors and coworkers. 15. Effective time management skills. 16. Skills to deal with situations when & where CO's have little or no control. 17. Crisis Intervention/First responder skills -administering CPR & First Aid. 18. Basic Computer usage skills. 19. Analytical and Management skills. 20. Ability to display concerns for others and Motivational Skills. 21. Community and Public Relations skills. 22. Team Building. 	
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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 23. Observation skills. 24. Proper use of Authority/Skills in dealing with power in a reasonable manner. 25. Communication with co-workers and inmates/offenders/"verbal judo". 26. Presentation/Skills to testify in a court of law. 27. Communication with non-English speaker or hearing/sight impaired. 28. Mental conditioning and Survival tactics. 29. Human Relations: Ability to create relationship, win the trust of their charges and the ability to influence them in a positive way. 30. Responsible Decision making/Judgement and Deception detection skills. 31. Offender movement/Escort Techniques. 32. Group dynamics: advising inmates in groups and individually. 33. Skills to use lawful rewards and punishments (Behavior Modification). 34. Fairheadedness/Level-headed: skills to deal with potential & real grudges. 35. Driving Skills: Defensive and Evasive driving. 36. Demonstrating Calmness/Self-control/Anger Management both of selves and others. 37. Creative questioning of self and others. 38. Supportive group behavior/Political Skills. 39. Vigilance to duty and responsibility. 40. Skills to inventory and operate equipments and tools. 	
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Additional skills needs or comments:

DELPHI ROUND II (d)

<p>NAME _____</p>
<p>INSTRUCTIONS: Please review the following list which consists of 80 areas identified as most important <u>values</u> in the first probe. Each is an item that one of you felt should be an important area of values an entry-level correctional officer must possess. <i>The values needs are listed in no particular order.</i> Indicate the 40 most important values by placing a check (✓) mark. Then rank the 40 choices below (using numerals 1 through 40). Please regard "1" as the most important. A ranking of "1" will be assigned forty points; "2" will be given thirty-nine points; and "40" will be given one point. Please feel free to add values needs of COs or make any comment.</p>

Most Important Values	Rank of Selected Items	Most important areas of Values for entry level correctional officer:	Comments:
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		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Value of what is right over legal. 2. Honesty 3. Courage. 4. Integrity and concern for the good. 5. Empathy and having the desire to understand other's perspective. 6. Trustworthiness. 7. Dependability. 8. Accountability. 9. Desire to help others. 10. Compassion. 11. Commitment. 12. Responsibility. 13. Willingness to do what is right over what is expedient. 14. Avoid malfeasance of duty. 15. Respect for life/self and others. 16. Open mindedness. 17. Sense of Justice. 18. Loyalty (but not blind) to the organization and co-workers; being loyal to the law, departmental practices and procedures. 19. Mentoring. 20. Desire to work with others. 21. Sense of humor. 22. Flexibility and need for multiple perspectives and solutions. 23. Courtesy. 24. Self-directed/Self motivated. 25. Emotionally stable. 26. Consistency. 27. Optimism. 28. Punctuality. 29. Sincere 30. Adaptable/change oriented. 31. Cooperative. 32. Perceptive. 33. Analytical. 34. Credible. 35. Assertive. 36. Neat personal appearance. 	
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	<p>37. Value of what is right over what is legal.</p> <p>38. Pride in oneself and the job.</p> <p>39. Respectful.</p> <p>40. Leader.</p> <p>41. Self-restrained.</p> <p>42. Value Human Dignity.</p> <p>43. Equal treatment of People.</p> <p>44. Fairness.</p> <p>45. Firmness.</p> <p>46. Sense of personal and professional self-worth.</p> <p>47. Understanding of the value and importance of diversity.</p> <p>48. Understanding the intrinsic value of all people.</p> <p>49. Holding selves to high standards.</p> <p>50. Belief the human beings can change/reform and knowing the value of helping inmates/offenders adjust.</p> <p>51. Development of healthy, supportive relationships among staff and organization responsiveness to staff needs.</p> <p>52. Striving for Excellence in personal leadership, judgement & professional actions.</p> <p>53. Loyalty to Principles and Values.</p> <p>54. Active participation in the development & accomplishment of organizational objectives.</p> <p>55. Sense of fair play/advocate for inmates depending on the circumstance(s).</p> <p>56. Honest communication with inmate/offender families.</p> <p>57. Belief in human worthiness.</p> <p>58. Mutual responsibility for maintaining safe and secure facilities and for modeling societies mainstream values.</p> <p>59. Enthusiasm.</p> <p>60. Comfortableness with chaotic situations.</p> <p>61. Being a "stand-up" person.</p> <p>62. An understanding of power in order to avoid abuse of this power.</p> <p>63. Strong morals and high ethical standards.</p> <p>64. Promotion of physically and emotionally sound environment.</p> <p>65. Respect for Laws and Due Process.</p> <p>66. Belief that Correctional Security is a worthy public profession.</p> <p>67. Ensure high standards of safety, security, sanitation and discipline.</p> <p>68. Authenticity.</p> <p>69. Confidence and application of proper authority.</p> <p>70. Love of life and laughter.</p> <p>71. Positive outlook.</p> <p>72. Having the perspective of Career vs Job, and Profession vs Occupation.</p> <p>73. Humanity.</p> <p>74. Understanding and implementation of Code of Conduct.</p> <p>75. Desire to learn.</p> <p>76. Avoidance of favoritism.</p> <p>77. Team player- support peers/supervisors/command.</p> <p>78. Giving importance to keeping word and not making false promises.</p> <p>79. Willing to work for more than money.</p> <p>80. Value Community Involvement.</p>	
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Additional values needs or comments:

APPENDIX G

DELPHI ROUND II
E-MAIL
FOLLOW UP

Date:

Email @ email address

Dear :

I hope you have had a chance to review the Delphi Round II questionnaire by now. I anxiously wait to hear back from you because I'm eager to include your valuable opinion on Correctional Officer knowledge, values, skills and training needs, as I prepare the Delphi Round III. I intend to finalize the instrument as soon as I receive your response.

