DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 034 151 AC 006 128

TITLE	Training for Corrections: Rationale and Techniques.
INSTITUTION	Southern Illinois Univ., Carbondale. Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections.
PUB DATE	69
NOTE	109p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC-$5.55
DESCRIPTORS	Audiovisual Aids, *Corrective Institutions. Films, Information Sources, *Inservice Education, Instructional Materials, *Manuals, Periodicals, *Professional Personnel, Program Evaluation, Resource Materials, Trainers, *Training Techniques

ABSTRACT

A manual focuses on how to teach in inservice training programs for professional personnel in correctional agencies. A chapter on rationale discusses training objectives and curriculum. A second chapter covers learning environment, lesson plans, and learning problems. One, on teaching techniques, covers lecture, group discussion, case study, in-basket technique, role playing, practicum, and cautions. A chapter on training tools discusses the blackboard, overhead projector, slide projector, movie projector, models, tape recorder (audio), tape recorder (video), and the library. A chapter covers program evaluation--from administrators, work supervisors, trainees, and other sources of information. Finally, a chapter covers the role of the training officer. Appendixes include a sample lesson plan, lists of film rental libraries, resource agencies, and a basic library of periodicals and books. (nl)

TRAINING FOR CORRECTIONS: RATIONALE AND TECHNIQUES

Center for the Study of Crime,
Delinquency, and Corrections
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Illinois

Grant No. 041
Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
U. S. Department of Justice

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FOREWORD

This manual is not intended to tell instructors what they should teach in in-service training programs of correctional agencies. Program content should be selected in accordance with the situation encountered by the particular agency. Situations differ according to the priorities set among the many personnel problems found in any organization. Each agency has its own network of relationships among its own divisions and with its sister agencies. Budgets and time set limits on what can be done at this particular point in the history of an agency. In short, the content of training should be selected to fit the particular circumstances which have stimulated the need for the training.

This manual centers attention on how to teach and, incidentally, ~~to~~ suggest principles pertinent to the development of a curriculum likely to be efficient in achieving the training purposes selected by the agency. The care of good training is an effective and highly motivated instructor. As a means of increasing the supply of such instructors, this manual addresses itself to the issues and teaching techniques of prime interest to the correctional employees whose instruction before flesh-and-blood classes will determine, after all, if the training is to be worthwhile.

The Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections, Southern Illinois University, assigned members of its staff to observe a number of in-service training programs conducted by correctional agencies. These observational visits were in conjunction with a project whereby training officers from correctional agencies located throughout the nation were brought to the Center for short courses. This project was supported by grants from the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, U. S. Department of Justice. The results of these observations are recorded in Grant Number 041, Interim Report, or Grant 041, Final Report. The field observations were supplemented by opportunities to join with the training officers attending the short courses in the examination of the crucial issues and teaching strategies germane to in-service training of correctional personnel. Other lively discussions were conducted in the field with correctional administrators, training officers, and the employees attending the courses conducted by the agencies. These discussions were on a practical level and were informative for Center staff members as well as the correctional personnel. In that sense, this manual is a product of the correctional personnel in the field as well as the Center staff.

We have been favorably impressed by the supply of competent and dedicated training officers encountered in our study. This

manual is intended to give tangible support and practical guidance to their worthy efforts; in addition, it is hoped that the manual will contribute to the growth of the numbers of training officers of this quality.

In the course of the observations, Center staff members noted certain patterns in instruction which merit improvement; the lecture method tended to be used excessively in spite of the existence of other methods more appropriate for certain kinds of teaching situations. Films were used widely, but there frequently was inadequate integration of the film into the course content. Patterns of this sort are significant because they reflect a serious deficiency in guidance of in-service trainers in the methods and skills of teaching. This manual is intended to reduce this deficiency.

The manual is the product of many minds because it draws on the professional literature of education and the efforts of both Center and correctional agency personnel. However, Dr. John Grenfell, of the Center is the author who has drawn together the many facets of the subject. He wants to acknowledge the editorial assistance and professional counsel of Dr. Elmer H. Johnson.

The manual is only one of the publications being developed by the Center in support of in-service training. Training officers are invited to request inclusion on the mailing

list for INSCAPE, a free, bi-monthly pamphlet reporting information on training aids and the general field of corrections. A collection of lesson plans will be available to training officers to lend practical guidance for teaching topics, especially pertinent to correctional settings. Those resources, supplemented by a local professional library, would be a sound basis for implementing the kind of quality training we all want for the field of corrections.

Charles V. Matthews
Director
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Delinquency, and Corrections

CHAPTER I

RATIONALE FOR TRAINING

INTRODUCTION

Training has always been an extremely important function of every organization. It is extremely important because every organization is unique in that specific skills must be developed to fit specific job requirements characteristic of a given organization. Yet the area of training is often neglected when administrators, pressed by budgetary concerns, are eager to make men productive as quickly as possible. In addition, administrators often assume that "common sense" is sufficient for the performance of tasks which in reality require intensive training. Few organizations have positions which require the ordinary use of "common sense" and few organizations encourage a climate which is conducive to the employees' use of "common sense".

Over the past few years, administrators have developed in increasing awareness of the need for more and better training. This development is evident in the proceedings of national and regional meetings where part of the program is devoted to some aspect of training. This pattern is particularly true in the field of corrections where national and regional meetings of the American Correctional Association and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency have spent considerable time on this

topic. With the increased complexity of correctional agencies in organizational structures which require a variety of task functions, security staff frequently is expected to go beyond mere physical containment of inmates and lend active support to industrial, educational, and other personality-changing programs. Furthermore, no organization is static. The current acceleration of change in corrections has magnified the need for in-service training to reduce the discrepancy between staff skills and new job responsibilities in unfamiliar situations.

Despite this recognition of the importance of training, the actual implementation of in-service training falls far short of the need. Fifty-six percent of the probation and parole systems and forty-one percent of the correctional institutions in the United States reported to the National Council on Crime and Delinquency that they had no organized in-service training programs.[1] In 1964, the Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency, and Corrections at Southern Illinois University sent questionnaires regarding training to 186 correctional institutions. Replies were received from 122. The results indicated that half of the institutions had no full-time training for beginning correctional officers.[2]

Since there had been a considerable emphasis on training needs in recent years, and since Southern Illinois University had received an Office of Law Enforcement Assistance Grant (#041) to train correctional staff training officers, it was decided to repeat distribution of the questionnaire in 1966. The results were approximately the same. One conclusion was that, despite the recurrent emphasis on training in journals and at meetings, very little change has occurred at the institution level. This lack of change may be attributed to lack of training personnel, lack of funds, lack of staff personnel time, or simply lack of support from staff. All that can be said with certainty is that all of the discussion had produced little activity in the direction of increased training activities.

More detailed information on the state of current in-service training was secured as a by-product of visits to prisons and reformatories of thirty states conducted by staff of the Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency, and Corrections. The impressions, listed below, are germane to the current topic because they indicate the wide range of factors which affect the planning and implementation of an effective in-service training program.

1. Most training programs in existence at correctional institutions have an extremely heavy emphasis on security and custody. Correctional officers receive only superficial information regarding other programs within the institution that contribute to the rehabilitation of the inmate.

2. There is almost no recognition of the importance of the correctional officer in the treatment and rehabilitation process for inmates. Staff must be made aware of the implications of research by Goffman,[3] Kassebaum, Ward and Wilner,[4] and Glaser[5] which indicate that the individuals who spend the most time with inmates (correctional officers and work supervisors) are the ones who exert the greatest impact, either positive or negative, on the inmate. Recognition must be made that the success or failure of rehabilitation efforts rests with the correctional staff and work supervisors. Few staff are aware of this impact and development of this issue may add meaning to the job and stimulate further interest in training and self-improvement.

3. Due to the emphasis on the need for security, the prison becomes a highly structured society with a tendency for large subgroups to form among inmates and staff. There is frequently little crossing of lines of communication between the various groups, such as security, treatment, education, industry or administrative staff. Generally, security staff stayed with security staff, teachers with teachers, treatment staff with treatment staff, and administrators with administrators. Occasionally, one would observe that officers in the same cell block tend to stay together. While this may be a natural phenomena, and it has certainly been observed in hospitals, schools, and factories, little effort is made to break down these subgroups in an effort to increase communication between them. One result of this high degree of structure is an impression that institution staff frequently felt they were doing time along with inmates.

4. This isolation is also found to exist between the prison and the outside community where very little dialogue had been established between prison staff and agencies within

the community. Most prisons have had outside agencies participating in prison programs. Unfortunately, breakdowns in communication occurred whereby community agencies had little understanding of the needs of prison personnel, became overly critical of prison programs, particularly those relating to security, caused defensive reactions on the part of prison staff, who in turn made personnel from service agencies feel unwelcome. This is further complicated by the experiences that a number of prisons have had with university or college personnel, who in looking for sources of research or practical experience in teaching and counseling, frequently "used" the prison without adequate explanations to prison staff. Attempts at communication were often made but the outcome frequently was that university personnel and personnel connected with prisons were unable to make their needs understood since they "talked" a different language. The natural result of this was a chaotic condition within the institution and its programs, which resulted in the institution placing obstacles in the way of visitors so that they no longer felt welcome and eventually the contact was terminated with both sides being extremely critical of the other.

5. Staff often hold pessimistic attitudes towards inmates in terms of the worth of the inmates, the amount of trust that can be placed with them, and exhibit little faith in rehabilitation programs. These attitudes are generally coupled with a lack of awareness that past programs with an emphasis on custody supplemented by work had not been successful in making inmates useful citizens.

6. Pessimism regarding rehabilitation of inmates is often accompanied with the feeling that contacts between staff and inmates should be minimal and extremely formal. Staff frequently act as though inmates are not physically present. Staff tend to feel inmates are inferior to them and this status must be defended and upheld. Inmates perceive this posture as being one of indifference and lack of concern for their own well being which for some may establish the expectation for failure both in institution programs and in adjustment to the community.

7. As is true of most organizations which have several levels of authority and responsibility a "climate of mistrust" frequently appears. This mistrust not only exists between staff and inmates, but also among various levels of staff. In prisons, one can find security staff suspicious of what treatment staff or education staff are trying to do. When the administration makes a request, a common question is "What do they want it for?" Response to requests for suggestions or response on questionnaires are frequently greeted with "Who is going to see it?" or "How are you going to use it?"

8. Investigations of problem incidents within the prison indicate that a number of these incidents are provoked by the manner used by staff in handling inmates which frequently leads to attacks on other inmates, property, or staff.

9. Another common cause of problem incidents has been found to be the way staff become lax in security and custody procedures which may encourage aggressive or "con-wise" inmates to take advantage of the situation and lead to possible escapes, raids on kitchen for food and drink or hospitals for drugs.

10. Training programs are often looked at in a neutral, almost negative way by most personnel who see little relation between training and job requirements.

11. Training officers often feel that they receive little support from experienced staff or administration which contributes to poor motivation on the part of trainees.

12. Training programs are often described as being dull, unimaginative, boring and sterile.

The failure to significantly increase training in many agencies may be described as a quantitative deficiency. However, the above data mask the even more serious qualitative deficiency

in that the frequent conception of adequate training has been found increasingly inadequate in the face of new demands being placed on correctional practitioners. Simple orientation programs were once thought by some agencies to be adequate. In fact, they never were. Now the public has a rising expectation that correctional institutions become agencies of behavior change for inmates, rather than only places for withholding "dangerous" criminals from the outside community. Correctional staffs are expected to employ scientific knowledge for the improvement of control and restraint techniques as well as changing inmate attitudes. Effective response to the new expectations requires considerable updating of staff skills which can be brought about only through a continuing series of in-service training programs having as their goals: 1) imparting factual information, 2) increasing the understanding of crime causation and human behavior, 3) learning and practicing new skills, 4) encouraging the co-ordination of institutional programs, and 5) establishing cooperation between the various agencies with valuable skills and resources to assist in training.

