INFLUENCES ON TEACHER DECISION-MAKING IN CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION

CLASSROOMS

by

JONATHAN E. MESSEMER

(Under the Direction of Thomas Valentine)

ABSTRACT

The focus of most empirical studies on correctional education pertains to the inmates. The purpose of this study was to understand better the dimensions of influence that affect the instructional decision-making of correctional education teachers. This study measured two broad dimensions of influence: interpersonal dimensions of influence (prison administrators, correctional officers, other correctional educators, and inmates) and contextual dimensions of influence (classroom characteristics and security/safety). In addition, this study measured the level of power correctional education teachers believed that they had to make instructional decisions in the classroom. This study used a self-completed questionnaire that was mailed to correctional education teachers throughout the United States who held membership in the Correctional Education Association. This study received a random sample of 427 completed questionnaires from correctional education teachers from 38-states, with a 69.3% rate of response. The findings suggest that five dimensions of influence had a positive affect on the teachers' instructional decisions in a prison facility. The rank order of the five positive dimensions of influence include (1) security/safety, (2) classroom characteristics, (3) other correctional educators, (4) inmates, and (5) prison administrators. The sixth dimension of

influence, correctional officers, was found not to have a positive influence on the correctional teachers' instructional decisions. A simple regression analysis suggests that the other correctional educator dimension of influence was a statistically significant predictor of the correctional teachers' power to make instructional decisions in the classroom. In addition, the correctional officer dimension of influence was statistically significant in not having an affect upon the correctional teachers' power to make instructional decisions in the classroom. A disjoint cluster analysis was used to group the correctional teachers into five distinct cluster types in relation to the six dimensions of influence. Among the five cluster types, the teachers are characterized by (1) high administrative influence, (2) high classroom influence and low administrative and correctional officer influence, (3) high overall influence, (4) low correctional officer, inmate, and classroom influences, and (5) very low overall influence. Finally, this study identified fifteen statistically significant independent variable predictors among the six dimensions of influence. The gender of the correctional education teachers was a statistically significant independent variable predictor of four dimensions of influence. The findings suggests that the four dimensions of influence, security/safety, classroom characteristics, other correctional educators, and inmates, affect the instructional decision-making for the female teachers and not for the male teachers.

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2006

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to memory of my late grandparents:

John and Anna Louise Messemer and Forest and Laura Ellen Berry

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this dissertation provided me with an opportunity for immense personal and professional growth. While many people have contributed to this document through their love, interest, support, and endless prayers, some deserve an individual acknowledgement.

I would like to first thank God for providing all the necessary events that took place and the network of people that was vital toward the completion of this dissertation. I also thank God for providing me with the wisdom and perseverance to complete such a mammoth task. I want to thank my wife, Dr. Jane E. Messemer, for her unwavering support and willingness to relocate to Georgia so that I could pursue my academic and professional aspirations. Without you, this achievement would not have been possible. To my daughter, Leah Marie Messemer, I would like to dedicate this dissertation to your future. May God always bless you with the wisdom, strength, and determination to follow his plan for your life. I would like to thank my family for their support and prayers throughout the years. In particular, my father (Ronald J. Messemer) and mother (Artie E. Messemer) for their continuous love, support, and inspiration throughout my life. I want to thank my parents and my mother-in-law (Mary Maxine Shanks) for their time and willingness to travel a great distance to baby-sit my daughter so that I could complete this dissertation.

I want to extend my deepest gratitude to my dissertation committee chair, Dr. Thomas Valentine. Tom has unselfishly given of his time and knowledge for my dissertation with respect to adult education theory and research methodology. In addition to my dissertation work, Tom

has always been willing to give of his time and expertise for many of my other research projects. I am fortunate to have had Tom as my mentor, because he has continuously worked to develop my understanding of research methodology. I am also fortunate to have had Tom's guidance regarding the valuable career advice he has provided throughout the past five-years he has served as my major professor. I want to thank Tom for giving me an opportunity to help in the teaching of some graduate courses at The University of Georgia. I finally want to thank Tom for being a great friend.

I want to extend my deepest gratitude to the other members of my dissertation committee. First, I want to thank Dr. Ronald M. Cervero for his insight regarding my dissertation. I want to thank Ron for his groundbreaking work on adult education program planning which has influenced my interest in the field and the direction of my future research. I also want to thank Ron for giving me an opportunity to pursue my doctoral studies at The University of Georgia. Second, I want to thank Dr. Bradley C. Courtenay for his contributions to my dissertation and allowing me to study at The University of Georgia. I also want to thank Brad for his mere kindness and the interest he always showed toward my work. Third, I want to thank Dr. Jay W. Rojewski for being willing to serve on my dissertation committee and for the expertise, he brought to the dissertation.

At The University of Georgia, I want to thank Drs. Talmadge Guy, Juanita Johnson-Bailey, Sharan B. Merriam, Allen B. Moore, and Karen E. Watkins for the courses they taught which had a strong impact upon my research. I also want to thank Dr. Margaret Holt who served as my interim advisor when I first started my doctorate at The University of Georgia. I want to show my deepest appreciation to Mrs. Irene and Dr. Curtis Ulmer who helped to financially support this dissertation through the Ulmer Scholarship. I also want to thank Drs. Anita J.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

There are more than 2.1 million inmates housed in state, federal, and private correctional

facilities throughout the United States, with 60.4% of U.S. inmates residing in a state prison

facility (U.S. Department of Justice, 2005). The majority of federal inmates are serving

sentences for white-collar crimes. Federal inmates tend to be more formally educated at the time

of incarceration than inmates who are entering a state prison. State inmates often represent the

blue-collar environment in that they usually come from lower social-economic backgrounds and

have been low achievers of education. For example, the U.S. Department of Justice (2001)

reported that 43.1% of state inmates had less than a high school diploma or General Education

Development (GED) diploma, whereas only 29.4% of federal inmates were among the same

educational group. Inmates who had previously attended college were representative of 13.4%

of state inmates and 26.6% of federal inmates. However, only 2.7% of state inmates and 9.1% of

federal inmates held college degrees prior to incarceration. The Georgia Department of

Corrections (1998) reported that 40% of its inmates were functionally illiterate and only 7%

could read at the 12th grade-level or higher. Similar to the national figures, approximately 98%

of Georgia state inmates are eligible for either parole or release in an average of seven years.