If you already have mailed back the completed questionnaire pardon my intrusion and please accept my thanks. If for one reason or the other you may not have been able to get to it yet, won't you please do it today and kindly mail the completed Delphi Round II my way!

Thank you again for sacrificing some of your valuable time to participate in my study.
Ever grateful yours,

Emran

APPENDIX H
COVER LETTER
AND
DELPHI ROUND III PROBE

October 3, 2000

«Title» «FirstName» «LastName»
«JobTitle»
«Company»
«Address1»
«Address2»
«City», «State»«PostalCode»

Dear «Title» «LastName»:

I would like to thank you for responding to the second round of my survey to identify the learning and performance needs of correctional officers. I am very pleased with the responses from the second questionnaire mailed to you on September 3, 2000. In the second questionnaire I asked you to select and rank the 19 most important areas of knowledge, 20 most important skills, 40 most important values, and 10 most important areas of training needs for entry level correctional officers.

Delphi panelists helped create a hierarchical structure from the responses of Delphi Round II. The Delphi ranking data was entered into a spreadsheet program Microsoft Excel. Mean and Standard Deviations were calculated. When the means of two or more responses are tied, the response with the lower standard deviation was listed. If that did not resolve the choice, the most panelists voting for it was ranked highest. Identical or similar responses have been condensed based on panel member feedback. Additional recommendations made by panel members, if any, are included at the end of the tally.

In this third and hopefully the final questionnaire please examine the 19 "knowledge" needs, 20 "skills" needs, 35 "values" needs and 10 most important areas of "training" needs for entry level correctional officers. Notice that they appear according to their ranking alongside the number of ranking points received from the second questionnaire. Note, that this questionnaire uses a Likert-type scale of (4) highly relevant, (3) relevant, (2) insignificantly relevant, and (1) No relevance. You have the option of eliminating items you view as not essential for the category; likewise, add any items that you think are missing. Means and standard deviations will be calculated for each item with a score of 4 representing the highest degree of importance and 1 being the lowest.

Please complete this and return it in the self-addressed, stamped envelope I have enclosed. If you requested it, within a few months you will receive a copy of summary report of this Delphi study.

Please return the completed instrument to me at your earliest convenience, so that analysis may begin, by Tuesday, **October 17, 2000**. Again, thank you for your assistance. Your enthusiastic cooperation is most appreciated. I hope I can return the favor someday. Please call me with any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

Emran Wasim Khan, Local Administrator
Community Sentencing Division, ODOC
P. O. Box 2553, Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553

Doctoral Candidate
Human Resource Development
Oklahoma State University

DELPHI PROBE III (a)

NAME: _____

Directions: Following are nineteen (19) "Knowledge needs" recommendations from Round II of the Delphi process. *They are listed in order of highest ranking first.* The resultant Delphi Round II Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, and Statements are given. Identical or similar responses have been further condensed; additional recommendations made by panel members, if any, are included at the end of the tally. Please *read* each statement about the most important Knowledge Need(s) for entry-level correctional officer (CO) and circle the category that best describes your assessment of that item. Eliminate any items that you feel are not of utmost importance. Likewise, add any items that you think are missing. Means and standard deviations will be calculated for each item with a score of "4" representing Highly relevant recommendation, "3" for Relevant recommendation, "2" for being Insignificantly relevant and "1" for the lowest with No relevance. Please use the following legend:

Highly relevant Knowledge Need(s) to CO entry-level training (**HR**)

Relevant recommendation (**R**)

Insignificantly Relevant recommendation (**IR**)

No relevance; should not be a recommendation: *Eliminate* (**E**)

RANK

Mean Scores/ Standard Deviation

4.619048/ 4.242367

1). Knowledge of Interpersonal Relations/Communication to include crisis intervention, conflict resolution, etc.

HR R IR E

6.948718/ 4.639355

2). Knowledge of Security Procedures/Offender Classification/Offender Disciplinary process.

HR R IR E

7.185185/ 5.030958

3). Knowledge of Job Requirement/Expectations of the Job: CO's Role in the Agency, comprehension of the profession's vision and mission, along with an understanding of correctional philosophy and the Criminal Justice System.

HR R IR E

7.388889/ 4.888925

4). Knowledge of Defensive Tactics/Officer Survival/Use of Force/Self Defense/Restraints and other issues dealing with care, custody and confinement of prisoners/inmates/offenders in accordance with the policies and procedures and with philosophical clarity.

HR R IR E

7.444444/ 6.141494

5). Knowledge that everyone deserves to be treated with dignity and respect, to include all staff/employees and inmates/offenders including, but not limited to, knowledge of law & policies on Harassment, Discrimination and Workplace issues such as Privacy, People with Disabilities, and Violence in the Workplace.

HR R IR E

7.866667/ 6.584901

6). Knowledge of assigned Post, & Daily Procedures: Accurately logging/recording; Basic Security Practices, including Knowledge of Equipment's and Tools; Weapons, Counts, Tool control, Searches, Escapes, Alarms, Fire, Riots, Key Control, and Contraband Control.