Training and education are often used synonymously. In reality they are quite different. Training is vocationally oriented and frequently accomplished at the place of work. Usually

training emphasizes the acquisition of specific job-related skills to be applied to a recurrent particular work situation. Education tends to be the acquiring of a broad background of knowledge which is probably not immediately practical for job application and is usually acquired in a separate facility specializing in education functions. Individuals go to high school and college to receive education where they learn academic subjects like history, geography, algebra, and science, which are not immediately and directly applicable to any work situation encountered by students after completion of their education. On the other hand, individuals may go to training schools or on-the-job-training to learn specific secretarial skills, or the operation of machinery to qualify for an immediate work situation. This picture is clouded by the curriculum overlap found among educational and training facilities, such as high schools, colleges, and vocational training facilities. The student at a vocational training school obtains both training and education. The education is usually incorporated in the curriculum in something called personality development, mental hygiene, or history which supplements the training program. This overlap is also found in many training programs in corrections. There is an overlap of training and education, as we attempt to

impart to men specific skills in terms of how to shake down, defend one's self, give first aid, and counsel inmates, while incorporating educational content in terms of the history of corrections, the theory and operation of non-institutional programs, understanding human behavior and the others.

The combining of education and training in correctional in-service training is made necessary because the correctional officer's job requires basic socio-psychological skills when his work involves the handling of human beings. "People-work" is the core activity of the correctional institution in that convicted offenders are the raw material and decreased criminal behavior is the desired objective. Even when the tasks are not related directly to inmates, employee behavior is the fundamental factor for efficiency in all organizational activity.

WHY TRAIN?

The need for a training program is signalled in many ways. The staff may reveal an ignorance of the ultimate purpose of the tasks they are expected to perform. They may not know the tasks and responsibilities of other departments although their tasks make sense only when related to the work of persons employed in other departments. The staff may be unable to handle problems that arise on the job. Management may complain about

repeated errors and the necessity for work to be done over. The fiscal department may complain about duplication of effort. Any combination of the above factors may indicate that the organization is overdue for intensive in-service training.

There are few jobs within any organization which cannot be effectively taught to either new or experienced employees. The problem of inefficiency cannot be attributed solely to the employee. The responsibility for inefficiency lies within the organization structure. When one finds employees who do not know what to do, why the task is supposed to be done, how the task is to be performed, or when the projects are to be initiated, he will also find indications of inadequate training and preparation of the employees. Concurrently, one will often find the prevalence of a "climate of mistrust" where-by employees are frequently afraid to ask what, why, how, and when. Compounding these factors is usually the presence of low morale whereby employees do their work in a grudging manner with little loyalty to the organization. All of these factors contribute to inadequate production and service. Of even greater concern to the field of corrections is the probability that inefficiency and low morale among employees will be translated into inmate disturbances and the undermining of programs intended to rehabilitate offenders.

SETTING OBJECTIVES

The first matter to be considered in planning in-service training is the establishment of objectives. Before trainers or committees can establish content, it needs to determine exactly what needs to be done. Frequently the goals of training programs are merely the product of the thinking of the training officer, sometimes supplemented by management personnel. This mode of goal-setting leaves a glaring deficiency created by the failure to consider perceptions of training needs by staff, by inmates, and by the community at large. In organizing a training program several sources of information should be investigated. The perspectives of the central office should be tapped to determine the philosophy and goals of the organization. Philosophy and goals must be clearly defined in terms appropriate to the roles each man may play to contribute to their attainment.

In addition to the central office, the various departments in the institution should be queried to determine what they perceive as being training needs. Frequently one will find that management perceives training needs as consisting of communication, understanding rules and regulations, and information on supervision. Auxiliary services, such as those handling classification, parole, education, treatment, industry, food care, and

maintenance may perceive training needs as conservation of material, avoidance of abuse of equipment, better understanding of what each department's function is, and topics related to necessary departmental skills.

Security and custody may emphasize the understanding of the problems of custody, effective techniques of control, and very possibly some information from the behavioral sciences to help control inmates.

It is probably safe to say that the inmate is never asked about training needs for staff. Yet the inmate is responsible for the existence of the institution. The inmate, the product of the institution, may perceive training needs as attitude development for staff, understanding inmate problems, concern for inmate rehabilitation, trust, help with family problems, learning job skills and making it "on the outside".

Finally, the community should be involved since most inmates return. If one goes to the community at large to determine their perception of training needs for staff, he is likely to receive recommendations that staff need training in the area of public relations and community image, involving the community in rehabilitation, and communication.

All of these suggestions will be the result of each area's perception of the correctional problem and process, each area's attitudes toward inmates and prisons, and how members of each area, as staff and individuals in society, can assist in the rehabilitation and acculturation of inmates. Upon tapping all of these sources of information, the training officer or committee will undoubtedly devise an insurmountable agenda which needs to be examined, consolidated, revised, clarified, and put into neat working packages, first as orientation for new employees, and secondly as a series of in-depth in-service programs for all employees.

Even when the ideas of these groups are investigated and converted into goals, they are not translated into training content to make the training sessions means of mobilizing the staff toward achieving these goals. Frequently high-sounding platitudes are passed out in mimeograph form without providing means for the employee to do his part in making the ideas become accomplished facts.

The establishment of objectives or goals is no easy task and is not finished with the perceived needs of the affected groups. Next, the training officer or committee needs to plan:

(a) The purposes for which each program is to be developed -- security or treatment, orientation or in-service. The training officer must determine exactly the function of each program and make sure the program meets its purpose and function.

(b) The appropriate experiences which will result in the accomplishment of the stated purposes. These experiences may include: tours, lectures, role-playing, or on-the-job training.

(c) The management and coordination of the experiences in order to provide a meaningful, continued, sequential and integrated program.

(d) The evaluating of the program in order to determine if objectives are being achieved and if the stated objectives are even necessary.

The planning committee must determine the content and techniques they expect the students to learn, how this learning experience may best be provided, and how the training officer recognizes that the students have actually fulfilled the purpose of the program.

CURRICULUM

Once the objectives of the program have been determined and approved, it becomes necessary to plan a curriculum to meet these goals. Curriculum planning involves the preparation of class schedules, making lesson plans and outlines, collecting reference material and audio-visual aids, and determining the best resource person to engage in presenting the topic. Resource

personnel should be informed of the goals and objectives as well as available teaching aids. Institutions are becoming so complex that training programs must become diverse. Frequently this diversity means that the program can no longer be handled by a single trainer. Often parts of the program can no longer be handled by institution staff. As a consequence, the training officer must go to the community to locate persons who can handle the specific topics and determine their willingness to participate in an institution training program. The training officer screens his own staff to see which topics staff may present competently. Then he explores the community to tap resources from colleges and universities, business and service organizations, mental health clinics and professional organizations as well as state and federal agencies in a search for competent, challenging, and skillful instructors who are willing to participate in a training capacity at little or no cost to the institution.

After objectives have been clearly defined, curriculum has been planned, equipment, references and resource personnel secured, the training officer must face issues involving the most important aspect of the training program -- those to be trained.

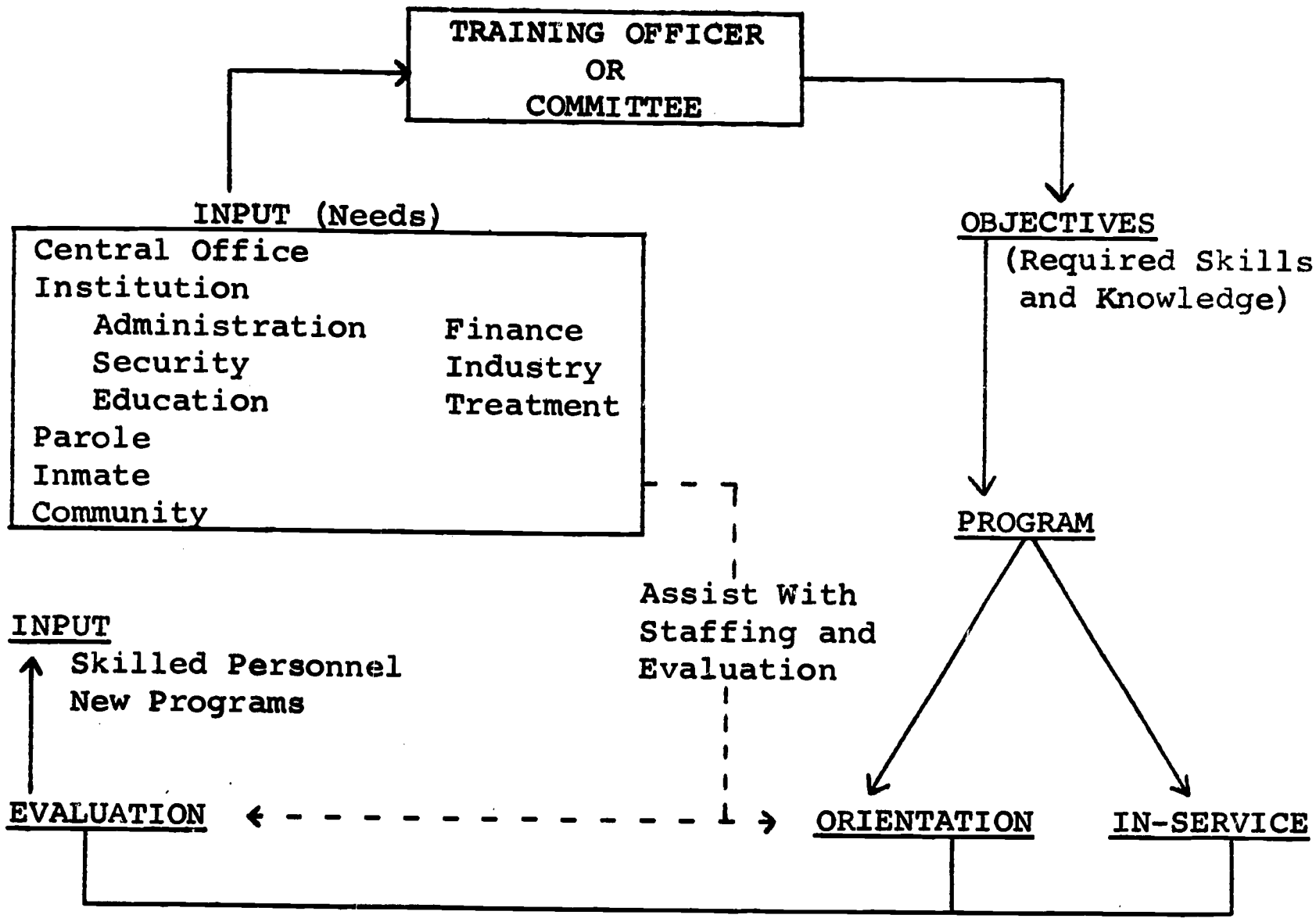

Figure 1 - The Cycle of Planning and Training

RATIONALE

All too often training programs have been a sterile presentation of data much of which is forgotten before the student leaves the class. All too often the training program is presented in a manner that makes the information seem irrelevant to the man and his job. All too often trainees enter a program with a strong prejudice against training as a valuable, formative experience. They "welcome" it as one would a dose of castor

oil. The training officer has a difficult task overcoming this initial resistance and must stimulate interest in training. The difficulties are part of the evidence that teaching is a profession requiring serious study, careful planning, and effective use of the ideas and skills which are the heritage available to the well-prepared teacher. One can say difficult, but not insurmountable.

This manual is intended to provide the resources necessary for overcoming the difficulties. The training officer can stimulate interest and motivation by adequate planning in two areas. The first is the rationale for training while the second is how to teach. In order to stimulate staff to be receptive to training, both areas must be well thought out.

The training officer should examine the assessments made earlier of many existing programs, to determine which, if any, apply to his own organization. Following this, the training officer must establish a set of personal objectives in an effort to improve the overall effectiveness of orientation and in-service programs. These objectives should include:

1. The presentation of material in a stimulating manner in an effort to capture and hold the interest of trainees. Audio-visual aids should be used wherever possible to emphasize and clarify the topics. Reference material and resource personnel should be used

wherever available. The training officer himself must secure background information on the topic to be presented in order to ascertain that students have grasped the materials and that the topic is presented in a clear and meaningful way.