Although some form of correctional education has existed for more than 150 years, the

field has experience political and philosophical turbulence throughout these years. At one end of

the spectrum, the purpose of prison is to punish the inmate for their criminal behavior and

education is seen as a luxury. At the other end of the spectrum, education is seen as playing an

important role in preventing recidivism and helping the prisons to reduce the number of disciplinary infractions by inmates.

Prisons in the U.S. have provided some inmates the opportunity to participate in numerous educational programs, including adult basic education (ABE), GED preparation, post-secondary education, vocational training, and many other self-help programs. The focus upon correctional education during the 1970s was on rehabilitation. When rehabilitation became the focal point, correctional educators began to develop educational programs that focused upon inmates making better decisions and thus altering their previous behavior patterns (Hobbler, 1999). It was believed that inmates who succeeded in the classroom would be less likely to return to prison upon release. Numerous studies suggest that the inmates participating in a correctional education program have lower rates of recidivism than inmates who do not participate in such programs (New York State Department of Correctional Services, 1992; Porporino & Robinson, 1992; Seigal & Basta, 1997; Taylor, 1994; Walsh, 1985; Zink, 1970). Like all areas of education, correctional education was not without its dissenters. The work of Martinson (1974) which implied that "nothing works" regarding the rehabilitation of inmates began to be more widely accepted during the 1980s when the focus of many in political power stressed the need for stronger punishment of inmates. By the 1990s, political leaders in the U.S. were pushing for longer prison sentences for inmates and less opportunity for parole.

When the U.S. federal government passed the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994 (1994), this statute mandated that repeat offenders receive longer prison sentences. The Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994 is often referred to as the "Three-Strikes" bill, which stipulates that if offenders are currently being convicted of their third offense or greater, they are eligible to receive a life-sentence upon

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conviction. Therefore, this federal statute has resulted in a drastic increase in the national prison population due to the longer prison sentences for inmates. Because of the increase in the U.S. prison population, states are required to spend more money toward housing inmates and building new prisons. The 1990s saw a decrease in federal and state funding for correctional education programs in order to meet the costs of housing the inmates (Davidson, 2000; Gehring, 1997; Hackman, 1997). For example, in 1998 the Georgia Department of Corrections (1998) had the financial resources to allow just 19.2% of its inmates to participate in educational programs that include ABE, GED, and special education. The remaining inmates interested in participating in these programs were often placed on a waiting list. Approximately the same percentage of Georgia inmates are participating in the vocational programs. One section in the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994 prohibits all inmates from applying for Pell grants in order to pay for college tuition (Gehring, 1997; Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994). The federal government took such action even though only 1.2% of the Pell grants went to support inmates (Taylor, 1994). Therefore, it was thought that the ban on Pell grants for inmates would eliminate the prison college programs (Gehring, 1997; Taylor, 1994; Werner, 2002; Zook, 1994). A recent study by Messemer (2003) reported that 55.6% (25 states) of the 45 states who responded to the survey offered college programs to its inmates. Those states who offered such programs found other means to fund the college program for inmates. The findings in this study were correlated with other variables representing state characteristics. In the study, the researcher concluded that the reason why some states offered college programs to inmates and others did not was due to the theoretical beliefs that each state held regarding the role of education. This study found that states with lower rates of citizens holding a bachelor's degree or higher were less likely to support college programs for inmates.

During the start of the new millennium, the failing world economy and the U.S.'s concerns regarding more terror threats as experienced on September 11, 2001 has changed the focus of many political leaders throughout the United States. Because U.S. tax dollars have to be redirected toward other areas for national security and defense purposes, political leaders are now beginning to question whether it is important to spend large amounts of tax dollars just to house inmates. Many news programs on television are beginning to question whether alternative programs would be better for some inmates. This trend could swing in favor of correctional education as the philosophy of prison stakeholders focuses more upon the issue of rehabilitation and less upon punishment. Hackman (1997) suggested that it was far more economical to re-educate and attempt to rehabilitate inmates than to house them.

<center>Instructional Decision-Making in Correctional Education</center>

Correctional education teachers, like any group of teachers, have a belief that when they are in their classroom they have substantial control over the instructional decision-making process. However, in correctional education, teachers are often required to make instructional decisions that involve balancing between their own educational philosophy and the organizational constraints imposed by the political leaders at both the state and federal levels of government. Like all state and federal programs, the degree to which correctional education programs are adequately maintained through proper staffing, budgeting, and the development of the necessary learning materials and equipment for the inmate learners is dependent upon the current political structure at both the state and federal level. As political administrations change from state-to-state, correctional education programs tend to change their focus in order to mirror the state and federal leadership. It is the assumption of this study that program stakeholders – the people both internal and external to the organization who have a stake in deciding how the

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educational program operates – not only have an effect upon adult education program planning, but also an effect upon the instructional decision-making in the classroom.

Cervero and Wilson (1994a) suggest that for the program planner to plan effectively it is important for him or her to learn the art of negotiating within the power structure of the program stakeholders in relation to the many conflicting interests between the stakeholders. In addition, Cervero and Wilson (2006) suggest that program stakeholders also have a strong influence on the instructional decision-making process. One area in which the teachers have some control is in the selection and organization of the classroom content. For example, it is impossible for program planners to hold expertise in all subject areas. According to Cervero and Wilson, "In these situations the planner is not knowledgeable about the content and thus defers these decisions to the teacher" (p. 165). For the teachers working in a correctional facility, they need to properly identify and develop a strong working relationship with the many program stakeholders in order that they can take into account the stakeholders' many needs and interests. It is through the process of relationship building that teachers in corrections can begin to create change and increase their role in making instructional decisions. However, the social context of correctional education is very complex in that it has numerous stakeholders, which set the course of action.