HR R IR E

8.142857/ 5.242041

7). Knowledge of Constitutional/Statutory Laws, Correctional Policies, Procedures, Practices based on Post Orders and other specific expectations for Jobs and Tasks the officer will encounter which should be complemented by knowledge of Rights & Responsibilities of Offenders/Inmates.

HR R IR E

RANK Mean/ Standard Deviation

- 8.756757/ 5.122962
 8). Knowledge of the environment of a prison/jail/correctional facility and the potentiality of being set up. Areas of vulnerability for CO's; an understanding of boundary and the proper role and relation between officer and inmate/offender.
HR R IR E
 8.818182/ 5.300086
- 9). Knowledge of Ethics/ Morality/Values and Professionalism.
HR R IR E
 10.22222/ 5.250153
- 10). Knowledge of Employee/Staff Rules, Rights, Regulations and Responsibilities.
HR R IR E
 10.23077/ 4.860516
- 11). Knowledge of Inmate Behavior/Culture/Supervision/Management.
HR R IR E
 10.375/ 4.518681
- 12). Knowledge of First Aid/Cardio Pulmonary Resuscitation (CPR)
HR R IR E
 10.46667/ 5.029111
- 13). Knowledge of Suicide Prevention and Deaths in Correctional Institutions.
HR R IR E
 10.61905/ 4.89363
- 14). Knowledge of Offender Types, Patterns, Mental make-up, Abnormal psychology and understanding of human development.
HR R IR E
 10.85714/ 3.958577
- 15). Correctional/Departmental History and Culture.
HR R IR E
 10.875/ 3.796145
- 16). Knowledge of Leadership.
HR R IR E
 10.90909/ 4.887833
- 17). Knowledge of ACA standards and other Jail/Prison/Correctional facilities Management issues.
HR R IR E
 11.05882/ 5.684085
- 18). Knowledge of the psychology of personality types, insight into own preferred work-style and awareness of strength and weaknesses.
HR R IR E
 11.05882/ 5.76054
- 19). Knowledge of writing accurate & timely reports maintaining consistency and proper format.
HR R IR E
- Other topics/Assessment Level (HR, R, IR, E),
 Comments: _____

Please return in the self stamped and addressed enclosed envelope or mail to:

Emran Wasim Khan, CCE
 P. O. Box 2553
 Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553

DELPHI PROBE III (b)

NAME: _____

Directions: Following are the twenty (20) "Skills Needs" recommendations from Round II of the Delphi process. *They are listed in order of highest ranking first.* The resultant Delphi Round II mean scores and the standard deviation score for each statement of all the responses are noted. Identical or similar responses have been further condensed; additional recommendations made by panel members, if any, are included at the end of the tally. Please *read* each statement about the **most important Skills** for entry-level correctional officer (CO) and **circle the category that best describes your assessment** of that item. Eliminate any items that you feel are not of utmost importance. Likewise, add any items that you think are missing. Means and standard deviations will be calculated for each item with a score of "4" representing Highly relevant recommendation, "3" for Relevant recommendation, "2" for being Insignificantly relevant and "1" for scoring the lowest with No relevance. Please use the following legend:

Highly relevant Skills to CO entry-level training (**HR**)

Relevant recommendation (**R**)

Insignificantly Relevant recommendation (**IR**)

No relevance; should not be a recommendation: *Eliminate* (**E**)

RANK

	Mean score/ Standard Deviation				
1.	3.47619/ 4.62885				
	Communication Skills: verbal and non-verbal; especially interpersonal.	HR	R	IR	E
2.	6.432432/ 4.343197				
	Conflict Resolution/Violence de-escalation/Crisis intervention.	HR	R	IR	E
3.	7.181818/ 4.726617				
	Problem Solving/Negotiation/Arbitration/Mediation.	HR	R	IR	E
4.	7.870968/ 5.031514				
	People Skills; skills to get along with supervisors and co-workers.	HR	R	IR	E
5.	8.53125/ 4.655793				
	Ability to understand and work well with various cultures, contexts, and situations.	HR	R	IR	E
6.	8.6/ 5.623841				
	Observation Skills.	HR	R	IR	E
7.	8.675/ 5.631357				
	Ability to listen, learn and follow directions/orders.	HR	R	IR	E
8.	9.478261/ 6.458747				
	Leadership, Role Modeling/Mentoring and Supervision (Lead/Direct).	HR	R	IR	E
9.	10/ 4.830459				
	Skills to deal with situations when & where CO's have little or no control.	HR	R	IR	E

RANK

Mean Scores/Standard Deviation

10.09677/ 5.491538

10. Demonstrating Calmness/Self-control/Anger Management both of selves and others.

HR R IR E

10.1/ 5.599812

11. Fairheadedness/Level-headed: skills to deal with potential & real grudges.

HR R IR E

10.24/ 4.754647

12. Awareness of the environment.

HR R IR E

10.48/ 4.473254

13. Capacity to make decisions based on facts of the situation along with skills to weigh conflicting values.

HR R IR E

10.53333/ 6.218622

14. Vigilance to duty and responsibility.

HR R IR E

10.55263/ 5.726644

15. Crisis Intervention/First responder skills -administering CPR & First Aid.

HR R IR E

10.57692/ 4.365071

16. Responsible Decision making/Judgement and Deception detection skills.

HR R IR E

10.71429/ 5.442338

17. Human Relations: Ability to create relationship, win the trust of their charges and the ability to influence them in a positive way.