2. Correctional officers must be made aware of their importance to the prison organization not just in terms of custodians but in terms of the significant contributions they make to the treatment and educational rehabilitation programs for the inmates. Reference should be made to the work of Goffman, Kassebaum et al, and Glaser, which indicates that security staff and work supervisors have a greater impact on inmates, whether positive or negative, than any other segment of the prison organization. All staff need to be instilled with the knowledge that correctional officers have the power to "make or break" the institution's programs.

3. It should be demonstrated to staff that critical incidents within the institution may be caused by the way staff handle and treat inmates and that these attitudes and behavior may create hazardous situations for other personnel. Most institutions have examples of situations where staff have mishandled inmates causing reactions which precipitated attacks on other inmates, property, or staff.

4. Staff need to be reminded how easy it is to become lax in one's position which may contribute to hazardous situations. Usually the training officer can demonstrate this with descriptions of past incidents in his own or in neighboring institutions.

5. Staff need to be made aware of the potential increase in prison populations over the next few years, both due to the increase in crime rate as well as due to the general increase in the overall population in the United States. This potential increase coupled with existing recidivism rates, which most agree are too high, necessitates new methods of prevention,

security, treatment, and rehabilitation. The bulk of these new programs will probably be staffed with personnel from existing correctional programs.

6. There are a number of myths and mistaken impressions in all organizations, including prisons, around controversial issues such as Negroes, social class, prison inmates, and the like. Training officers can assist in breaking down these myths through a constructive, educational program, in an effort to have a more informed work force and a staff who may work with minority groups with a higher degree of tolerance and understanding.

7. Another area that needs intensive work in staff training is that of communication and group process. Only through developing a sense of awareness, about each other within the institution, and demonstrating to staff how verbal and non-verbal communication can be misread and distorted by individual perceptions, can the communication barriers and the climate of mistrust found to exist in some institution be overcome.

Developing the rationale for training is only part of the overall program. Once the reasons why training is necessary are developed and communicated to staff, the next hurdle -- how to teach -- needs to be overcome.

CHAPTER II

PREPARING TO TEACH

The objectives and content of a training program are extremely important. Indeed some organizations spend considerable time and effort planning in these areas. Unfortunately little time is spent in the careful selection of educational methods most appropriate for use in achieving particular course goals. Training programs often rely solely on lecture presentations occasionally supplemented with handout material and perhaps, a few audio-visual aids. Under this kind of unimaginative presentation, the best laid plans for programs are likely to fail. In addition to thorough pre-planning to make the program a success, considerable attention should be directed toward how to teach. To make the program stimulating and exciting each topic must be examined to determine which teaching techniques should be applied to make the topic meaningful and remembered. The training officer should remember a rule of the thumb regarding the retention of learned material. Generally speaking students retain:

20% of what they hear,
50% of what they see,
80% of what they do.

The crucial factor is that learning activities should concentrate on the "hands on", "doing" kinds of learning

activities wherever possible. Maximum opportunity should be taken of visual materials and practical exercises to supplement lecture or talking activities. Otherwise the lecture material may not be meaningful or retained. This principle does not rule out lectures or group discussion. Rather, the point is that the effectiveness of either method is enhanced when doing activities can be brought to bear effectively to supplement traditional methods. To some degree, training activities in corrections, in the armed forces, and in industry have already learned this lesson. You rarely see a man learn to defend himself, learn to shoot and clean a weapon or operate a machine, simply with the lecture technique. The lecture is used to explain the rationale behind the techniques, but it is almost always supplemented with demonstrations. When practical, every man should be taken through every step of the operation to be learned.

LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

In the learning environment the training officer should consider several factors: the classroom, the teacher, and the student. If the student is to have the maximum opportunity for learning, the setting should be conducive to learning. The place of instruction should be well lighted. Chairs should

be comfortable. Outside noise and traffic through the learning area should be held to a minimum, if they can not be eliminated. The arrangement of the classroom should permit all students to see the audio-visual aids and demonstrations, and also in a manner to facilitate discussion.

As an important variable in the learning environment, the instructor should serve as a model for the students. Of particular importance is the instructor's attitude toward his students and his own program. Students may read into anything the instructor says or does, either positive or negative attitudes towards the instition, the inmates, the students or the community. Thus the instructor needs to be consciously aware that his behavior is under scrutiny most of the time. If the instructor belittles the need for training, complains about lack of support from the administration or comes to class unprepared for his own program, he will quickly communicate to students an attitude of disinterest and ineffectiveness. The instructor must be knowledgeable about the subject, maintain the highest personal characteristics and qualifications, sustain a healthy attitude toward the institution and the inmates, be competent in his training field, and constantly strive to improve his teaching techniques and his background information. The appearance and manner of dress should be appropriate for

his role as instructor. He should be friendly and not aloof from his students. He should communicate the self-confidence related to efficient task performance as a teacher without suggesting smug superiority. He should have a sense of humor. He should be well prepared for his course work. If he doesn't know the answers to questions raised by the students, he should not make a special issue of this gap in his knowledge. Instead of relying on sheer bluff, he should state he does not have the answer at hand and will seek it from another source. Another response is to refer the student to a potential source of information.

The student is what the training program is all about. He is the one involved in the process of acquiring new knowledge and skills, and in possibly learning to modify attitudes and behavior. Concurrently, he learns to adapt himself to the correctional and institutional settings. The rate of learning is associated with the degree of his motivation. In a training setting, motivation comes by demonstrating the importance of the classroom situation to the on-the-job situation. The sooner a student is able to use his learning, the faster he will be able to master the topic, the greater will be his respect for the training program and the higher his motivation for attendance at future training sessions. As an adult he

is much more likely to question the necessity of a topic than is a younger person. He is much more apt to insist on specific information and answers. He is more apt to resist pressure toward rote memorization of information.

The training officer should recognize that the adults entering training come from a variety of background experiences including work, religion, family, and previous education. In addition, he is a member of a variety of groups each having their own value system. He may be a Catholic, Democrat, raised in an urban setting and educated in Parochial schools. His set of values would differ from the Methodist, Republican, raised in a rural setting and educated in public schools. In training the instructor should be prepared to appeal to participants drawn from such multiple-valued sources although they may occupy the same job slots in a correctional institution. These differences in background may contribute to attitudes influencing the individual's ability to learn in specific areas.

The training officer should recognize that learning is not limited to the training situation. The student learns all the time. The learning situation occurs as a result of contacts with all members of the institution as well as with members of the outside community. In addition to lectures and other planned instruction, students will learn from formal and informal

contacts with peers and from the reactions of the community to his position and training. These experiences have a cumulative effect which may enhance the learning situation or may detract from it. The training officer should be alert to all of these variables. He must constantly tap the feelings, attitudes, and emotions of his students. When resistance appears, he should confront and respond to resistance in a positive constructive manner.

LESSON PLANS

Regardless of the teaching technique, the lesson plan is a vital tool for the rational use of intellectual and physical resources available to a competent teacher. The lesson plan is both a plan and a product of planning. As a plan it is a rational scheme for allocating the time available for the particular training session; for setting a priority among the various ideas which compete for presentation within the limitations of time available; for giving a place and function for the particular lesson among the series of lessons intended to achieve the overall training purpose; and for maximizing the probability that the student will be moved effectively through a series of learning stages from what he knows as he enters the classroom to what he is expected to know when he leaves it.

Probably the most significant consequence of the lesson plan is that it is a product of planning. To produce a lesson plan, the instructor must go through the intellectual regime of planning and must have competence in the knowledge of the facts which are the raw material converted into a useful product. In short, a well-developed lesson plan attests to the fact that the instructor has thought out the training session in advance and has the competencies associated with an effective teacher. Because one lesson is similar to one bead in a necklace, its significance lies in its contribution to the series of lessons which constitute the course as a whole. To prepare that lesson, the instructor should know the purposes of the course and the part that lesson will play in advancing toward the objectives of the course as a whole. Determination of the function of the lesson among the lessons enables the instructor to assess the merits of one form of presentation against another. From a host of possible ideas, he can select those most germane to the course as a whole and he has gained a perspective because he has planned.

While the drafting of initial lesson plans may be laborious and time-consuming, it will save time, energy, and effort in the long run. The benefits will accrue for both the training officer and the organization. The lesson plan provides the

training officer with a record of what points he expects to teach, what he desires the students to learn, which teaching techniques he expects to use, which audio-visual aids may be used to supplement the lecture, what is required in terms of student preparation and handout materials, and what is the estimated time required for the presentation. The outline of the topic covers the major points or objectives that are important in order to enhance the learning and ensure that students have a grasp of the necessary details. Included in the lesson plan should be a list of audio-visual aids, films, and references that might be used in preparing for the topic.

Once the lesson plan has been made, repeated presentations of the same topic may be accomplished with a minimum amount of preparation time. When the training officer leaves the training position his successor has access to "canned" materials which will allow for continuity in the program. Included in the lesson plan should be the introduction to the topic, particularly why the topic is important for each student. Where possible, the topic should be related to topics that have been previously presented. Finally the lesson plan needs to have a conclusion, which should consist of a brief summary of the overall lesson, and any additional references as to why this particular lesson is important. (See Appendix I for sample lesson plans.)

Lesson plans can be drafted for every topic in a training program and every teaching technique. If lecture and discussion are used, the lesson plan may serve as an outline. If demonstrations, film discussion, or experience activity are planned, the lesson plan should detail the important skills that each man should acquire. A notebook containing all the lesson plans of a training program can become the most valuable teaching aid in any organization.

LEARNING PROBLEMS

In addition to the preparation required for planning the program and its presentation, the instructor should be constantly aware of two other factors. The first is in the area of individual differences while the second relates to attitudes and values. As fingerprints differ among individuals, every other trait and ability of the human being comes in virtually infinite variety. The instructor should remember that, just as the members of his class come in different sizes, weights, and shapes, there is wide variety in their abilities to pay attention, learn, and retain information. Persons learn at different rates. If the topic is important enough to be included in the curriculum, it is important that every individual of the group attain a basic minimum level of competence in the topic. Frequently those who

learn quickest communicate the acquisition of this knowledge to the instructor which may prod him to move on. These students assume everyone in the class has grasped the information. Generally those who are slower are reluctant to show their ignorance and will allow the class to proceed while they fall behind and get lost. The instructor, through questions directed to each and every member of the group, through examination, or some other method of evaluation must determine that each member of the group has grasped the essentials of the lesson. It might be said that failure of a student to learn material may not be attributed solely to students' deficiencies. Frequently, the failures are results of the teacher's failure to recognize differential rates of learning.

Secondly, the attitudes and values held by the members of the group may either facilitate or impede the learning process. It is very difficult to teach factual information to a group that has already decided the issue to its own satisfaction. When the information taught confirms impressions that group members already hold, the learning process is facilitated. On the other hand, when the material conflicts with the impressions and values of the group, defensive resistance may take place, students literally close their ears and become unresponsive to the information. A simple way to experience this resistance is to

talk to a group of correctional officers about the possibility of hiring an ex-convict as a correctional officer. Most will not hear of it. Most will take the stand that former inmates cannot be trusted without looking at the ex-convict as an individual and without determining the man's potential for holding a responsible position. It is myths such as these that the training officer will have to work on with his group if he is going to effectively teach the correctional officer to become an active, integrated, viable part of the rehabilitation process for the inmates.

Unfortunately, most individuals are unaware of how strong their prejudices and biases, attitudes and values may be. It's not difficult for the training officer to bring these to the surface through the use of simple techniques such as role-playing and group discussion. This should be followed with an attempt to develop a sense of awareness as to each individual's values and demonstrate the effect of the display of these values on fellow staff and inmates. Here we are not talking about changing attitudes and values. It is important to recognize that attitudinal change is extremely difficult to accomplish. Probably such efforts should be left to specialists with specific training in this area. On the other hand, it is a simple matter to bring attitudes and values to the forefront, to discuss them

in a class, and to discuss their impact on others. Our point is that, although a special program for attitude change per se should be left to experts, every instructor deals with attitudes in the very process of training.