One set of stakeholders is external to the immediate educational program. The external stakeholders include four distinct groups. The first group includes the state and federal legislators who pass laws that affect the funding for correctional education. The second group includes the public who support the legislative branch. The third group includes the administrators within the state-level of the department of corrections who assign the funding and educational recourses to the various prison cites. The fourth group includes business and

industry who potentially hire the inmate learners upon their release from prison. However, it is the belief the researcher that the influence of external stakeholders is largely filtered through the stakeholders who are much closer to the classroom environment. Therefore, the external stakeholders were excluded from this study.

The second set of stakeholders is internal to the immediate educational program and has a direct influence upon the teachers' decisions in the correctional education classroom. For this study, the internal stakeholders will be referred to as interpersonal dimensions of influence. There are four interpersonal dimensions of influence:

- the influence of prison administrators,

- the influence of correctional officers,

- the influence of other correctional educators, and

- the influence of inmates.

The first interpersonal dimension is the influence of *prison administrators*. The prison administrators include the warden and educational administrators, who decide which educational programs will be supported, how the educational programs will be funded, who will serve as the teaching personnel, and which inmates will have an opportunity to attend the educational programs. The second interpersonal dimension is the influence of *correctional officers*. The primary role of the correctional officer is to insure the safety of all individuals within the prison facility. As a result, many correctional officers serve the function of planning the daily routine of the inmates, which include their education schedule. To some extent, the correctional officers can determine which inmates can attend class on a particular day and which inmates cannot due to some disciplinary infraction. The third interpersonal dimension is the influence of *other correctional educators*. This group of educators consists of the teacher's colleagues (e.g., other

teachers) and the educational councilors who serve the role of testing and placement of inmates in the correctional educational program. The fourth interpersonal dimension is the influence of *inmates* who attend the educational program in prison.

Although the interpersonal dimensions can have a direct influence upon the decisions of teachers in a correctional education classroom, equally one cannot underestimate the influence the contextual dimensions have upon the teachers' decision-making process. In correctional education, there are two primary contextual dimensions of influence:

- classroom influences and
- security/safety influences.

As in the case of all adult education programs, correctional education teachers must plan according to the size of the classroom, the class enrollment, the classroom layout, the educational materials, the level of classroom technology, and the accessibility for students with physical disabilities. However, one contextual constraint which correctional education teachers must plan around which most adult educators do not have to consider includes the security/safety influence. Because the correctional education teachers are teaching within a prison environment, they must adhere to the many policies of the prison facility regarding security when making educational decisions in the classroom. Correctional education teachers are required to work in conjunction with correctional officers in maintaining a safe learning environment for the inmates, while always being aware of the social climate among the inmate population.

<center>Statement of the Problem</center>

Although the four interpersonal dimensions of influence (prison administrators, correctional officers, other correctional educators, and inmates) and the two contextual dimensions of influence (classroom and security/safety) named in the above section are logically

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defensible and readily apparent to many correctional educators, there are no empirical studies

that assess how these factors affect the instructional decision-making process. The six

dimensions are widely accepted by many people, but there is little empirical evidence to warrant

the level of its influence. In order to better understand how influences operate on instructional

decision-making, we need to understand both the importance that correctional educators assign

to each of these dimensions and the way in which these dimensions impact an overall sense of

teacher power.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to better understand the dimensions of influence that affect

instructional decisions made by correctional educators. This study measures two broad

dimensions of influence: interpersonal dimensions of influence (prison administrators,

correctional officers, other correctional educators, and inmates) and contextual dimensions of

influence (classroom and security/safety). Four research questions drive this study:

1. What is the relative importance of the six dimensions of influence for correctional
   education classrooms?

2. To what extent are the six dimensions of influence predicted by the teachers' personal
   and professional characteristics?

3. To what extent do the six dimensions of influence predict the teachers' power to make
   instructional decisions?

4. What are the major types of teachers with respect to the six dimensions of influence?

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study will benefit three groups of people: program planners, staff

developers and policy makers. First, this study could help program planners to understand better

how to create classroom change within a correctional facility. In addition, this study could provide program planners with an understanding as to what teachers react to or value in the correctional education classroom and the significant importance of these dimensions of influence.

Second, this study could help staff developers in developing educational programs for the teachers that take into consideration the six dimensions of influence. For example, the findings of this study could assist staff developers in developing comprehensive training programs for newly hired teachers in correctional education. The training programs for new teachers will help them to understand the six dimensions that could influence their classroom decisions. The teachers' knowledge of the six dimensions of influence will help the new teachers to better anticipate the interpersonal and contextual influences on classroom decisions prior to developing a daily lesson plan. In addition, this study could help staff developers in providing training and development programs to the experienced correctional teachers with the purpose of assisting the teachers to improve their teaching skills.

Third, this study could help policy makers to understand better the social context of teaching in a correctional facility. If the policy makers understand the six dimensions of influence on teachers' decision-making in the correctional education classroom, they may be more inclined to develop new policies and procedures that will better serve the correctional education teachers and the adult learning needs of the inmates.

CHAPTER II

THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature relative to correctional education and educational program planning. This review will include the following nine areas: (1) history of correctional education; (2) inmate characteristics; (3) purpose of correctional education; (4) correctional education programs and evaluation; (5) adult education and its impact upon correctional education; (6) educational program planning theory; (7) empirical studies on power and politics in educational program planning; (8) power and politics in the context of correctional education; and (9) teachers' decisions regarding classroom instruction.

At the time this study began, power and politics in correctional education program planning was the focus of the literature review. However, it was important for the researcher to conduct a complete literature search in the field of correctional education. The review of the literature provided the researcher with a comprehensive knowledge and understanding of the history of correctional education, including current issues within this field of study. As this study evolved, it became apparent that the important context for the research involved teacher decision-making. This led the researcher to direct the literature search toward the power structures that influences teachers' decisions within the correctional education classroom.

The resources for this review were generated from computer-based literature searches, which include Annual Reviews, Census Data (U.S. Census Bureau), Criminal Justice Abstracts, Current Contents (Scholarly Journals), Current Index to Statistics, Dissertation Abstracts (at ProQuest), the Educational Resources Information Clearinghouse (ERIC), the University of

Georgia's GALIN web-based system, the University of Georgia's GIL web-based system, Sociological Abstracts, and the U.S. Congressional Set. Descriptors used to guide the searches include: "correctional education", "educational program planning", "correctional education and program planning", "correctional education programs", "inmates and education", "inmate population", "inmates and statistics", "correctional education and teachers", and "teachers decisions".