HR R IR E

10.83333/ 4.875107

18. Creative questioning of self and others.

HR R IR E

11/ 5.426627

19. Physical Training Skills, such as self-defense/defensive tactics/prisoner control and non-violent intervention.

HR R IR E

11.31579/ 4.997866

20. Writing Skills.

HR R IR E

Additional recommendation by Delphi panel member(s):

- a. Skills and ability to deal with an offender of opposite sex: HR R IR E

- b. Ability to understand the behavior of a mentally disturbed inmate/offender, and the consequences of his behavior: HR R IR E

Other Skills Need(s)/Assessment Level, Comments: _____

Please return in the self stamped and addressed enclosed envelope or mail to:

Emran Wasim Khan, CCE
P. O. Box 2553, Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553

DELPHI PROBE III (c)

NAME: _____

Directions: Following are thirty-five (35) "Values" recommendations from Round II of the Delphi process. *They are listed in order of highest ranking first.* The resultant mean scores and the standard deviation scores from Delphi Round II for each statement of all the responses are noted. Identical or similar responses have been further condensed; additional recommendations made by panel members, if any, are included at the end of the tally. Please *read* each statement about the **most important Values** for entry-level correctional officer (CO) and circle the category that best describes your assessment of that item. Eliminate any items that you feel are not of utmost importance. Likewise, add any items that you think are missing. Means and standard deviations will be calculated for each item with a score of "4" representing Highly relevant recommendation, "3" for Relevant recommendation, "2" for Insignificantly Relevant recommendation and "1" scoring the lowest with No relevance. Please use the following legend:

Highly relevant Values to CO entry-level training (HR)

Relevant recommendation (R)

Insignificantly Relevant recommendation (IR)

No relevance; should not be a recommendation: Eliminate (E)

RANK

	Mean score/ Standard Deviation				
1.	4.325/ 5.915592	Honesty.	HR	R	IR E
2.	7.057143/ 8.761355	Integrity and concern for the good.	HR	R	IR E
3.	7.8/ 9.807027	Value of what is right over what is legal or expedient.	HR	R	IR E
4.	10.17143/ 9.844335	Trustworthiness.	HR	R	IR E
5.	12.5/ 12.66698	Credibility & truthfulness: keeping word & not making false promises.	HR	R	IR E
6.	12.6/ 11.4149	Fairness, respect for laws and due process	HR	R	IR E
7.	13.05556/ 9.058365	Dependability.	HR	R	IR E
8.	13.89744/ 12.22335	Responsibility.	HR	R	IR E
9.	14.28571/ 13.13664	Courage.	HR	R	IR E

RANK

	Mean score/	Standard Deviation				
	14.35294/	10.24512				
10. Value Human Dignity/Respect for life: self and (diverse) others.			HR	R	IR	E
	15.26087/	12.45069				
11. Professionalism: Striving for excellence in personal leadership, judgement & professional actions.			HR	R	IR	E
	15.37037/	9.735534				
12. Commitment.			HR	R	IR	E
	15.86957/	9.974077				
13. Accountability.			HR	R	IR	E
	16/	9.739463				
14. Loyalty (but not blind) to the organization and co-workers; being loyal to the law, departmental practices and procedures.			HR	R	IR	E
	16/	9.985283				
15. Cooperative/Helpful.			HR	R	IR	E
	16.4/	10.01998				
16. Emotional stability.			HR	R	IR	E
	16.77143/	10.91164				
17. Flexibility with multiple perspectives for solutions.			HR	R	IR	E
	16.81481/	11.57928				
18. Firmness.			HR	R	IR	E
	17.17391/	8.288284				
19. Mutual responsibilities for maintaining safe and secure facilities and for modeling societies mainstream values.			HR	R	IR	E
	17.84848/	10.50334				
20. Empathy and having the desire to understand other's perspective.			HR	R	IR	E
	17.89655/	10.26904				
21. Compassion.			HR	R	IR	E
	17.90909/	10.89542				
22. Confidence and application of proper authority with an understanding of power: its use and misuse.			HR	R	IR	E
	18.25/	11.28253				
23. Optimism/Positive Outlook.			HR	R	IR	E

RANK

Mean score/ Standard Deviation

18.5/ 9.699843

24. Consistency.

HR R IR E

18.73333/ 11.72952

25. Assertiveness.

HR R IR E

18.84615/ 9.998718

26. Strong morals and high ethical standards.

HR R IR E

19.15152/ 11.95074

27. Sense of Justice.

HR R IR E

19.17647/ 8.46909

28. Open-mindedness.

HR R IR E

19.42105/ 11.85709

29. Holding selves to high standards.

HR R IR E

19.45161/ 12.12391

30. Sense of humor.

HR R IR E

19.53333/ 10.37763

31. Sense of personal and professional self-worth.

HR R IR E

19.6/ 10.50013

32. Belief that human beings can change/reform and knowing the value of helping inmates/offenders adjust.

HR R IR E

19.76923/ 11.15099

33. Pride in oneself and the job.

HR R IR E

20.04/ 11.97038

34. Desire to work with others/Teamwork.

HR R IR E

20.17857/ b 12.25668

35. Cleanliness/Neatness.

HR R IR E

Other /Assessment

Level: _____

Please return in the self stamped and addressed enclosed envelope or mail to:

Emran Wasim Khan, CCE
P. O. Box 2553, Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553

DELPHI PROBE III (d)

NAME: _____

Directions: Following are the ten (10) "Training Needs" recommendations from Round II of the Delphi process. *They are listed in order of highest ranking first.* The resultant Delphi Round II Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, and Statements are given. Identical or similar responses have been further condensed; additional recommendations made by panel members, if any, are included at the end of the tally. Please *read* each statement about the most important Training Need(s) for entry-level correctional officer (CO) and circle the category that best describes your assessment of that item. Eliminate any items that you feel are not of utmost importance. Likewise, add any items that you think are missing. Means and standard deviations will be calculated for each item with a score of "4" representing Highly relevant recommendation, "3" for Relevant recommendation, (2) for being Insignificantly relevant and "1" for being the lowest with No relevance. Please use the following legend:

Highly relevant Training Need(s) to CO entry-level training (**HR**)

Relevant recommendation (**R**)

Insignificantly Relevant recommendation (**IR**)

No relevance; should not be a recommendation: *Eliminate* (**E**)

RANK

Mean Scores/ Standard Deviation/ Statements

3.4/ 2.542274

1). Basic CO training should be comprehensive and sufficient length to cover at a minimum those topics required by ACA standards.