Finally, the instructor must teach at the level of his students. If the majority of the class is composed of students having a high school background, the content must be at a level they can understand. If the majority of the class are college graduates or are specialized in a particular aspect of corrections, the presentation of material should be at a level which is not repetitious and boring to students with the expectations of college graduates. In this respect the instructor should "know" his students before he teaches the class.

SUMMARY

In summary, how to teach is a relatively broad and difficult topic. It is important for the instructor to make the teaching as meaningful as possible to his students. It is desirable that much of the presented material be job-related. The instructor should be well-prepared in terms of securing background information on topics, preparing lesson plans, and teaching techniques. The instructor should know his class to strike a balance by setting a pace which does not overwhelm the slower learner and proceed without making the material so dull as to lose the quickest class members. Finally, the instructor should be aware of his own

attitudes and values as well as those of the class since it is in this area that some of the greatest barriers to learning occur.

In this class work, the instructor should avoid either long or apologetic introductions to the material. Nothing will dampen the students' interest quicker than indications that the instructor lacks faith in the topic or his ability to handle it. The instructor should organize his data so that it goes from past to present. A relationship should be drawn from material already known to the unknown. The instructor should first deal with data with which the students are familiar before presenting new or strange material. The known data should be introduced briefly to avoid boring repetition. The introduction of past to present might demonstrate why it is necessary to have specific material included in the program. Time relationships are particularly important where tradition and programs are involved. It is not unusual for a student to comment: "I never knew before why it was necessary for us to use this technique. I just knew that we had to do it." Thus, understanding may make the job more meaningful.

The instructor should move from a simple to a complex subject in a step by step procedure, constantly sampling the students' understanding of the material to be certain that no one

is left behind. This is particularly important where the acquisition of certain skills is dependent upon previously acquired knowledge. Important steps which may be left out or forgotten will make the entire learning process meaningless.

The basic principles of "how to teach" are only the first considerations for every program. The manner in which the material is presented is also important. Presenting the topic--the teaching technique to be used--needs careful thought on the part of the training officer. A training program should blend a variety of teaching techniques in order to best reach each and every student in the most stimulating, productive fashion.

CHAPTER III

TEACHING TECHNIQUES

Information may be imparted to students through a variety of teaching techniques. No one technique is easier to use than another. Being a good lecturer is just as difficult as being a good discussion leader, a good supervisor of the in-basket technique, a good analyzer of role-playing situations, or a good planner of demonstrations and management games. Each of these techniques requires time, energy, and effort to develop the specific skills necessary to reach the learner. This chapter will examine several of these techniques with the aim that the training officer may be able to use such skills to improve the learning environment in his own training session.

Teaching techniques are too varied to be covered completely in a single chapter. Therefore, several techniques have been selected as particularly pertinent to training of correctional personnel. Some, such as lecture and group discussion, are applicable to any topic area. Others, such as the in-basket technique, have limited application. The techniques discussed in this chapter were selected as particularly appropriate for training officers who are willing to adopt a policy of self-criticism and evaluation of manner of technique application. It

would be preferable that the officer had been trained in teaching techniques. However, even if he is unable to secure special training in teaching, the training officer can benefit from a program evaluation. This evaluation may be accomplished by requesting that an educator from a local college or university visit several classes and suggest ways of improving teaching effectiveness. When expert critics are not available, an instructor may ask his co-workers for an evaluation. Another alternative is self-criticism. The instructor could tape-record his lectures, group discussions, and other learning activities. The tape recording affords opportunity for taking an objective view of one's own behavior, especially when the dynamics of interaction with students are captured. The instructor may ask himself, "What did I do wrong? and how can I improve my manner of presentation?" Actually, the instructor may be his own best critic.

LECTURE

Of all the teaching techniques currently used, the lecture is undoubtedly the most popular. It is the formal presentation of information usually by one instructor. It is a one-way communication because the flow of words is from the instructor to the class with little opportunity provided for questions or

discussing the topic. The good lecturer can provide a clear, concise, informative presentation of the topic to large groups in a relatively short period of time. When lecturing, the instructor is the "doer" while the student assumes a fairly passive role and is expected to absorb the material to be learned. The relatively low involvement of the student accounts for his recall of only about twenty percent of what is heard.

The lecture is particularly useful for introducing a variety of information which requires researching reference materials and periodicals. It is frequently helpful in bringing students with varied backgrounds to a common level of understanding regarding basic principles and facts. On the other hand, the lecture has a number of drawbacks. It is difficult to give undivided attention to a speaker over long periods of time without opportunity to respond. Retention of information is associated with the degree of active participation in the learning environment. The lecture, in and of itself, affords little opportunity to practice skills. The instructor is at a disadvantage when he wants to evaluate the amount of material a student has absorbed. The lecturer needs considerable skill in public speaking and an ability to measure the attention level of the class. Without constant safeguards against routinized performance, the lecture drifts toward dullness and monotony. The experienced lecturer

has greater knowledge of the topic and is tempted to use terms unfamiliar to the students. Furthermore, some lecturers have difficulty in speaking on a subject for a long period of time. Their use of notes for guidance may be distracting to students. In time and expense, the lecture is the most economical teaching technique. Indeed, the lecture probably plays a part in all teaching techniques as the instructor introduces new ideas or plans through this one-way communication. When lectures are used, they must be brief, concise, understandable, and supplemented with audio-visual aids and other teaching techniques. The hazard of low involvement must not be overlooked.

GROUP DISCUSSION

A major advantage of the technique called group discussion is the high degree of involvement on the part of students. The premise is that the entire class becomes involved in talking about a topic. Through this interaction they learn from each other as well as from the instructor. Group discussion may be effective for supplementing lecture material, movies, slides, and other audio-visual materials.

In undertaking group discussion, the instructor will find his personal skills and his teaching competence are challenged. But once he has met the initial test, he will find teaching to offer pleasures in accomplishment never experienced by those who

cling stubbornly to lectures exclusively. Teaching is measured in terms of the genuine learning among the students rather than the sheer volume of facts presented regardless of impact on the audience. It is in terms of genuine learning that group discussion has its greatest advantage when employed skillfully.

In the give-and-take of group discussion, the instructor and the students mutually determine the nature and crucial elements of the issue or situation under study. The barriers erected between teacher and student, and student and student, are lowered at least to some degree. Individuals are free to concentrate on the issues. In the interaction which ensues, the participants, including the teacher, discover that the others in the group have unrealized potentialities for revealing facts and ideas germane to the issue. Participants gain assurance as they find that their own ideas have merit in the eyes of others. They learn that their previous experience has relevance and that the lesson topic is not completely new. A sense of belonging to the group may emerge to move the instructor and students together through bonds of identification derived from a common search for knowledge.

Group discussion tests the instructor. He must have a genuine faith in the worth of training. He must have a genuine interest in students for their own sake. He must have the

ability to accept criticism from persons who have been placed in his charge within the job structure. He must be self-reliant in dealing with the unexpected, but he must be loyal to the organization he represents officially. Loyalty, in this sense, means personal commitment to the objectives of the organization, rather than indiscriminate adherence to an official code regardless of the situation. Probably most importantly, the instructor must be eager to learn himself. There is nothing inconsistent about a competent teacher learning from his students when one considers the wide range of human experience.

The leadership of group discussions offers opportunities for learning no matter how experienced and competent the teacher may be. Inevitably the training session will bring forth unexpected events. But the group discussion differs from a "bull session" in that leadership must be present. The brand of leadership is persuasive rather than arbitrary. It is situational in that the instructor seizes opportunities from within the sequence of conversational items to move the discussion toward conclusions germane to the pre-planned purpose of the training session. He plans the discussion sessions but must provide the highest possible degree of flexibility in choice of avenues whereby the class moves toward the general objectives.

His skills assure that one or two individuals do not dominate the entire group. He works to draw into the discussion the quiet or overwhelmed. He encourages full participation. Finally, he tests and evaluates to determine that everyone understands the material.

Group discussion has the advantage of allowing group members to learn more about the instructor and other members of the class from the very interaction in the group. It provides opportunity for group members to evaluate themselves in terms of the contributions made by other group members. Individuals can speak their mind and freely ask questions. Without the opportunity to compare himself with the group, the adult will be reluctant to "expose his ignorance" and will sit and allow the information to "pass over his head." Only through comparison, self-evaluation, and encouragement will the adult feel confident to question and raise issues. He must see that neither the instructor nor the group will laugh or make fun of him. Thus discussion groups may advance the feeling of trust and cooperation within an organization.

Probably the size of the group should be limited to twelve or fifteen. A larger group is apt to become unmanageable. Large size tends to dampen the enthusiasm of some individuals for participation. On the other hand, too small a group -- under

six or eight -- may not be representative of the skills necessary for a functioning group and may make some individuals feel lonely or vulnerable since the small group may not provide the optimum frame of reference and support needed by some.

Room arrangement is extremely important in facilitating group discussions. If everyone is seated and the discussion leader stands or is behind a podium or desk, the flow of communication tends to be from group members to the discussion leader rather than among group members. Standing, the podium, and the desk are props indicative of expertise. Some teachers are reluctant to surrender this advantage. It is also difficult to become involved in group interaction when seating is arranged row by row. On the other hand, when seating is around a table, or in a circle, the probability of group interaction is enhanced, since it is essential for group members to see each other if they are going to interact. It is almost impossible to interact with the back of another's head. At best, group interaction is a difficult process to get started, and, where there are recognized individuals from various levels within the organization, group interaction or discussion may be seriously impeded. It will probably be difficult to get a sergeant to interact freely with the warden. It may be equally difficult to get the teacher or social worker to strip away the imagined facade of

educational status and expertise, and work as colleagues with other group members. When some individuals wear street clothes, while others are in uniform, an immediate dichotomy is established. Those wearing jackets and ties while others are wearing sport shirts identify individual differences and rank and status which may cause separation within the group. The jargon of a special interest group or special skill area and "private" jokes contribute to the destruction of constructive group interaction. The group leader should be aware of the potential effect of any of these variables on group atmosphere. In addition to awareness, the group leader needs to have the ability to confront any issues which may have a divisive effect on the group and must constantly strive to stimulate the group toward productive activity.

Group discussion, as well as other techniques to be described, will give rise to unpredictable situations. Such situations will be grounds for apprehension on the part of the training officer new to these techniques. The unpredictability of these learning situations can be kept within limits through the following means:

1. Use the lesson plan as a guide to remind the instructor of the lesson's goals. If the group strays from the intended goals, the instructor must bring their attention back to the topic again.

2. Handout material distributed to the group prior to the discussion will help provide structure, limits, and direction.

3. Prior preparation of specific questions to be raised at strategic times may spark meaningful discussion and keep the group oriented toward the topic.

4. A knowledge of the characteristics of the students will alert the instructor to the significance of their behavior. Thus the instructor will be aware of who may inhibit, who may stimulate, who needs special attention, and through this contribute toward making the group a cohesive, educational experience for all.

CASE STUDY

The case study technique involves the discussion of a problem which has been presented to the students in complete detail. All of the necessary information has been furnished. The students discuss the information and reach a consensus as to the problem's solution. The case study method has the advantage of being flexible in that cases can be designed to cover any departmental or institutional setting, and they may be descriptive of past institutional problem areas. The training officer and several staff members should be involved in designing the case in order to provide all of the necessary information to reach an effective solution.