<div align="center">History of Correctional Education</div>

The history of correctional education can be traced in the United States as far back as 1789. According to Gehring (1995), the early prison education programs were often referred to as the "Sabbath School." The purpose of the Sabbath school was to be able to teach the inmates how to read in order that they may be able to read the Bible. The foundation of the correctional education programs in the late 1700s mirrored that of the broader educational framework during the Colonial period. According to Stubblefield and Keane (1994), the "Puritan obligation to seek salvation required that literacy be promoted to enable everyone to read the Bible" (p. 23). Therefore, early correctional education programs became literacy driven programs so that the inmate could read and comprehend the Bible. It was hoped the inmate could identify his or her sins, seek forgiveness from God, and thus achieve salvation (Gehring, 1995). During the period of the early prison education system, 1789-1875, a local chaplain who provided the Bibles to the inmates as well as volunteered his time to help them learn to read often represented the adult educator (Gehring, 1995). Therefore, the curriculum primarily involved the reading of Bible verses. The goal of the Puritan version of prison education was to change the heart of the inmate toward a more moral and value centered human being (Gehring, 1995).

Gehring (1995) reported that during 1826-1840 more secular education was introduced into the prison education system. The curriculum during this period of correctional education focused primarily upon the areas of reading, writing, and math. However, in some prison settings, the inmates were provided instruction on history and geography. By the mid-1840's, the field of correctional education began to expand the curriculum offered to inmates. Gehring (1995) stated that in 1844, Sing Sing State Prison in New York expanded its prison education curriculum to include "history, astronomy, geography, physiology, and physical education" (p. 53). According to Wolford (1989), New York in 1847 was "the first state to mandate that correctional education be available in all institutions" (p. 357). The reform movement, which began in Elmira, New York about 1870, spread quickly throughout the U.S. The reform movement mandated some inmates to participate in the educational and vocational programs as part of their prison sentence. Gehring (1995) noted that during the early period of correctional education that the "staff of the Boston Prison Discipline Society observed that prisons without schools had higher annual death rates than those with schools" (p. 55). According to Gehring, McShane, and Eggleston (1998), the two most influential prison systems during the early years of correctional education were the Pennsylvania system (solitary confinement) and the Auburn system (factory model) in New York. Other states would soon pattern their prison systems after both the Pennsylvania and New York models, whereby "cell study was the rule in Pennsylvania facilities, but group learning activities were sometimes allowed in Auburn institutions" (p. 152).

The early 1900s brought to the United States the industrial revolution. As a result of the demand for workers to support the industrial revolution, it became important for both politicians and prison personnel in the United States to adopt the philosophy that inmates can and need to be rehabilitated. "Schools were seen as a solution to the problems of industrialization, urbanization,

increased crime rates, social upheaval, the need to Americanize vast numbers of immigrants, and

advocacy of the democratic ideal" (Eggleston & Gehring, 1986, p. 88). As the industrial

revolution progressed and the demand for labor was at a premium, prisons in the United States

developed vocational programs for inmates in order to help meet the demand for skilled laborers

(Eggleston & Gehring, 1986). The field's focus toward job skills training is one of the earliest

examples whereby the correctional education structure was market driven.

One of the early signs that correctional education was established through a political

ideology was the development of the Mutual Welfare League from 1895 to the mid-1920s

(Davidson, 1996). The Mutual Welfare League was established in prisons in order to develop an

inmate self-governing system. According to Davidson (1996), because inmates were engaging in

"the practical experience of electing from amongst themselves representatives who legislated and

enforced prison rules, prisoners were to learn to become law-abiding citizens" (p. 136).

Tannenbaum (1933) suggested that the Mutual Welfare League was essential to providing

effective prison management, while Arbenz (1995) identified the prison program as useful for

developing the inmates' level of citizenship education.

Ryan (1995) stated, "It took nearly 100 years for the concept of educating prisoners to

receive any appreciable support from the public, lawmakers, and the corrections community"

(p.60). Not until the 1960s did the field of correctional education "gained an identity and a place

of recognition as an integral part of the total correctional process" (p. 60). During the late 1960s,

the "concept of rehabilitation became a dominant factor in planning and implementing

correctional systems in the United States" (Ryan, 1995, p. 60). Correctional education soon

became a key factor upon which rehabilitation would be based. According to Wolford (1989),

the Manpower Development Training Act of 1963, the Adult Education Act of 1966, and the

Basic Education Opportunity Grant Program in 1972 played a pivotal role in the rapid expansion

of many correctional education programs nationwide. The philosophy of correctional education

in the 1970s began to change from that of teaching the typical adult basic education (ABE) skills

of reading, writing, and math toward an emphasis on changing the behaviors of inmates (Hobler,

1999). One of the leaders in curriculum development in the field of correctional education was

McKee (1966, 1970, & 1971). At the Draper Prison in Elmore, Alabama, McKee developed an

inmate educational programs that was similar to the classical principles of curriculum

development (Tyler, 1949) and the behaviorist process of influencing inmate actions using a

reward system (Holland & Skinner, 1961; Skinner, 1938, 1953). Hobler (1999) summarizes

Ryan's (1995) article in stating that "vocational training alone is not effective rehabilitation.

Rather, an educational system must prepare inmates not just to earn a living, but to meet their

total needs as well" (p. 102). As a result, the 1970s witnessed the United States government

beginning to support the "holistic" approach to correctional education by increasing the

foundational access so that prisons nationally could apply for funding to support their prison

education programs (Hobler, 1999; Ryan, 1995). Correctional education programs during the

1970s were typically able to generate enough funds to support a rich curriculum of vocational

education, adult basic education, secondary education, post-secondary education, as well as

numerous other self-help programs (Eggleston & Gehring, 1986; Gehring, 1997; Hobler, 1999;

Ryan, 1995). It was not until after 1970 that most states offered some form of post-secondary

education in prison. The first state to offer live college instruction to inmates in prison was the

Illinois program in 1962 (Gehring, 1997). However, it was the Texas program, established in

1965, which demonstrated that their college prison program was able to reduce the rate of

recidivism (Gehring, 1997).