HR **R** **IR** **E**

3.925926/ 3.011847

2). Entry Level Correctional Officer (CO) basic training is essential/is a prerequisite for the new CO with a minimum of (please circle or insert, as appropriate) 3/ 4/ 5/ 6/ 7/ 8/ 10/ 12 weeks long or a minimum of 120/ 160/ 200/ 240/ 280/ 320/ 400/ 480/ 560/ classroom hours.

HR **R** **IR** **E**

4.5/ 3.316625

3). A pre-service training course for CO's needs to be designed to meet the educational level of its students. It should be provided using the principles of adult learning and components of hands-on (skill demonstration). Trainees should be regularly provided feedback.

HR **R** **IR** **E**

4.642857/ 2.641749

4). All trainers need to be carefully screened and selected. Then they are to be provided with a (please circle or insert: as appropriate) 8/ 30/ 40/ 80/ hour trainer certification program. Reliance on adjunct trainer's should /should not be at a minimum.

HR **R** **IR** **E**

4.809524/ 3.458599

5). Newly hired CO's should participate in (please circle or insert: as appropriate) 3/ 8/ 20/ 24/ 32/ 40/ 80 hours of Institutional Orientation prior to attending pre-service training. Upon completion of training the CO should participate in at least 20 24/ 80/ 200/ 240/ hours of On-the-Job Training (OJT).

HR **R** **IR** **E**

4.944444/ 2.73264

6). Training should be clearly connected to job requirements applying examples of practical Corrections work to training-content. Subject to annual review, all topics should be approved for subject and actual content by the Subject-Matter-Experts (SME's) in the organization and further reviewed by legal counsel. This needs to be documented with a copy of the current lesson plan, copy of all handouts or visuals, information on the instructor(s) and a brief justification on why each topic is taught and that it meets current guidelines. Monitor the outcome of training to determine if it meets the need(s).

HR **R** **IR** **E**

RANK

Mean/Standard Deviation

5.148148/ 2.50697

7). Train CO's in the specific skills an officer needs determined through a Job Task Analysis and in compliance with the law. This includes both general training, and training that is specific to agency or institution policies and procedures.

HR R IR E

5.384615/ 2.483174

8). CO training should address:

- Physical/Medical fitness- to rise to the needs of the job;
- Educational fitness – to communicate and to make reports;
- Emotional/Mental fitness – to stand the stresses of the job;
- Attitudinal fitness – to show proper attitude to their charges, colleagues and to the institution. The importance of using verbal tools and skills over physical force as the proper way of dealing with most situation

HR R IR E

5.416667/ 2.465707

9). Curricula, lesson plans, quality of instructors, physical environment, and equipment should be properly assessed in determining a quality program of training. Basic CO training should be based on CO occupational job analysis devised by a diverse curriculum and design team's need(s) assessment.

HR R IR E

5.5/ 3.794733

10). The trainee should at least have a (please circle or insert: as appropriate) GED___/High School Diploma/Some ___ College Credit Hours/Associates Degree ___/Bachelors _____.

HR R IR E

Other recommendation(s)/Assessment Level (HR, R, IR, E), Comments:

Please return in the self stamped and addressed enclosed envelope or mail to:

Emran Wasim Khan, CCE
 P. O. Box 2553
 Stillwater, OK. 74076-2553

APPENDIX I
DELPHI ROUND III E-MAIL
FOLLOW UP LETTER

Date:

email@ emailaddress

RE: DELPHI ROUND III

Dear :

I appreciate your continued participation in my research project to identify the learning and performance needs of correctional officers. On October 3, I mailed the Delphi Round III questionnaire which contained a compilation of Delphi Round II responses. If you have already completed the Delphi Round III probe and returned it my way, please accept my many many thanks for your taking part in this survey.

Nevertheless, I know that often with the best interest(s) in mind, hectic busy schedules of our lives compete with the limited time available and may occasionally rob away the available energy to render what one may even desire to do! If for one reason or the other you have not had the chance to respond to the Delphi Round III instrument yet, please know that I value your opinion and I hope that you'll take a moment to kindly complete it now. As soon as you make your choices on the Likert-type scale of the instrument I request your favor to return it to me, so that analysis may begin, as soon as I receive your response!

Also, please let me know: (1) if it is OK with you for me to list your name and formal/work address in my dissertation? (2) Will it be OK for me to share your name and formal/work address with other panel members? and (3) if you're interested in receiving a copy of the summarized findings and results of the study.

Again, thank you very much for your assistance. Your kind and enthusiastic cooperation is most appreciated. I certainly hope that I can return the favor some day! Please call me at (405)-372-5444 [Home] or (405) 377-6678 [Work], or page me at (405) 559-7738 with any question(s), concern(s) or suggestion(s) regarding this exploration.

Yours truly,

Emran.

APPENDIX J

CORRECTIONS OFFICER WORKER CHARACTERISTICS

Appendix J

Corrections Officer Worker Characteristics**A. Facility Specific Knowledge**

Knowledge of a facility's: general rules and procedures; inmate discipline, search/shakedown, and emergency procedures; physical layout, shift schedules, security and communication systems; inmate classification system; administrative and report writing forms and procedures.