After the case has been designed, it should be reproduced so that every student has the advantage of having a copy for

study before class. It would be desirable to have the student prepare his solution to the problem before coming to class. This will encourage the presentation of different solutions and enhance discussion. The instructor should prepare a series of related questions to ask students to explain why specific incidents or events occurred, how the student would handle the incident, and what are the attendant problems. If the case is a description of an event which occurred within the institution, it would be helpful if the training officer was prepared to discuss what was the outcome as it was handled in the institution. The training officer should encourage exploration of a variety of alternative solutions to each problem. The case study approach encourages the student to look at the variety of data before arriving at a conclusion and assists the student in the processing of information so that he may examine problems from a variety of viewpoints.

The case study approach has the advantage of having students look at practical problems related to institutional work and assisting students in learning to sort pertinent information. It can be used for training in all areas of the institution where people deal with people. It can be flexibly tailored to meet the needs of the class but has the disadvantage

of tending to simplify problems since it is not possible to present all variables related to the actual incident. The case study is also time-consuming as the group may be intrigued with the case or technique.

THE IN-BASKET TECHNIQUE

Where decision-making is involved with either administrators or supervisors, a valuable training technique may be the in-basket. Here, too, is a training technique which can be designed to be practical and may use institution resources and materials.

Essentially the in-basket is a collection of letters, telephone calls, messages, and reports which are typical of those found within the organization during a day or a week. The supervisor is informed that he has been out of the office for a day or two due to the press of institution business or just coming back from vacation. He has an hour before he must leave the institution to meet with the director. During this time he must sort and make decisions regarding the collection of data in his in-basket. A time limit of thirty, forty-five, or sixty minutes is imposed, and the student is instructed to jot down how each piece of material is to be handled. Typically, students will handle messages and

correspondence according to the importance of the sender and may frequently neglect more important activities that may come across the desk from a peer or a subordinate. The student is asked to defend the decisions he made as well as defend the priority in which these decisions were reached. Frequently, the student will proceed through the collection of data from top to bottom handling each as it appears in order, without quickly scanning through all of the material to determine which is most important and which needs to be handled within a time limit and which needs to be deferred.

The in-basket technique is easy to design from available materials within the institution and is particularly helpful in teaching administrators about the decision-making process. Unfortunately, to be most effective this technique is usually handled on a one-to-one basis or with very small groups. Its use is limited to supervisors and administrators involved in decision-making.

ROLE PLAYING

While group discussion, the case study and the in-basket technique require a high degree of involvement and participation on the part of the students, all are accomplished as the students sit in a classroom. Role playing, on the other hand,

involves activity. Although it may occur in the classroom, the students get out of their chairs and play out roles as the student perceives them. Thus, role playing is an educational experience in which students utilize human interaction as they become involved with other students playing roles often appropriate to their work situation. At the completion of the role playing task, all become involved in a discussion of the behavior of all the role players. Essentially role playing is an action-doing-learning experience followed by a critical analysis by the player and observers.

Role playing may provide training in specific supervisory or management techniques, particularly where human interaction is involved. Role playing dramatizes the theory learned in class and gives the student an opportunity for relatively realistic experiences which may be scrutinized by the instructor and the class in constructive criticism of student performance in the role playing drama. The basic premise is that students learn best through experience. Classroom instruction in handling a problem or situation becomes more meaningful when students act out the principle under supervision in a practice or laboratory setting.

In attempting role playing it is helpful to have two people who are not students in the class. One is the principal observer of the drama, and he may be the instructor, who analyzes the interaction or the behavior of the participants. He requires students to defend their behavior and requires the class to explore alternatives to the dramatized solution. The second critical person is a good actor who plays the role of protagonist. In a class of correctional officers, the protagonist may play the part of inmate. In a class of supervisors, the protagonist may play the role of a correctional officer. In a class of treatment personnel, the protagonist may play the role of an employee charged with security duties. The learning experience is most meaningful to students when they portray roles with which they are familiar in the institution or roles that they will be expected to portray after training. For example, it is much more meaningful for a correctional officer to portray his natural role as correctional officer as he perceives it, or for a supervisor to play the role of supervisor as he perceives it. Then the class may discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the perceived role.

In instigating the drama the instructor merely describes the setting, provides minimum amount of background information,

and starts the interaction without an elaborate script, consequently, the participants are forced to use their own perception of how the job is to be performed. It is this performance which is constructively criticized. Because of the emotional involvement of the role playing participants, it is helpful to have the sessions tape recorded. The participants often forget the quality and intensity of their interaction as they get carried away by the emotion of the situation. Again, because of the emotionality of the situation, it is not a good practice to use weapons in role playing. It is possible that students may get carried away with the situation and cause an accident. Imagine, if you will, a role playing situation in which several inmates are arguing with a correctional officer, where the actors may be so effective that the students become overzealous in their protection of the officer. A push or shove could cause a fall which may lead to a serious accident if a knife, club or unloaded gun were used as props.

In addition, to portraying actual incidents which are apt to occur in the institution, role playing may assume other forms. For example, the instructor may have the group perform specific tasks and analyze the behavior of the group in terms of how they organize for the task, who

assumes leadership roles and whether or not the task is properly completed. Problems may consist of having groups in competition of one another in order to impose the pressure of time. Competitive groups may be required to take large objects out of small mouth bottles, build towers and bridges out of available materials, or solve brain teasers which require the cooperative effort of the entire group. They might use materials to design an institution. Interaction within these situations provides the instructor with information regarding the behavior of various group members in terms of who assumes or is assigned leadership roles, who may get along easily with the group, who serves to block or interfere with group achievement, and who is easily slighted and withdraws from group participation. Such targets for observation illustrate the possibility of pre-determination of criteria for evaluating performance for a long-term purpose.

Role playing is an exciting training tool. Its major limitations are that it requires a skillful actor (every institution has several of these) and an instructor who has learned to become a skillful observer of behavior. While it can be a useful tool for promoting attitude change, most training officers in correctional institutions are not skilled

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in this area. Their use of role playing should be confined to the development of interpersonal and job related skills. Another limitation may be the time involved. It becomes easy for the group to focus unduly on a specific incident and in their excitement and interest lose track of time. For best results classes utilizing the role playing technique should probably not be limited to a one hour class session but rather should have a minimum of one and one half to two hours. There should be ample time for discussion of the situation and subsequent acting out of alternative behaviors that the class may recommend.

PRACTICUM

Practicum is a term referring to supervised on-the-job training. On-the-job training has been a much-used and much-abused practice in training programs in most organizations. It is much-used because administrators and managers have long understood that the best training experiences occur when the individual has the opportunity for actual job performance. It is much-abused because a large share of contemporary on-the-job training is done without supervision and merely involves placing the trainee into the hands of an experienced person. The information passed on by the

experienced person to the trainee often consists of good work skills often accompanied by bad habits, bad attitudes, and poor skills which have been learned and used for so long that they have become a part of the experienced person's habit patterns. Almost every training officer has heard an "old hand" tell a newcomer: "Forget that theoretical stuff you learned in class. I'll show you how to do it."

Practicums, on the other hand, consist of on-the-job training but under supervision of a competent training staff. Practicum may be enhanced if the experienced personnel who are to become engaged in the on-the-job training experience are afforded a few days of classwork in how to teach and how to explain the what, where, when and why of the job. When this kind of preplanning is utilized, many experienced hands learn for the first time why they do the things they do. For the first time, many experienced hands will question the necessity for some of the job procedures which have been used for five or ten years.

This process of using selected experienced personnel to assist in training will contribute to making the training experience meaningful for participants and will cause the

program to gain support from institution staff as they become a part of the overall training program. By becoming a part of training, institution staff will know what is going on in the classroom, become less antagonistic of the training process and are likely to become strong supporters of the program. Communication between the training department and the departments within the institution will certainly be facilitated. Past experiences have indicated that, as the degree of trust in the training department is established among the institution staff, the training department becomes one of the means by which change and improvement may be enhanced up and down the administrative hierarchy.

CAUTIONS

When using the individual or group involvement teaching techniques, a training officer should remember that the techniques themselves may become amusing games or degenerate into meanless exercises, if the trainer does not plan how to use them and fails to relate them to the job. Although the techniques may be used in different situations, the student should be required in each case to explain his responses and justify his behavior. Thus, the training officer can develop a sense of awareness among most students

by asking questions such as: "Why did you behave in this manner?" "What did it feel like to be talked to or handled in this way?" "Are you aware that your tone of voice or apparent attitude can trigger negative responses in persons you are dealing with?" The rest of the class may then be drawn into the situation by eliciting their reactions to being talked to or handled in the manner they just observed? They can be asked to suggest alternative ways for handling this situation?

Occasionally a member of the class will reply that the situations being presented in role playing are exceptional. The training officer should reply that it is the exceptional circumstances which frequently lead to trouble because of an officer's inability to handle them. Routine procedures within institutions rarely cause difficulties. It is the uncertainty of unwillingness to act in a new and different situation, which creates confusion and may be interpreted by the protagonist as a weakness in the officer or even as support by the officer for the portogonist's position. Staff must be certain of their stand otherwise they will communicate uncertainty and contribute to inmate's challenging their role and position.

SUMMARY

There are a variety of training techniques which may be used to get the message across to the students. In addition to care in selection among training techniques, considerable thought should be given to the kinds of instructional aids and materials that may supplement the program. Each of the above described techniques may use a wide variety of audio-visual aids. The training officer should select those training techniques most suitable to his purpose and conditions. Then he should employ those supporting audio-visual aids most likely to facilitate learning.

CHAPTER IV

TRAINING TOOLS

The variety of training aids which are available exceeds the limits of one's imagination. They range from cheap home-made equipment constructed from scrap materials, through hundred-dollar movie and slide projectors, through ten-thousand-dollar video-tape recorders, to forty- or fifty-thousand dollar training simulators. However, the training officer should remember that no training aid, in and of itself, is an effective teacher. All training aids should be thought out carefully in terms of how they are to be used, when it is appropriate for their use, how they will be integrated into the on-going program, and how the training aid experience can be meaningful in terms of employee job experience.

BLACKBOARD

Probably the most traditional and familiar training aid is the blackboard. The boards may be heavy and expensive slate mounted in a frame, a specially prepared composition board covered with either black or green board paint, or simply black-board paint on any relatively smooth surface. Blackboards are used to supplement the trainer's spoken words, drawing attention to important points by using graphics and visuals produced on the blackboard surface.

The blackboard has the advantages of being relatively inexpensive, flexible, and fairly easy to use. However, it has some disadvantages, most of which center on the user rather than on the aid itself. Individuals using blackboards are much too prone to talk to the board and not to the students. Hence, the point is frequently lost in terms of muffled sound. Oftentimes the careless user stands in the way of what he has written or drawn on the board forcing the students to become distracted as they try to look around the instructor. Users may neglect to clean the board so that new graphics fail to stand out as clearly as they should. Some users illegibly scribble across the board or are careless with graphs and pictures, thus losing the potential of this device as an effective teaching aid. When students struggle to make sense out of relatively incoherent graphics, their attention is diverted from the instructor who is usually proceeding to other points. Other users deny themselves the advantages of the blackboard as a means of bringing spontaneity into the instruction when they prepare material in advance on the blackboard. Previously prepared materials also have the disadvantage of drawing the students' attention directly to the board and away from the instructor who may not be ready to use the board's material. As a consequence, the students' attention is divided, and they may miss

important points. In an effort to improve the quality of blackboard use, training officers should remember the following points:

1. Never talk to the board. Write or sketch your material, then turn to talk to the class.

2. Be careful not to stand in front of the board. If the materials presented are so spread out that you must stand in front of some portions of the board, then use a pointer so that as much of the board as possible is visible to the audience.

3. Write and draw on the board carefully so that work is legible and clear.

   A. Use straight edges and chalk drawing tools to make your drawing clearer.

   B. Use colored chalk to differentiate the processes or underline important points.

   C. Concentrate on the upper portions of the board so that all may see clearly.

4. Where it is necessary to prepare blackboard material before instruction, cover the material until you are ready to integrate the material into your presentation.