The "nothing works" indictment began to infiltrate the correctional education world during the 1980s (Martinson, 1974). Ryan (1995) suggested that the rehabilitation model was abandoned in the United States, not because research proved correctional education to be ineffective, but rather the rehabilitation model itself was poorly developed. Ryan stated, "The 'in' terms for education in prisons in the 1980s were life skills, cognitive learning, and holistic education," (p. 62) which was merely "new terms for the same programs that had been developed and implemented widely in the 1970s" (p. 62). The latter part of the 1980s saw the emphasis of correctional education evolving to focus more upon cultural and humanitarian issues as well as developmental education (Gehring, McShane, & Eggleston, 1998).

The 1990s brought stiffer legislation for longer prison sentences. This "tough on crime" philosophy increased the costs for housing inmates which subsequently came out of many state correctional education budgets. As a result, the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994 saw an end to the inmate's right to apply for Pell grants in order to pay for college tuition and book fees (Gehring, 1997; Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act, 1994). It was predicted that this particular public law would end many post-secondary education programs in prison. However, a recent study by Messemer (2003) found just the opposite to be true. Prison safety became an important issue for correctional education in the 1990s. A 1995 survey of 823 wardens concluded that administrators evaluated programs, services, and amenities in functional terms (Davidson, 2000). Davidson stated, "If programs contribute to managing a safer, more secure, and more orderly prison, they are supported" (p. 395).

<center>Inmate Personal Characteristics</center>

According to the U.S. Department of Justice (2005), in 2003 there were 2,078,570 inmates in state, federal, and private (for-profit) correctional facilities in the United States. Since

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1980, the United States prison population has increased nearly 314.2%. Within the U.S. adult

prison facilities, just more than 0.4% of the inmates are under the age of 18. A majority of the

inmates in U.S. correctional facilities are males (91.7%). However, in recent years, the female

inmate population has been increasing at a slightly higher rate than the male inmate population.

Between 1995 and 2003, the male inmate population has increased 26.8%, whereas the female

inmate population has increased 37.9%. When comparing the U.S. inmate population figures

with that of the general population figures, 1.9% of all men and 0.2% of all women are in some

type of prison/jail facility.

Persons of color represent 65.3% of the U.S. inmate population, with African-Americans

representing 45.0% and Hispanics/Latinos representing 15.6% of the inmates in U.S correctional

facilities. When comparing the U.S. inmate population figures with that of the general

population figures, 0.3% of all White persons, 2.7% of all African-American persons, and 0.9%

of all Hispanic/Latino persons are in some type of prison/jail facility. Non-U.S. citizens

represent 5.0% of the state prison population and 18.3% of the federal prison population.

Persons of color represent 64.1% of the state prison population, 73.1% of the federal prison

population, and 70% of the private prison (for-profit) population.

Inmate Educational Characteristics

As for the educational profile of inmates, these figures are sparse in nature. Wolford

(1989) reported that more than 80% of the prison population does not hold a high school diploma

or GED. Kozol (1985) estimated that 60% of all inmates are functionally illiterate. Werner

(1990) stated that 50% of the inmates in the state of California, between the ages of 16-25, could

not read above the third-grade level. The Georgia Department of Correction (1998) reported that

65% of its nearly 38,000 state inmates have less than a high school diploma or GED. Recently,

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the U.S. Department of Justice (2005) reported the rate of educational attainment for inmates in state prisons, federal prisons, and local jail facilities. According to the U.S. Department of Justice, greater than 39.7% of state inmates, 26.5% of federal inmates, and 46.5% of local jail inmates hold less than a high school diploma or GED certificate. No statistical data could be found describing inmate educational attainment concerning inmate race, gender, and age.

Purpose of Correctional Education

The purpose of correctional education has evolved over time in accordance to its history. Many of the goals and policies for correctional education have been dependent upon the many differing philosophies concerning the purposes for incarceration. According to Gehring, McShane, and Eggleston (1998):

> The American system, in both philosophy and operations, is fraught with controversy and irony. After years of being described as in 'crisis' by both outside critics and its own key decision makers, the system has settled into a routine of policies and practices designed to insure its continued, albeit dysfunctional, existence. (p. 148)

There are some scholars who view prisons as a means of strictly punishing the inmate and hold no interest in providing offender service programs (Zimring and Hawkins, 1995). Other scholars suggest that there is sufficient evidence to prove the success of rehabilitation programs and the need for increased government funding toward treatment programs (Gehring, McShane, & Eggleston, 1998; Hamm, 1996; Jones & d'Errico, 1994). Umbreit and Smith (1991) view the role of corrections and treatment programs like correctional education as a means of community restoration.

Currently, the United States prison system "has begun to swing away from being strictly punitive and has started to focus attention on rehabilitation" (Case & Fasenfest, 2004, p. 24). Gehring, McShane, and Eggleston (1998) suggested that correctional educators apply the principle that inmate "attitudes, ideas, and behaviour can be changed – that humans are capable

of transforming their lives" (p. 151). In a report by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of

Europe (1989), the council stated, "the primary aims of prison education services must be to

facilitate the right to learn which all men and women have and which is a key to their human

development" (p. 17). Wolford (1989) suggests that the purpose of correctional education can be

classified into six key factors:

1. to provide inmates with basic academic and vocational skills;
2. to provide inmates with an opportunity to change their personal behaviors and values;
3. to reduce recidivism;
4. to provide passive control of inmate behavior;
5. to support the operational needs of the correctional institution; and
6. to provide institutional work assignments. (pp. 358-359)

Werner (1990) has adopted a different viewpoint concerning the purpose of correctional

education. First, Werner suggests that correctional educators must see the failure in the present

prison system which is in turn a reflection upon the failures in prison education. He mentioned

that for inmates to have a chance of not returning to prison upon release they need to be able to

think and react critically in an ever changing technological society. However, what separates

Werner's philosophy from many other correctional colleagues is that he stands upon the notion

that in its current form, (1) prison education does not rehabilitate, (2) prison education does not

correct human behavior, and (3) that prison education does not give only basic skills training.