B. Knowledge of the Legal System

Knowledge of the history and philosophy of the criminal justice system, of court procedures and forms, and of the state and federal laws pertaining to: criminal laws enforcement, arrest, search, and seizure; local detention and holding facilities (e.g., minimum jail standards); and to collection, preservation, and identification of evidence.

C. Psychological Training

Knowledge of: indicators of emotional disorders; human development; crisis intervention procedures; group leadership techniques; principles and practices of counseling in custodial/rehabilitative setting.

D. Street Knowledge

Knowledge of: inmate attitude and behavior; narcotics; gangs and gang behavior; and street terminology.

E. First Aid

Knowledge of and skill in: basic first aid and CPR principles, procedures, and techniques.

F. Using Firearms

Knowledge of and skill in use of firearms.

G. Operating Communications Equipment

Skill in the use of radio, intercom, switchboard, and other oral communications equipment.

H. Oral Communication

Skill in: giving clear verbal instructions/directions, testifying, and other oral communication; understanding and following oral instructions from others.

I. Reading

Skill in reading to: understand facility forms, reports, and manuals; understand/interpret laws, statutory laws, statutory codes, and court and other legal documents.

J. Written Communication

Knowledge of: grammar and spelling; skill in completing forms and writing understandable and legible reports.

K. Quantitative Skill

Skill in adding and subtracting.

L. Observation Acuity

Skill in: accurately observing, recalling, and documenting behavior, visual details (such as identification marks), and other events; discerning and assessing security-risk factors, signs of potential problems, and subtle changes in behavior patterns; remaining alert and aware, even during long periods of inactivity.

M. Driving

Skill in driving automobiles, vans, trucks, buses.

N. Self-defense/Physical Restraints of Others

Knowledge of and skills in: application of self-defense, physical restraint, riot control techniques and procedures; ability to apply the appropriate “use of force”.

O. Social Skills

Ability to maintain: discipline without causing unnecessary tension; effectiveness in working with others and interacting with diverse individuals and groups; consistency and fairness in dealing with others; insight, sensitivity, and concern for others’ feelings; tolerance for differences in values and beliefs; sense of humor.

P. Motivation/Dependability

Dependability and trustworthiness (e.g., coming to work on time, not abusing sick leave, assuming a fair share of workload); willingness to put in extra time and

- effort; persistency in seeking information; integrity in adhering to professional ethics; commitment to a facility's goals and objectives.
- Q. Stress Tolerance**
Tolerance for the stress of working in potentially dangerous environment; ability to maintain self-control when confronted with verbal harassment or threats; ability to stay calm and respond with composure in emergencies.
- R. Dominance/Self-esteem**
Assertiveness, self assurance, and decisiveness; ability to influence and confront others, to enforce rules, to interact confidently with high-status individuals (e.g. judges), to make decisions where there is no standard procedure, and to delegate responsibilities and duties properly.
- S. Non-autonomy**
Ability to work under close supervision; tolerance of highly structured/regimented work environment; willingness to obey authority.
- T. Flexibility**
Resourcefulness in thinking of alternative approaches (e.g., alternative treatment techniques, referral sources, etc); ability to adjust to new and unfamiliar situation/duties; resilience in coping with setbacks.
- U. Tolerance of Negative Aspects of the Job**
Tolerance of physically unpleasant work environments; ability to perform repetitive tasks effectively or tolerate long periods of inactivity.
- V. Searching**
Skill in conducting pat – and strip-searches and in searching cells/dorms, vehicles, and other areas.
- W. Vision and Hearing Abilities**
Daytime, nighttime, peripheral, and color vision; depth perception; hearing acuity to be able to detect subtle changes in noise levels and quiet sounds such as whispering or scuffling.
- X. Physical Abilities**
Upper body and leg strength; whole body coordination; manual dexterity and eye/hand coordination; endurance/stamina; and agility/flexibility.

APPENDIX K

CORRECTIONAL OFFICER TASK CATEGORIES
LINKING JOB TASKS TO WORKER CHARACTERISTICS

APPENDIX K

Correctional Officer task categories –
Linking job tasks to worker characteristics

Booking, Receiving, and Releasing

1. Obtaining information for booking purpose and filling out booking forms.
2. Searching, photographing, fingerprinting prisoners.
3. Logging inmate property, money; issuing IDs, clothing, and housing.
4. Reviewing court orders, dispositions; computing “good time”, “work time”, and release dates.
5. Performing paperwork for releases.

Escorting, Transporting

6. Verifying inmate identity.
7. Applying appropriate restraints.
8. Escorting inmates to desired locations inside or outside facility.

Record Keeping, Report Writing

9. Keeping routine records of inmate movement, personal data, activities, and authorized visitors.
10. Writing reports, dealing with inmate behavior and officer response (e.g., incident and disciplinary reports).

Supervising Non-inmate Movement, Visitors

11. Admitting, releasing, and logging inmate’s visitors.
12. Screening, searching visitors, and supervising visits.
13. Searching articles left by visitors for inmates.

Searching and Securing

14. Watching for potential disturbances, reporting emergencies, reporting emergencies, dispatching help, and investigating disturbances.
15. Locking and unlocking cells and gates; taking and verifying inmate counts and location and status of inmates; counting /logging keys.
16. Searching inmates; shaking down cells and dorms; performing security checks and rounds.

Supervising Inmates

17. Supervising inmate meals and recreation.
18. Supervising phone calls, inspecting mail.
19. Supervising inmate work, inspecting cells for cleanliness.
20. Getting inmates up and ready for work, court, etc.
21. Passing out supplies, bedding, and medication.