5. Finally, keep the blackboard clean.

Closely related to the use of the blackboard are other visual aids such as the flannel boards and magnetic boards in which previously prepared material is held in position by small magnets or special backing. The artist's easel pad is frequently used as a flip chart. Specific points may be made on the

paper, which is usually of newsprint quality. When there is no longer a need for the information, the paper is flipped over, exposing another blank piece of paper ready for use. While the flip chart is extremely flexible, and as easy to use as the blackboard, it does have the disadvantage of being a one-time instrument -- once it is used, it must be discarded.

OVERHEAD PROJECTOR

A training aid which is rapidly replacing blackboards in many modern schools is the overhead projector. Costing between seventy and one hundred fifty dollars, this device consists of a large metal base containing a strong light with a glass cover plate. The lecturer may draw or write on the surface of the plate or use transparencies placed over the plate. The light under the plate projects the image through a lens, which in turn projects the image on a screen or wall.

The overhead projector has several advantages over the blackboard. It is much more flexible and mobile. It is a time-saver in that when transparencies are used, the instructor need not stop to erase the transparencies. He merely places it to one side and uses a clean transparency. The used one can be cleaned when the class is over. A distinct advantage of the overhead projector over the blackboard is that it allows the instructor to face the class when he is writing on the transparency.

Either colored grease pencils, or specially prepared colored pens may be used for writing. Training officers find transparencies may be easily prepared before classtime and utilized at the proper time and sequence without having to prepare a large blackboard and uncover portions of it when the points are to be made. Once made, good transparencies may be used indefinitely. When using diagrammatic sketches, it is also possible to use two or three transparencies in an overlay process or move transparencies from one point to another, affording the concept of motion. Thus, if one were to attempt to teach points about a gas engine, it would be possible to use one transparency as the motor block, and another as piston and connecting rods. The instructor can move the piston and connecting rods into the block to give the students an idea of how the pistons may move in relation to the firing of the engine. This flexibility is extremely difficult to achieve with the blackboard.

SLIDE PROJECTOR

Another common teaching aid is the slide projector. The most common size uses 2 x 2 photographic slides. Because there are few previously prepared educational and training slides available for his particular needs, the correctional training

officer would need a 35mm camera along with the projector equipment.

With these pieces of equipment the training officer can photograph a variety of objects or situations to bring the outside world into the classroom. Through photographs, he may describe each phase in applying skills to a particular problem being described in a lecture. A series of slides may then be used to illustrate the step-by-step procedure necessary to perform a specific task in providing first aid or in self-defense against attack. Photographs can capture the realities of some recurrent problem or unusual crisis which the course is intended to correct. Examples include riots, other disturbances, fires, safety hazards, likely locations for concealing contraband, and so on.

On other occasions, the instructor may want to dramatize an intangible phenomenon, such as the organizational context within which students perform their tasks, the history of the prison, or the function of the prison within the overall organization of government. The discussion can be given greater appeal through photographs of related programs in action, a pictorial survey of all prison units, or a tracing of events and persons important to a history.

The students are more likely to have a positive view of training if there is evidence that his superiors support the program actively. When it is not possible for the governor, commissioner, or warden to be present physically, their photographs can be a reasonable substitute, especially if they are shown in scenes directly related to the training program. Photographs flashed on the screen would help trainees visualize the leaders and decision-makers in their correctional system.

The slide projector has a number of advantages. It is relatively inexpensive. With careful handling the slides may be re-used for an indefinite period. The machine is flexible and portable. Most machines come equipped with a twenty-five foot remote control switch which allows the instructor to display the slides from a position not interfering with student observation. He can change slides at a pace consistent with the discussion. He can replay slides should the circumstances warrant. An innovative practice is to use two or three projectors simultaneously, flashing pictures side by side on the screen to permit comparisons between pictures. With experience in this technique the training officer may convey a sense of action in the use of still pictures. The slide projector has some minor disadvantages. Collections of slides need to be housed and classified. Slides

easily get lost, broken or dirty. There may be a good deal of wasted effort until the photographer is able to get the right picture. However, the many advantages far outweigh the disadvantages.

THE MOVIE PROJECTOR

One of the older and more commonly used audio-visual aids is the motion picture projector. With it the instructor is able to bring experts and far-away scenes into the classroom. Good movies can motivate learning, capture the attention of the class, demonstrate specific job skills, and dramatize issues and events far better than a presentation limited to the bounds of the classroom. Until recently there have been few films specifically prepared for the field of corrections. However, there have been many excellent films on general topics pertinent to the field, such as first aid, decision-making and administrative procedure. More recently, increased public interest in corrections has made a number of pertinent films available.

The training department may ask: Should we make our own films? This is possible. However, unless highly skilled film photographers are available, the products can be extremely amateurish and quite expensive.

Another major consideration is whether to purchase a film or rent it. A twenty-minute movie may cost over $150. Unless the training department, or a group of training departments, is going to use the film extensively, rental probably is preferable to purchase. Most state colleges and universities have film libraries renting movies to schools, mental health clinics, and public service groups at a minimum fee plus mailing costs. A twenty minute film would rent for approximately $5.00, a catalogue should be obtained from several state university's audio-visual departments to determine the films available and the rental fees. Appendix II in this manual lists several of the larger film libraries in the United States. Other film libraries are located in the state departments of education and mental health departments.

Although motion pictures stimulate sensory experiences and allows students to see and hear otherwise unobtainable people and places, several disadvantages should be taken into consideration. Expense has been previously cited. Also, films are not nearly as flexible as other training aids because they are generally prepared for a fairly large audience rather than oriented to the particular interests of a particular training groups. Furthermore, there are difficulties in fitting films into lecture material. It is difficult to stop the projector,

freeze a scene, replay action, and respond to questions from the class without disrupting the continuity of the film. Training officers must be careful to preview films to be sure the film material is pertinent to the class lecture. The film's quality should be checked in advance. Poor sound tracks, amateurish acting and directing, and poor photography may distract from the intended message.

The class should be prepared for the film before it is shown if the lesson objectives are to be accomplished. Discussion guides, preplanned questions, and summaries of points of interest can be prepared and distributed in advance. These devices promote the integration of the film to the training experience by drawing the class's attention to those aspects of the motion picture most relevant to the training goal.

MODEL

A little-used but potentially valuable training tool is the model. Several kinds of models are immediately available to the training officer. The model of a cell or shop in the institution can be prepared from cardboard boxes. The training officer, or assistants from arts and crafts shops within the institution, might cut out and glue cardboard pieces together to depict a typical cell with all its fixtures. By allowing

the front and top to be removed, the instructor may point out to the class a number of common hiding places for contraband within the cell, or the best place to corner and capture a disturbed inmate while minimizing the possibility of physical harm to either staff or inmate. The model also can be used to demonstrate tactics of inmates for communicating secretly with one another or to keep an eye on the security staff.

A more complicated but more useful model is one of the institution itself. Such models are found in the administration office or reception room of many institutions. By using a similar model in training, the students may be shown the exact location of all facilities within the institution. In addition to showing the relative location of various facilities and equipment within the institution, a model may be used to indicate alternate routes for access or egress when the most common routes are cut off by fire, accident, or riot. Indeed, models have stimulated modification of safety procedures when staff learned that existing procedures were impractical or too time consuming.

Models should not be used by themselves. After the model is used in classroom instruction, the class should be taken throughout the institution to point out the location of facilities

demonstrated on the model. The model merely helps the class visualize locations within the overall context of the institution.

While the use of models has obvious advantages for visualizing specifics with the institution, there are some strong disadvantages. Models may constitute a serious storage problem Their use is relatively limited to a few instructional purposes. Construction of an institution model can be time consuming and expensive.

TAPE RECORDER (AUDIO)

For the past several years, the tape recorder has been used in courses in speech therapy, music appreciation, counseling, and interviewing techniques. Here we will have to discriminate between the audio tape recorder and the video tape recorder. The audio tape recorder, commonly known as the tape recorder, simply records sound. The video recorder records both sound and picture. The audio recorder can become a valuable, flexible tool in correctional training. Because few pre-recorded tapes are available for use in this field, the training officer will have to design and prepare his own materials.

Potential uses of audio tape recorders are suggested by these examples:

1. Taping a welcoming presentation by the governor, commissioner, or warden to be played while their pictures are flashed on a screen through a slide projector;

2. Taping interview sessions between personnel and inmates or subordinates and having the class listen to and critically analyze the content and quality of the interview session;

3. Developing pre-recorded tapes, using several good actors, role play a series of critical incidents, particulary some which have occurred in the institution, and having the class discuss possible solutions to each incident;

4. While presenting material on fires or riot control, tape recording a series of sounds which occurred during actual riots or fires to add realism;

5. Recording presentations made by guest lecturers (with their permission) to permit the class to review the material presented as well as use outstanding lectures in future training sessions when the lecturer may not be available;

6. Finally, recording interaction sessions such as role playing and group discussion so that the individuals involved in the discussion may listen to the quality of their interaction. Participants in interaction sessions frequently get lost in the emotionality of the encounter and become blinded to the quality of their own interaction as well as their effect on other participants. Listening to recorded tapes of such sessions may prove a valuable learning experience for participants.

Tape recorders may be secured for as low as $60.00, although the better or more rugged machines cost approximately $250.00. They are highly portable, flexible, and useful equipment for training. They have the disadvantage of having to be fairly

close to the source of sound in order to obtain adequate sound pick-up. Generally distances in excess of 8 to 10 feet are the outer limits of range of the tape recorder microphone.

TAPE RECORDERS (VIDEO)

A new audio-visual tool which shows great promise for use in training is the video tape recorder. This unit essentially consists of three major components: a television monitor, receiver or television screen; a television camera; and the video tape recorder. The camera photographs the actions, which is electronically placed on video tape by the recorder, and simultaneously may be seen on the television monitor. The monitor may also be used as the television receiver for playback of the tape. Through this process action scenes may be recorded and visually reviewed almost instantaneously.

There is a limitless potential for demonstrating to trainees how they interact in a variety of situations. The video tape recorders may be used to tape actual interaction sessions between peer groups, interactions between staff and residents, counseling and interview sessions, group discussion and role playing or a variety of necessary action processes

such as administering first aid or defending one's self. The trainee has the opportunity to observe himself in any situation. He may observe his own non-verbal behavior, or the effect of his behavior on the other members with whom he interacts. Several of the newer and more expensive video tape recorders are equipped with a slow motion drive so that action may be slowed down and closely observed which may be particularly valuable in action sequences. Most video tape recorders have an instant stop or freeze position so that the action may be stopped and observed. All have a re-wind and re-play switch, in order to replay a particularly important segment of time. This will allow the trainer to draw the student's attention to specific points and encourage their discussion on course material.

Needless to say, enormous training benefits may be accrued from the use of the video tape recorder. For the trainee, there is nothing quite like seeing himself in action and learning from his own mistakes. However, the video tape recorder has a number of disadvantages which any organization must consider before attempting to utilize the device. This device is expensive. It does not do the training by itself rather, it serves as a supplement to training. This device, like any other, is only as effective as the training

officer makes it. More specifically, the disadvantages of the video recorder are:

1. Video tape recorders are extremely expensive. Those on the market today range from $1,000 to $10,000.

2. As with all complicated technical equipment "bugs" may develop which require a technican to correct. If the institution is in an isolated area the recorders may be out of use for an extended time.

3. Tape for the machines is expensive. If the machine uses 1 inch standard video tape, a one hour reel costs $60.

4. It takes time to learn to operate the equipment properly.

5. The video tape recorder is such a fascinating tool that once the training officer develops effective techniques for its use, other departments, particularly education and treatment, will want access to the equipment, creating scheduling problems.

6. Use is extremely time consuming. A taped 20-minute segment may take five minutes to rewind plus another 20 minutes to watch or a total of 45 minutes. This does not take into consideration the amount of time spent in discussing pertinent topics or issues as they appear on the video tape.

While disadvantages do exist, the video tape recorder is probably the most valuable training tool that a skillful officer may have. Nevertheless, the training officer and the institution must be aware that effective use requires development of special skills and design of a training program appropriate for the device.