According to Werner (1990), correctional education has a social responsibility to provide the

inmate with what he considers as the primary function of a prison education program:

"individual empowerment." Werner states that the "core of empowerment is the recognition that

the individual has potential to be much more than he or she is at present" (p. 157). Werner

claimed that the "promotion of clear thinking, wise judgment, and effective communication,

must be at the heart of an effective correctional or prison education program" (p. 157). Werner

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is likely one of the early correctional education scholars to adopt and promote a "critical theory" approach to developing educational programs in prison.

<center>Correctional Education Programs and Evaluation</center>

In the world of correctional education, the academic curriculum can include any of the following areas: Literacy/ABE, general education development (GED) preparation, college, vocational education, special education, and other self-help programs. In addition, often the correctional education programs have the responsibility of providing staff development to both the educational and security guard personnel. For the purpose of this study, the writer will only focus upon the ABE, GED, and college programs for inmates. The format of most of the correctional programs is centered on the educational level of each individual inmate. Even though most inmates in the basic skills program attend the correctional education program in a classroom setting of 10-15 inmates, the teacher will typically develop a specific plan of study for each individual inmate in accordance to his or her own current level of achievement (McKee, 1966, 1970, 1971; McKee & Clements, 2000; McKee & Seay, 1968). Most correctional education programs have at least one person at the prison site who serves as the educational program supervisor, often it is a deputy warden.

Because correctional education is dependent upon the amount of funds it receives from state and federal governments, such prison education programs are forced to be accountable for the programs they provide. This has forced correctional education programs to conduct program evaluation studies. The two most common indicators of program evaluation are as follows: (1) the rate of recidivism and (2) the inmates' level of academic achievement.

Adult Basic Education

ABE programs are primarily designed for those inmates who read, write, or do math below the 10th grade level. Inmates who are considered functionally illiterate (read below the 6th grade level) are often placed in a remedial program entitled literacy or special education. The curriculum development process often involves the assessment (testing) of the inmate's learning needs, the development of a plan of study, the teaching and monitoring of the inmate's process, and the evaluation (retesting) of the inmate's learning progress.

Porporino and Robinson (1992) and Zink (1970), found a negative correlation between inmates who participated in the ABE program and the rate of recidivism. As for the academic achievement studies, McKee and Clements (2000) found that five different correctional education programs demonstrated significant inmate learning gains in reading, math, and language which ranged from 1.7 to 2.3 grade-levels. A recent study of 124 inmates participating in a basic skills program in a state prison in the southeast region of the United States found that the inmates had statistically significant learning gains in reading, math, and language (Messemer & Valentine, 2004). This study also suggested that inmates required varying hours of classroom participation in order to improve equally in reading, math, and language. For example, Messemer and Valentine found that for inmates to increase one grade-level in each of the three subject areas, they needed to participate in approximately 118, 54, and 36 hours of classroom participation in order to meet such learning gains in reading, math, and language respectively.

General Education Development

The purpose of the GED program is to provide the inmate with enough academic training so that he or she can pass the GED examination, which is the equivalent of a high school diploma. Many of the prison GED programs follow much of the same training format as in the

case of the prison ABE programs. However, the GED programs tend to utilize distance-learning programs more frequently. The New York State Department of Correctional Services (1992), Seigal and Basta (1997), and Walsh (1985) conducted recidivism studies which suggested that inmates who either participated or received their GED while in prison were less likely to return to prison than either the non-participants or non-graduates at a statistically significant rate.

College Education Program

Either a local university or community college oversees most college programs in prison. Most college programs offer at least an associate's degree and many offer a bachelor's degree. As mentioned earlier, some scholars believed that many of the prison systems are forced to eliminate the college programs because of the federal ban on Pell grants for inmates (Gehring, 1997; Werner, 2002; Zook, 1994). However, in a recent national survey of state correctional education directors, Messemer (2003) found that 24 of the 45 states (53.3%) who responded to the survey still offered in-house college programs for their inmates. Among the twenty-four states offering college programs to inmates, the sources of funding varied from state-to-state. States suggested that they utilized the following funding sources: state government (n=10), federal government (n=17), corporation/organization (n=4), foundation (n=6), college/university (n=3), prison (n=2), and inmate (n=19). Inmates, who had to pay for part of their tuition, did so through family support, educational loans, and/or money earned through prison work programs. One state in the southwestern region of the U.S. had a unique approach to funding its prison college program. They were able to convince their state legislature to fund the college program with the agreement that the college inmates would agree to repay the state the costs of their tuition upon release from prison. If the inmate failed to make a tuition repayment, then this

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would constitute a violation of his or her parole. Therefore, he or she would be required to serve the remainder of his or her sentence in prison.

Many states are utilizing the Youthful Offender Act as a source of funding. Each state has its own version of the Youthful Offender Act which allow inmates under the age of 25 to receive state funding to participate in college programs in prison. Messemer (2003) suggested that seventeen states were using federal funding to support the inmate college programs through the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act of 1998 (1998). The Carl D. Perkins funds vary from the standard Pell grant funds in the way in which the funding is distributed for educational purposes. For example, Pell grant money is usually distributed directly to the adult learner. In this case, inmates would be the recipients of such funding, but the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994 (1994) abolished this source to inmates. In contrast, the educational institution applies for the Carl D. Perkins funds. Therefore, the institution receives the funding for offering college programs to adult learners. Any college or university as well as prison offering educational programs to inmates would qualify for Carl D. Perkins funds.