Communicating

22. Exchanging information with other shifts, control, maintenance crew, inmates, and visitors; making announcements, answering questions, conducting tours.

Physically Demanding Tasks

23. Physically subduing violent inmates; separating fighting inmates.
24. Lifting or dragging heavy objects (inmates or equipment).
25. Walking or standing extensively, running to scene of disturbance.

Miscellaneous Tasks

26. Administering CPR and first aid; extinguishing fires.
27. Dealing with emergencies: evacuating inmates or searching for missing/escaped inmates, on-the-spot counseling.
28. Attending staff and training meetings.
29. Reading logs, reports, memos, court documents.

Supervising Other Detention Facility Personnel

30. Assigning and evaluating work of other personnel.
31. Training or assisting other personnel.

Booking, Receiving, and Releasing

32. Obtaining information for booking purpose and filling out booking forms.
33. Searching, photographing, fingerprinting prisoners.
34. Logging inmate property, money; issuing IDs, clothing, and housing.
35. Reviewing court orders, dispositions; computing “good time”, “work time”, and release dates.
36. Performing paperwork for releases.

Escorting, Transporting

37. Verifying inmate identity.
38. Applying appropriate restraints.
39. Escorting inmates to desired locations inside or outside facility.

Record Keeping, Report Writing

40. Keeping routine records of inmate movement, personal data, activities, and authorized visitors.
41. Writing reports, dealing with inmate behavior and officer response (e.g., incident and disciplinary reports).

Supervising Non-inmate Movement, Visitors

42. Admitting, releasing, and logging inmate's visitors.
43. Screening, searching visitors, and supervising visits.
44. Searching articles left by visitors for inmates.

Searching and Securing

45. Watching for potential disturbances, reporting emergencies, reporting emergencies, dispatching help, and investigating disturbances.
46. Locking and unlocking cells and gates; taking and verifying inmate counts and location and status of inmates; counting /logging keys.
47. Searching inmates; shaking down cells and dorms; performing security checks and rounds.

Supervising Inmates

48. Supervising inmate meals and recreation.
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52. Passing out supplies, bedding, and medication.

Communicating

53. Exchanging information with other shifts, control, maintenance crew, inmates, and visitors; making announcements, answering questions, conducting tours.

Physically Demanding Tasks

54. Physically subduing violent inmates; separating fighting inmates.
55. Lifting or dragging heavy objects (inmates or equipment).
56. Walking or standing extensively, running to scene of disturbance.

Miscellaneous Tasks

57. Administering CPR and first aid; extinguishing fires.
58. Dealing with emergencies: evacuating inmates or searching for missing/escaped inmates, on-the-spot counseling.
59. Attending staff and training meetings.
60. Reading logs, reports, memos, court documents.

Supervising Other Detention Facility Personnel

61. Assigning and evaluating work of other personnel.
62. Training or assisting other personnel.

APPENDIX L

A CORRECTIONAL OFFICER'S JOB: DACUM

APPENDIX L
A correctional officer's job: DACUM (NAC, 1989)
by
The Oklahoma Department of Corrections (ODOC) &
The Oklahoma State University (OSU).

The following specifically details a Correctional Officer's job duties in order of criticality and importance and itemized what tasks actually are performed under each of the following categories such as: Maintaining Security (41% of total work time); Supervising Daily Inmate Activities (26 % of total work time); Maintaining Written Documentation (16%); Following Emergency Procedures (06 %); and Completing Other Duties As Assigned (11 %).

- I. A. Maintain Security (41% of total work time):
 - 1. Monitor inmate behavior (essential);
 - 2. Patrol perimeter, walk or drive depending on facility structure (essential);
 - 3. Conduct cell/room inspections (essential);
 - 4. Conduct security checks as required by facility (essential);
 - 5. Conduct outside building checks (essential);
 - 6. Count inmates and reconcile facility count (essential);
 - 7. Conduct shake downs (essential);
 - 8. Conduct searches of persons (essential);
 - 9. Conduct searches of vehicles (essential);
 - 10. Review logged information (essential);
 - 11. Conduct/attend shift briefing (essential);
 - 12. Control the use of tools, equipment's, chemicals, and supplies (essential);
 - 13. Operate control center operation (essential);

14. Communicate security-related information (essential);
 15. Place inmates in restraints (essential);
 16. Conduct emergency drills (essential);
 17. Control inmate personal property (essential);
 18. Confiscate contraband (essential);
 19. Carry firearms as assigned (marginal or essential depending on facility security level, post/assignment, and resources available);
 20. Maintain firearms security (marginal or essential depending on post/assignment and facility security level);
 21. Conduct inmate chemical tests (marginal).
- A. Supervise Daily Inmate Activities (26% of total work time):
1. Supervise recreation activities (essential);
 2. Supervise and evaluate performance of job duties assigned to inmates (essential);
 3. Transport inmates (essential);
 4. Monitor mail (essential);
 5. Issue medications (essential);
 6. Oversee inmate-housing assignments (essential);
 7. Enforce grooming code;
 8. Counsel and refer inmates (essential);
 9. Monitor inmate phone calls (marginal).
- C. Maintain Written Documentation (16%):
1. Make log entries (essential);

2. Conduct inventories (essential);
 3. Complete required reports (essential).
- D. Follow Emergency Procedures (06 %):
1. Conduct in-service training (marginal);
 2. Conduct CPR/first aid (essential);
 3. Assist with manhunts (marginal).
- E. Complete Other Duties As Assigned (11 %):
1. Complete in-service training (marginal);
 2. Serve temporarily in any post or position as assigned (marginal);
 3. Conduct inmate orientation (marginal);
 4. Conduct public relations activities (marginal);
 5. Serve as transitional development specialist (marginal);
 6. Dispense inmate payroll (marginal); and
 7. Investigate inmate offenses (marginal).