Most other training materials have built-in messages which may get across. With the video tape recorder, the training officer must develop, demonstrate, and utilize the message which he wishes to convey.

LIBRARY

Often neglected as a training aid is the library. No classroom or training program is complete without this education and training aid. A basic library can be started with a few hundred dollars. If this is not available, staff may have some useful but little books which they may donate or loan to a library. In addition to books are the number of magazines and periodicals which either staff or the library may subscribe to. Professional journals in the field of correction and law enforcement are not expensive. The journal Federal Probation is free. Annual membership in the American Correctional Association and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency is 3 and 5 dollars respectively. Both membership fees include subscriptions to the professional journals. Magazines and journals have the advantage of being up-to-date while most books become dated after a few years.

Where a professional library is available, the training officer should become familiar with the material available so

that he may make reference to a particular article or chapters in a book. It is probably more meaningful for the students to be referred to small and significant articles rather than be overwhelmed with a book or two.

Once a professional library is begun, keeping it up-to-date is not too expensive. A basic book list is found in the appendix of this manual. Other assistance may be had from the National Council on Crime and Delinquency which periodically prepares materials useful to any correctional library.

SUMMARY

No training program is complete without a variety of training aids to supplement a variety of training techniques. The proper use of aids and techniques will act to hold the attention of the trainees, stimulate their interest, and put the training message across in a meaningful manner. The training officer should consistently ask himself: "What is the point of this technique and this aid? Are we going astray? Have I lost the class? Is this technique or device too amusing or boring?" The training officer should constantly evaluate the quality of his aids and techniques. Just because the class is enjoying itself does not mean that either the aid or technique is useful. The session may degenerate into a fun game rather than represent meaningful learning experiences. The training

officer must constantly take the pulse of his classes. In other words he must constantly evaluate his training processes and programs.

CHAPTER V

EVALUATION

Every training program contains the important facets of planning, content, teaching techniques, and audio-visual aids which blend together to form the training package. Evaluation is another facet frequently neglected but equally as important. Put simply, evaluation means: Are the trainees learning what the organization would like them to learn?

Without evaluation, no trainer is aware of the effectiveness of his program. The importance and complexity of evaluation is at least equal to those of any other phase of the training program. Too often this point is underestimated, and a simple pencil-and-paper test at the end of training is considered sufficient. Yet, paper-and-pencil tests supply only part of the answer. For the total picture of the effectiveness of training, information must be gleaned from administration, from work supervisors, and from the trainees themselves. This may be done by the use of paper-and-pencil tests, observation of job performances, and interviewing staff.

Although the training officer need not be a specialist in the complicated tasks associated with evaluation, he should be sufficiently aware of these tasks to avoid underestimation of their

importance and complexity. For our purposes, it is sufficient to summarize the general nature of the function and conditions imposed on the evaluator.

An apparently simple question is: "What is the training supposed to accomplish?" To obtain answers, the training officer must know what the policy-makers expected to accomplish when they authorized establishment of the training program. Examples of goals could include: improvement of work skills for a particular category of personnel, increase of the staff's awareness of the individual qualities among inmates, reduction of disciplinary problems among employees, or psychological preparedness of employees for changes in the activities within the prison. After determining the original goals, the training officer has a basis for comparing training results with what was expected.

Every correctional system is unique in that it has its own history, its own place within the overall structure of government, and its own set of personalities among correctional executives and employees. The evaluation of training should operate within this social-psychological context if its conclusions are to make sense in terms of the realities of correctional work. Because he is a participant in the life of his agency, the training officer is likely to be prepared especially well to evaluate the

pertinence of training to the realities of correctional work in that agency.

The possibilities of effective evaluation are limited by the degree to which the training outcomes lend themselves to measurement. Some activities are too intangible to be measured with the precision of a thermometer reporting the level of warmth in a room.

Finally, evaluation should result in measurements which can compare the performance of one class against another. In other words, evaluation should provide data which stand the test of comparability. The training officer should have justification for claims that this kind of presentation resulted in superior student understanding than that kind of presentation. He will not be justified if the two sets of data are not comparable because one class had a higher degree of previous experience in the subject matter.

ADMINISTRATION

Periodically the training officer or training committee should check with the administration to determine what aspects of training are still appropriate and which have become so antiquated as to require upgrading. The administration may reveal planned changes in programs and goals which training may

help to implement. The administration may be aware of deficiences in certain kinds of personnel. Regularly scheduled meetings with executives will enable the training officer to keep his program current with requirements of the agency.

Probably the best way to tap the knowledge of executives is through interview sessions or group discussions. Unless such meetings are scheduled, the workload of many administrators is such that it would tend to cause them to overlook training as one of their most important administrative tools.

WORK SUPERVISORS

The attitudes of work supervisors toward training range between high appreciation and antagonism. If the training program is to be successful, the training officer should include supervisors among the instructors and consultants. He should frequently consult the supervisors regarding the quality of the trainees. The information may be secured in two ways: the work supervisors may be asked in a questionnaire to comment on the qualities of the trainees. Another informal but probably more effective way is for the training officer to mingle with work supervisors over coffee and lunch to discuss ideas, problems, and individual trainees. Nothing strengthens a training program more than this two-way communication. This kind of contact assures the work supervisors of the training program's interest in their attitudes and opinions.

TRAINEES

The most important product of the training program is the trainee. The effect of training on their attitudes, opinions, and learned skills may be secured in several ways. Paper-and-pencil tests are the simplest means of determining the amount of information learned and retained. These tests should be administered before and after the training program. Another means of evaluating the progress of the trainee is to observe his performance of specific tasks and discuss the observation with the trainees' supervisor. These two means of evaluation are useful in the respect that they tell the training officer whether the students have acquired course content.

There are other aspects of evaluation equally valuable. Several months after the completion of training, the training officer should follow-up on the trainees. Contacts with the supervisor can determine whether the trainee is performing adequately on the job. Contacts with the trainee can determine whether the training has been useful and appropriate to his job experience. The ex-trainee may offer recommendations regarding changes in the program to make training meaningful to everyday job tasks. The training officer may find that the trainee has not understood the importance or usefulness of some aspects of

the program. Such deficiencies in understanding may suggest a need to develop new strategies of communication for future class sessions to get across certain content areas. The former trainee may offer constructive counsel concerning elimination or addition of topics and skills to course subject matter.

Another valuable device is the daily log or diary in which the trainee records his impressions of his experiences during training. This log should be more than a record of who spoke on what topic. The trainee's report should assess the quality of instruction, the pertinence of the topic, and the trainee's recommendations for improvement. It should not be necessary that the logs be signed because some trainees prefer to remain anonymous. However, there should be some means of identification if there is to be measurement of changes in attitudes as the trainee moves through the course sequence. Attitudes may change in choice of topics for emphasis or in position along a negative-positive continuum. To allow for continuity in the diaries, the training officer may ask that the trainees select a number, letter, or symbol and place this on each page of the diary or log. Thereby, anonymity is safeguarded without eliminating the possibility of measuring attitude change. If the log strategy is to be effective, the training officer should discuss in class the points made in the logs. Students will be assured that the logs are

being used and that their efforts are worthwhile. This discussion indicates to the class that it is safe to give frank opinions without fear of retaliation. Training officers must avoid censure of students who offer negative assessments. Nothing will kill this potentially useful tool quicker than use of log contents to discipline students or to threaten trainees because of some statement appearing in the log. Logs may be used to evaluate the quality and quantity of films, training techniques, lectures, and content, and the pertinence of all the above to job training.

The trainee is the product of the training program, but he also has great potential as an agent for introducing change into the training program. Furthermore, as a graduate of an effective training course, he can be the best salesman of the program to the correctional system as a whole

OTHER SOURCES OF INFORMATION

In addition to the administration, the work supervisor, and the trainee, there are other potential sources of information in terms of evaluating the program. One source is composed of training officers in similar programs, both in other institutions and in other states. Through correspondence, ideas and experience can be exchanged in terms of course content, curriculum, and alternative modes of evaluating programs. Not to be overlooked

as a potential source of information are trainers connected with nearby large industrial concerns, who may have ideas, content, and material useful to the institution program.

In institutions the inmates are the ultimate recipients of the benefits of staff training. They may be queried concerning their perceptions of a good officer or a poor one. Finally, the public may be queried by questionnaire or by informal contact in the community to determine their attitudes toward the institution or its organization. Community members may have recommendations on how the organization might do a more effective job at selling programs and communicating with the community. Insights can be gained by learning their impressions of employees of the institution. Negative impressions could be remedied by attacking the problems in training.

SUMMARY

Evaluation is an important phase of the training program. Among the methods of evaluation are pencil-and-paper tests, logs, studies of job performance, and interviews of administration, work supervisors, trainees, inmates, and community residents. All of these sources of information provide means of determining how training can be made more effective in meeting agency goals and providing employees with valuable and meaningful experiences.

Does, in fact, training make a difference in job performance and trainee behavior? A good training program goes beyond just training men. If it has the confidence of all segments of the institution's staff, a training program becomes an effective channel of communication between the various departments and organizational levels. A good training officer facilitates communication between institutional personnel and himself to encourage executive awareness of morale problems and staff awareness of institutional problems and the goals of the organization.

Training is not an easy program, a good time in lieu of work, or an ordeal to be endured. Training is a meaningful experience, useful to both individual and organization, as a means of improving the quality of services and attaining organizational objectives. It provides great challenges for the training officer, but, in these challenges, lies the greatest possibilities for the satisfaction accruing from a difficult and vital job well done.

CHAPTER VI

ROLE OF THE TRAINING OFFICER

Once the training committee has established the philosophy and goals of the training program, and once the training officer and his staff have implemented the training programs, it is time for the training officer to examine and evaluate his own role.

In some institutions, training officers are assigned a wide variety of responsibilities not directly connected with training. Frequently, these fall in the category of tour guide, public relations expert, community speaker, and even editor of the prison newspaper. Some of these diverse responsibilities are assigned the training officer because a staff position has not been provided for these tasks. Sometimes, these diverse responsibilities are given to the training officer because the administration may see these tasks as being related to training or because they perceive the training officer as not having enough to do.

When the training officer is involved in tasks only incidently related to training, the consequences are adverse for the correctional agency as well as for the training program in itself. The agency is not getting genuine returns on its investment in training

if the officer can be diverted into incidental tasks without apparent loss to training. The object lesson is detrimental to the officer's own conception of the importance of his work or the agency's firm commitment to the goals of training. His work in training looses the sense of purpose which safeguards him from the boredom undermining genuine teaching.

To avoid these adverse consequences, the agency should define the tasks and responsibilities of the training officer to be in training as exclusively as possible. The agency should respect its own definition of the training officer's role. However, the officer himself has obligations to take actions against the possibility that his training functions will be eroded. The agency can give him only general instructions on purposes and methods of training. It has a responsibility to furnish means of carrying out the instructions. Beyond this, the training officer must develop the "flesh" for the "skeleton" the agency executives have given for the training program. Many choices must be made between alternative ways of carrying out the general instructions and utilizing the resources. At this level, training officers will differ in what they make of their job. The effective officer will think through the detailed meaning of the goals he has been assigned. He will recognize the importance of fitting his program into the network of relationships making up the agency as

a whole. He will see that his tasks offer much room for imagination and innovation. He will be captured by the possibilities of his work and not paralyzed by the lack of detailed instructions from the "higher-ups".

This broader perspective of the training officer's role may be illustrated by reflecting on the many alternative goals pertinent to in-service training. These alternatives range from limited orientation of new employees to implementation of fundamental change into the correctional agency as a whole. They range from training limited to only one segment of the agency staff to involvement in the problem of integrating all segments into a new kind of social system. Within this limited space, it would be inappropriate to probe completely this complicated subject. It is sufficient to list kinds of functions in-service training can perform as outlined in an article by Elmer H. Johnson:

I. Preservation of Agency Social System

   A. Communication of agency policy and procedures, especially as necessitated by changes in agency environment;

   B. Readjustment of labor division among agency staff;

   C. Prevention and alleviation of staff disciplinary problems;

   D. Reduction of tensions associated with working in people-changing processes;

   E. Emphasis on handling the client as an individual

with certain needs, rather than concentration on the presumed needs of the organization.