A few studies track recidivism rates for inmates participating in college programs. In a study of correctional education program completers released from prison during 1990-1991, found that "the higher the level of educational attainment while incarcerated, the more likely the releasee was to have obtained employment upon release" (Jenkins, Steurer, & Pendry, 1995, p. 21). Taylor (1994) reported that between 1974 and 1979 the states of Alabama, Maryland, and New Jersey found statistically significant differences between the rates of recidivism between the college participants and non-participants, in favor of the college inmates. Taylor (1994) also suggested that one of the most comprehensive college prison studies was during 1967-1977 in

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New Mexico, whereby the college participants only had a 15.5% rate of recidivism in comparison to a 68% rate for the non-participants. According to the Center on Crime, Communities, and Culture (1997), inmates with at least two years of post-secondary education participation in prison have a 10% recidivism rate, compared to a national recidivism rate of approximately 60%. In a study of inmate participants, Wells (2000) found a positive relationship between post-secondary education, social bonding, and recidivism. Case and Fasenfest (2004) suggests that inmates with college and vocational training will have lower recidivism rates. However, their study suggests that there was no increase in the employability or the stigmatization of being a post-release inmate. In a meta-analysis of fifteen studies conducted during 1990-1999, Chappell (2004) found a negative correlation between inmate participation in prison college programs and the rate of recidivism. In addition, Chappell suggested that inmates who completed a college program in prison were less likely to return to prison than those inmates who were primarily participants in the college program.

<div align="center">Adult Education Literature's Impact on Correctional Education</div>

The field of adult education has had a strong impact upon the transformation of correctional education. The influence of adult education has been both direct as well as indirect. As stated earlier in this paper, correctional education was initially influenced by the same cultural and moral values, which drove both compulsory and adult education during the colonial period (Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). Inmate learning during this time-period was more non-formal in nature. Merriam and Brockett (1997) and Merriam and Caffarella (1991) described non-formal education as the planned learning experiences which take place outside of the formal school building as well as the group learning environment. From the early era of correctional education to the present, it is easy to recognize the influence that the classical framework of

curriculum development has had upon correctional education. The works of Tyler (1949) and

Caffarella (1994) is apparent in correctional education in four ways. For example, the (1)

inmates' learning needs are often identified, (2) the inmate's learning needs are unconsciously

based upon some form of organizational or institutional values and goals, (3) the plan of study is

a well-orchestrated process, and (4) the learning outcome must be scientifically testable.

As correctional education became more sophisticated and professionalized, classroom

instruction in prison was centered more on the adult learning needs through self-activities (e.g.,

Dewey, 1933; Knowles, 1968, 1970, 1980). The "Programmed Instruction" model (McKee,

1966, 1970, 1971; McKee & Clements, 2000; McKee & Seay, 1968) was developed and it was

tested using an adult inmate sample group at the Draper Correctional Center in Elmore,

Alabama. The purpose of McKee's "Programmed Instruction" model involves four stages. The

first stage is to identify the learning deficiencies and learning goals of the inmate learner. The

second stage is to design a proper plan of study, which meets the learning needs of the inmate.

The third stage is to reevaluate the inmate as to his or her learning gains. The final stage is to

readjust the plan of study based upon the inmate's current learning needs and goals. This model

is very similar to the highly structured model of Tyler (1949). McKee's "Programmed

Instruction" model seeks to encourage the adult learner to become self-directed as described by

Houle (1961, 1988) and Tough (1967, 1978, 1979). Finally, the McKee model of "Programmed

Instruction" encourages correctional education programs to reward an inmate for his or her

learning achievements. For example, if an inmate shows great progress in a certain subject area,

then the prison is encouraged to reward the inmate by allowing him or her to choose between

many possible rewards, such as: more recreational time, more time to watch television, a special

meal, and so on. In addition, the reduction of inmate privileges are encouraged for inmates who

are less motivated to learn. Even though McKee's model is intended to represent a learner centered environment, the underlying learning system is heavily founded upon Skinner's (1938, 1953) work known as "operant conditioning." Operant conditioning is the process of reinforcing what you want an individual to do as well as to getting that individual to stop participating in behavior, which is undesired by his or her own community (Gripen & Peters, 1984). In this situation, the prison facility is the inmates' community in which the behaviorist approach is an important method for controlling inmate behavior.

The reasons why inmates participate in correctional education was previously studied by Boshier (1983). Boshier developed a five factor, forty-item scale to investigate why inmates participate in a basic skills program in prison. The five factors which Boshier found to be significant in determining the inmates' desire to participate in correctional education were personal control, self assertion, outside contact, self preservation, and cognitive interests. Parsons and Langenbach (1993) revisited Boshier's work in a survey of 350 inmate GED students. In Parsons and Langenbach's study, using a factor analysis, they were able to reduce the Boshier's instrument to a four factor, thirty-item scale. The four factors in Parsons and Langenbach's scale include cognitive control, goal orientation, activity orientation, and avoidance posture. Messemer (2001) found that inmates whom the prison mandated to attend the basic skills program had significantly greater learning gain scores than those inmates who were voluntary participants. In an attempt to explain this finding, a multiple regression found no correlation between the inmate learning gains and the other variables, such as age and time-to-parole, which represented an inmate as a mandated or voluntary participant. Therefore, Messemer was unable to determine why the mandated inmates had higher learning gain scores. Any interpretation would have only been speculative. This discrepancy between the mandated

and voluntary participation variables reflects the findings of Ryan and McCabe (1994) that found

no statistical correlation between inmate academic achievement scores and their mandated or

voluntary participation. However, a recent study by Moeller, Day, and Rivera (2004) found that

inmates who participate in educational programs in prison saw education as a key to success in

life.

Studying why inmates participate in correctional education also causes one to investigate

the opposite phenomenon, such as the barriers to learning in prison. Quigley (1997) suggests

that there are three primary barriers to literacy education: dispositional, institutional, and

situational. In correctional education, dispositional barriers involve the inmate's attitude toward

formal learning. This was what Boshier (1983) as well as Parsons and Langenbach (1993) were

studying. The second barrier, institutional barriers, represents hindrances to learning which the

learning institution brings on. In correctional education, institutional barriers represent the lack

of economic funding, educational resources (such as books, handout materials, computers, etc.),

classroom space, teaching personnel, and security personnel. The final barrier is situational

barriers. This represents situations in the adult learner's life, outside of the program

environment, that impact the learner's ability to participate. In correctional education, situational

barriers to inmates include the parole or release from prison, the transfer to another prison site,

and inmate disciplinary problems that result in solitary confinement.