The results of the above-referred study also list the following work requirements and skills.

- II. A. Work Requirements:
1. Meet minimum qualifications specified by the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) for the position of Correctional Officer I;
 2. Successful completion of the training requirements for Correctional Officer Cadet;
 3. Willingness and ability to work rotating shifts, weekends, holidays, overtime hours as needed, reachable and available for emergencies, and report for work assignment punctually;

4. Physically able to meet the demands of the position and respond to emergencies.
- B. Skills:
1. Oral communication skills, ability to give clear instructions and relay accurate information;
 2. Written communication skills, ability to prepare reports;
 3. Reading and comprehension skills, ability to read and comprehend policy, procedure, post orders, instructions;
 4. Counting and math skills, ability to take and reconcile inventories, ability to count inmates and balance count;
 5. Willingness to follow written and oral instructions, orders; organizational and time management skills;
 6. Interpersonal skills, ability to work well with others, ability to deal fairly, effectively, and with sensitivity to persons of diverse racial, ethnic, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds and the persons of both sexes;
 7. Observational skills, ability to gather visual and auditory data, monitor behaviors and discern changes or unauthorized activity;
 8. Good judgement, ability to make quick good decisions and respond calmly under stressful or hostile conditions;
 9. Ability to conduct searches, move/lift objects, restrain and maintain custody of inmates, ability to defend oneself; and
 10. Ability to operate a vehicle safely.

APPENDIX M

LIST OF
NATIONAL & REGIONAL
PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

NATIONAL & REGIONAL PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The following is an alphabetical list of selected national and regional professional organizations invited to nominate “experts” for this study:

Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (ACJS),
Academy of Criminal Justice Training (ACJT),
American Correctional Association (ACA),
Bureau of Prisons (BOP),
California Correctional Peace Officers Association (CCPOA),
Criminal Justice Institute (CJI),
Corrections Corporation of America (CCA) ,
Corrections & Criminal Justice Coalition (CCJC),
International Association of Correctional Officers (IACO),
International Association for Correctional Training Personnel (IACTP),
International Association of Law Enforcement Planners (IALEP),
International Corrections and Prison Association (ICPA),
Management & Training Corporation (M&TC),
Middle Atlantic States Correctional Association (MASCA),
National Academy of Corrections (NAC),
National Association of Blacks in Criminal Justice (NABCJ),
National Institute of Corrections (NIC),
National Association of Counties (NAC),
National Sheriff’s Association (NSA),
New York State Correctional Officers & Police Benevolent Association (NYSCOPBA),
Office of International Criminal Justice (OICJ),
Oregon Criminal Justice Association (OCJA),
Regional Community Policing Institutes (RCPI),
Southern Criminal Justice Association (SCJA),
Southern States Correctional Association (SSCA),
U.S. Corrections Corporation (UCC),

NATIONAL & REGIONAL PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS (continued)

Western Correctional Association (WCA),

Wisconsin Association of Professional Correctional Officers (WAPCO), and

Wackenhut Corrections Corporation (WCC).

APPENDIX N

**“EXEMPT” INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW
BOARD APPROVAL FORM**

Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires:

Date Monday, April 24, 2000

IRB Application No: ED00254

Proposal Title: ANALYSIS OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICER PRE-SERVICE TRAINING IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Principal Investigator(s)

Emran W. Khan
PO Box 2553
Stillwater, OK 74076

William R. Venable
204 Willard
Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and
Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Signature :



Carol Olson, Director of University Research Compliance

4/24/00
Date

Approvals are valid for one calendar year, after which time a request for continuation must be submitted. Any modifications to the research project approved by the IRB must be submitted for approval with the advisor's signature. The IRB office MUST be notified in writing when a project is complete. Approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. Expedited and exempt projects may be reviewed by the full Institutional Review Board.,

7

VITA

Emran Wasim Khan

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor in Education

Thesis: ANALYSIS OF CORRECTIONAL OFFICER TRAINING IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Mymensingh, Bangladesh in October 1955, the son of Al Hajj Dr. A. R. Khan and Mrs. Helena Khan. Married to Mona Farzana-Khan. Daughter, Maisha Saiyara Khan and son, Zarif Wasim Khan.

Education: Graduated from Momenshahi Cadet College in 1974 with an IA Certificate. Received BSS (Honors) in 1979 and MSS in 1980 in International Relations from the University of Dhaka, Dhaka, Bangladesh. Received MBA in 1985, and MA in 1986 in Criminal Justice Management & Administration from the Central State University, Edmond, Oklahoma. Completed the requirements for Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in May, 2001.

Professional Experience: Local Administrator, Senior Correctional Training Officer, Grievance Review Officer, Senior Probation & Parole Officer, Probation & Parole Officer, Correctional Case Manager, Correctional Officer: all with the Oklahoma Department of Corrections; Detention Officer, Juvenile Justice Center in Oklahoma City; Certified Manager, Southland Corporation; Manager Trainee, Pizza Hut Inc.; Public Relations & Purchasing Officer, Assoc. of Indian Engg. & Int. Trade Fair.

Professional Organization: American Correctional Association, International Association of Correctional Training Personnel, the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, the Oklahoma Correctional Association, the American Jail Association, the International Community Corrections Association, the Southern States Correctional Association, the Toastmaster International, the American Society of Criminology and the International Association of Correctional Officers.