II. Implementation of Organizational or Program Change

A. Increase the percentage of staff members accepting a new program;

B. Revision of status and job-role system to more closely fulfill the needs of new programs (re-training, etc.);

C. Minimization of staff conflicts during the transitional process when new programming is being introduced;

D. Encouragement of formal and informal staff groupings acceptance and support of new programs;

E. Raising staff competence to levels required in content areas needed for new programs.

III. Development of Sensitivity

A. Aid agency staff to view situation from the inmate's perspective;

B. Aid the inmate to perceive his own habitually inadequate responses to certain social situations;

C. Aid staff to develop an awareness of the basis for their self-images, as a factor to contend with in staff-inmate treatment relationships. (6)

This list of functions is useful to the training officer when he must judge whether a particular task is consistent with his role as training officer. From this list, he can select the particular function, or set of functions, most germane to the tasks and goals he already has been assigned. If he is asked to perform additional tasks, he can evaluate their consistency with his train-

ing role by attempting to relate them to the functions of that role.

If they fit, his only problem is one of staff time and personnel. If the newly assigned tasks do not fit, then the training officer needs to negotiate with the institution's administration and staff to determine who should assume responsibility for the newly assigned and developed tasks. This does not mean that the training officer and his staff should be rigid. Indeed, a training program to be effective and of assistance to the organization must be flexible. However, the training officer and his staff must not be bogged down with chores no one else wishes to perform.

In order to assist the training officer at the institutional level, it might be helpful if a central office position as Supervisor of Staff Training and Development or some similar name is established so that this individual through the Director of Corrections, is able to support institution and regional office staff training. George Kiefer lists the following activities as being appropriate for a central office supervisor of training and development:

1. Assessing organizational needs in terms of personnel abilities, recruitment/retention characteristics, quantitive and qualitive personnel needs for newly-developed programs;

2. Continuously assess the training needs of each Department facility in the corrections area, for possible training program development;

3. Assist Departmental facilities in the planning implementation, and evaluation of training programs;

4. Develop a series of essentially standardized training programs (permitting appropriate local flexibility), for various needs and staff levels, and assisting/stimulating the facilities to utilize these programs within their respective units;

5. Providing a key resource for administrative information relative to training program costs, instructional or consultant assistance availability, budgeting for training, training equipment, and so on;

6. In terms of Departmental budget-making, provide the administration with appropriate cost estimates and similar information, insofar as staff-training is concerned--at the Department and facility level;

7. Serve as a stimulus and facilitator for Departmental administrators and middle-management personnel acceptance of and real support for training;

8. Assist in providing a productive link between the Department and external organization having resources which could be available for training programs. (7)

Thus, the training officer has established his own guidelines for the implementation of a program. He has staff support at the central office level. If he has been effective in building relations within the institution, he has staff support within the institution, but what of non-training activities. Does the training officer assume responsibility for some of these roles? Cer-

tainly a good case can be made for using the training officer as a recruitment resource. Who else is better prepared to respond to questions regarding preparation for work in the institution? Certainly a good case can be made for utilizing training staff as tour guides for few other institution staff are prepared to respond to the broad variety of questions the public may ask. Few others in the institution staff know or have had contact with almost every other person within the institution, so that a difficult question may be directed toward the appropriate competent staff person.

A number of training officers find themselves in a position where they are asked to write the job descriptions and detail responsibilities for every post within the institution. This is a tremendous undertaking and is a compliment to the administration's perception of the competence of a staff training officer. While the training officer is writing the job descriptions for each post, he is also developing a sense of familiarity with the institution, its positions and its personnel. He will also obtain a first-hand knowledge of the duties and responsibilities required of every post within the institution. As he performs this task, the training officer needs to constantly determine whether the existing training program is preparing the individual for responsibility at this post. In process, it is also offering a training officer the opportunity for evaluating each post in

terms of its assigned responsibilities. It's not unusual for men to have been assigned posts without ever having a clear picture or guidelines as to the job responsibilities for each post within the organization. It is insufficient to say that correctional officers shall do such and such or Lieutenants should do thus and so. Certainly areas of competence should be established for each grade level within the organizational hierarchy. But, more than that, guidelines should be established for the operation of each position within the organization. Thus, a new man shifting from one post to another can read the established guidelines and know, within reason, what is expected of him in this new position. With this type of role, in the organization, the training officer has the rare opportunity of tailoring training opportunities to job specifications. While it is time-consuming and a burdensome task, if the opportunity should be offered to the training officer to develop such guidelines, he should do all within his power to complete the tasks.

If training is to be taken seriously, it must be good, it must be relevant, it must be stimulating. It must also have organizational support. The training officer must convince the administration that participation and performance in training must be taken into consideration with other factors when staff are being reviewed for promotion and salary increase. Few other

factors will convince staff of administration's support for training than to see administration utilize staff training evaluation as one criteria for advancement.

SUMMARY

The role of a training officer may be quite diverse and complex. His role may involve much more than simply designing a program and teaching in the program. A strong possibility emerges that a good training officer will soon evolve into a training department with staff with multiple skills. These skills include not only in training, but also are utilized as a service and promotional vehicle designed to maintain and improve the organization's goals and capabilities. This indeed, is the ultimate goal of training.

FOOTNOTES

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4. Kassebaum, G., Ward, D. and Wilner, D. "Some Correlates of Staff Ideology in the Prison," The Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, Volume I, Number 2, July 1964. pp. 96-109.

5. Glaser, D. "The Effectiveness of a Prison and Parole System," Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, Indiana. 1964.

6. Johnson, E. H., "In-Service Training: A Key to Correctional Programs," Criminologica, Volume 4, Number 3, November 1966, pp. 16-26.

7. Kiefer, G. W., "Assessment of Staff-Training Needs in Illinois Correctional Organizations," Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections, Southern Illinois University, June, 1968.

APPENDIX I

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN

Lesson: Communication Techniques

Objective:
1. To acquaint officers with principles of verbal and non-verbal communication
2. To demonstrate how one's value system affects communication
3. To improve interaction among institution staff

Handout Material: Non-verbal Clues in Counseling, Saslow reprint

Assignment:
1. (See above)
2. Communication Patterns, Rush page 31-48

Audio Visual Aids:
1. How We Communicate - 18 minute film
2. Chalkboard
3. Tape recorder

Time: Three hours - including 1 fifteen minute break

Related Lessons: Attitudes and Values

Format:
1. Reasons for communication
2. Verbal communication
   a. How learned - family and school
   b. Differences in use of words and tones related to learning background
   c. How to communicate effectively

3. Non-verbal communication

   a. Effect of non-verbal cues on oral communication

4. Film - How We Communicate, 18 minutes

5. Record 15 minute discussion and playback to illustrate points

APPENDIX II

FILM RENTAL LIBRARIES

Listed below is a sampling of some of the larger film libraries about the country. Each has catalogs available listing films, descriptions, and rental fees.

Learning Resources Center
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Illinois 62901

Indiana University
Audio-Visual Center
Bloomington, Indiana 47405

Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction
Extension Division
State University of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa 52240

Audio-Visual Extension Service
University of Minnesota
2037 University Avenue
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455

The Pennsylvania State University
Audio-Visual Service
University Park, Pennsylvania 16802

Mountain Plains Educational Media Council
(Joint Film Catalog that includes films from the following. The catalog may be obtained from any of these.)

Colorado State College
Instructional Materials Center
Greeley, Colorado 80631

University of Colorado
Bureau of Audiovisual Instruction
Boulder, Colorado 80302

Brigham Young University
Department of Educational Media
Provo, Utah 84601

University of Utah
Audiovisual Bureau
Milton Bennion Hall 207
Salt Lake City, Utah 84110

University of Nevada
Audiovisual Communication Center
Reno, Nevada 89507

Risks College
Audio-Visual Branch
Rexburg, Idaho 83440

University of Wyoming
Audio-Visual Services
Laramie, Wyoming 82070

University of Southern California
School of Performing Arts
Cinema Film Distribution, University Park
Los Angeles, California 90007

Purdue University
Audio-Visual Center
Lafayette, Indiana 47907

Syracuse University
Film Distribution
Syracuse, New York 13210

Educational Media Bulletin
Division of Continuing Education
Oregon State System of Higher Education
1633 S.W. Park Avenue
Portland 1, Oregon 97202

University of Illinois
Visual Aids Service
Champaign, Illinois 61822

Northern Illinois University
Audio-Visual Service
DeKalb, Illinois 60115

Private Industry, State, and Federal Agencies

Association Instructional Materials
600 Madison Avenue
New York, New York 10022
(Division of Association Films, Inc.)

U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D.C. 20401
(U.S. Government Films for Public Education:
Publication Number FS5.234:34006-63: Cost: $3.00)

Sigma Films Inc.
P.O. Box 1235
Studio City, California 91604
(Math)

Audio-Visual Department of the Conservation Foundation
30 East 40th Street
New York, New York 10016

A-V Branch
Division of Public Information
U.S. Atomic Energy Commission
Washington, D.C. 20545
(Two catalogs: Popular Level and Professional Level)

Twyman Films, Inc.
329 Salem Avenue
Dayton, Ohio 45406

Swank Motion Pictures, Inc.
621 N. Skinker Boulevard
St. Louis, Missouri 63130

Guide to Free Science Material
Educator's Progress Service
Randolph, Wisconsin 53956

APPENDIX III

RESOURCE AGENCIES

A number of state and federal agencies and professional organizations offer valuable resource materials and consultants. Those listed below are only a few which offer potential services to training.

1. American Correctional Association
   100 Shoreham Building
   15th and "H" Street, N.W.
   Washington, D.C. 20005
   Membership fee - $3.00

2. National Council on Crime and Delinquency
   44 East 23rd Street
   New York, New York 10012
   Membership fee - $5.00

3. U.S. Department of Justice

   Federal Bureau of Prisons
   Federal Bureau of Investigation
   Office of Law Enforcement Assistance (publishes quarterly journal Federal Probation - free to employees in the field of corrections) from:

   Federal Probation
   Supreme Court Building
   Washington, D.C. 20544

4. National Institute of Mental Health
   Bethesda, Maryland 20014
   (Has resource information on crime, delinquency, and mental health)

5. State Departments of Corrections, Mental Health, Education, and Public Safety

6. Regional offices of federal agencies such as:

    Department of Labor
    Department of Health, Education and Welfare
    Federal Bureau of Investigation
    Department of the Treasury

7. Large city police departments usually have a number of available services.

8. Local branches of professional associations such as:

    American Bar Association
    American Psychological Association
    American Medical Association
    American Personnel and Guidance Association
    Mental Health Association

APPENDIX IV

BASIC LIBRARY

A. Periodicals

1. American Journal of Corrections
2. Crime and Delinquency
3. Federal Probation
4. National Clearinghouse for Mental Health Information - Crime and Delinquency Abstracts
5. Excerpta Criminologica
6. Issues in Criminology
7. Prison Journal
8. National Prison Statistics
9. Uniform Crime Reports

B. Books

1. The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society

   U. S. Superintendent of Documents
2. Task Force Reports: The Police
3. Task Force Reports: The Courts
4. Task Force Reports: Corrections
5. Task Force Reports: Juvenile Delinquency
6. Task Force Reports: Science and Technology
7. Task Force Reports: Assessment of Crime
8. Task Force Reports: Organized Crime

9. Task Force Reports: Drunkenness

10. Task Force Reports: Narcotics and Drug Abuse

11. Readings in Human Relations, Davis and Scott, McGraw-Hill

12. Criminology, Sutherland and Cressy, Lippincott

13. Crime, Correction and Society, Johnson, Dorsey

14. Manual of Correctional Standards, American Correctional Association

15. The Effectiveness of a Prison and Parole System, Glasser, Bobbs Merrill