Beder (1986), Mason (1992), and Rothwell and Cookson (1997) suggest that how well

the educational program planners market their educational programs to the key stakeholders will

likely determine the existence of such programs. In correctional education, there is not an

apparent need to market the educational programs to adult learners, because in prison there is

usually a waiting list for inmates to participate in the educational programs. However,

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correctional education program planners are constantly evaluating their programs through scientific measures, such as rates of recidivism and academic achievement studies, in order to identify and uphold the classical values and goals of those public institutions in power (e.g., Cervero & Wilson, 1994a; Forester, 1989; Foucault, 1977). Therefore, correctional education programs are continually trying to be accountable to those groups who have the power to determine what programs should be funded and the amount of resources necessary to provide a successful educational program. The writer believes that this is what Werner (1990) was driving at when he stated that correctional education did not rehabilitate, did not correct, and so on. It was not that he did not see correctional education as making a positive impact in the lives of inmates, but rather that correctional education needed to break free from the bondage set forth by the classically influenced interest groups in power. Werner (1990) seemed to suggest that as long as correctional education programs were trying to please such interest groups (who often define the reasons and format of incarceration), then correctional education would never be able to fully meet the emancipatory needs of the inmate learners.

Finally, the field of correctional education has adopted the adult education stance that adult learning is a lifelong process. Rothwell and Cookson (1997) stated, "To survive and remain competitive during this time of dynamic change, global markets, and fierce competition, organizations must encourage lifelong education" (p. 6). For most of the inmates in prison, the one thing they do not lack is "time."

<div align="center">Educational Program Planning Theory</div>

One area of correctional education research which is underdeveloped is educational program planning. The primary focus of correctional education research has been outcome-based research, involving such topics as academic achievement, recidivism, self-esteem, and

inmate learning transformation. Historically, three theoretical models to educational program planning have surfaced. The three planning models include: (1) the classical model, (2) the naturalistic model, and (3) the critical model. The writer will briefly describe the important facets pertaining to each of the three program planning areas.

Classical Model of Educational Program Planning

The classical model of educational program planning is theoretically based upon what Sork (2000, p. 184) calls the "technical domain" of program planning. The technical domain involves the day-to-day processes involved in planning educational programs. Much of the classical framework is founded upon Tyler's (1949) curriculum development model. However, many adult education program-planning scholars adopted the Tylerian philosophy (Boone, 1985; Boyle, 1981; Caffarella, 1988; Houle, 1972; Knowles, 1970; Landale, 1999; Rothwell & Cookson, 1997). The classical model embraces a systematic approach to planning educational programs (Murk & Wells, 1988). Tyler (1949) suggested that educational program planning can be successfully accomplished through four planning areas: purposes, content, methods, and evaluation. In short, the systems approach involves the following planning factors: assessing needs, establishing program priorities and responsibilities, selecting program goals and objectives, allocating available resources, selecting appropriate teaching and learning techniques, evaluating the results, and determining the program's level of effectiveness. In correctional education, McKee (1966, 1968, & 1970), McKee, and Clements (2000) developed the Individually Prescribed Instructional System, which encompasses many of the same principles identified by Tyler. McKee's model encompasses four key factors. These four factors include: (1) identifying the inmate learning needs, (2) developing a plan of study, (3) evaluating inmate-learning gains, and (4) modifying both the inmate learning needs and plan of study.

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Naturalistic Model of Educational Program Planning

Cervero and Wilson (1994a) very adamantly state that "theories do not plan programs, but people do" (p. xi). The naturalistic planning model is based upon the premise that many groups of people should be allowed to sit at the program-planning table. Those individuals influenced by both the educational programs and/or the planning process are often referred to as "stakeholders." According to Wills (1999, p. 95), "A stakeholder is a person who has a vested interest in the outcome of the process." It is important to note that the stakeholder can have both a positive or negative impact upon the outcome of the educational program. However, the primary purpose of the naturalistic model is to focus upon the process by which key decisions are made (Walker, 1971, 1990). This is because the key components, which represent the technical framework in the planning process, are still very classically oriented, as seen in an article by Pennington & Green (1976). The naturalistic model focuses upon the relationships between the important stakeholders as it influences the educational program planning process. Finally, the naturalistic model for program planning also suggests the need for program planners to market the educational programs to insure that the programs will take place (Beder, 1986; Knox, 1991; Mason, 1992). First, the program planner must properly identify the right target group of adult learners for which the educational programs are designed. Second, the program planner will need to advertise to the target group what educational programs are available to them and how they would benefit by participating in the program. Thirdly, the program planner has to seek the necessary funding for the educational program in order to both provide a sufficient salary to attract teachers for the program and to provide the proper learning materials for the class.

Critical Model of Educational Program Planning

The critical theory approach to educational program planning focuses upon the social dynamics, which affect the planning process. Forester (1989) suggests that the "critical theory of planning must therefore suggest how existing social and political-economic relations actually operate to distort communications, to obscure issues, to manipulate trust and consent, to twist fact and possibility" (p. 141). In order for program planners to achieve success in their daily routine of planning, they need to "clearly understand that education is a political and ideological activity intimately connected with the social inequalities of society as a whole" (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, p. 21). Kotler and Fox (1995) suggest that "most educational institutions find themselves operating in turbulent environments" (p.120). They recommend that educational institutions must carry out four tasks:

1. to understand the nature of the macroenvironment;

2. to systematically scan the institution's environment;

3. to identify the most significant environmental threats and opportunities; and

4. to make intelligent adaptations to the changing environment. (p. 120)

Goodson (1991) suggested that planning is a social activity whereby program planners negotiate with the program stakeholders regarding its purposes, content, audience, and format.

Cervero and Wilson (1994a) state that "the critical viewpoint weighs in on the other side of the dichotomy by proposing that educational programs are largely determined by structural forces, namely the dominant ideologies and interests of social, cultural, and political institutions" (p. 27). Figure 1 represents the researcher's version of a macro-level critical model of educational program planning. This model is developed from a compilation of many critical theorists. The critical model consists of four planning factors: power, politics, special interests,

and ethics. It is these four planning factors, which have a distinct impact upon the program

planning process at both the classical and naturalistic level. Therefore, the researcher is of the

opinion that it is impossible to separate the three planning models (classical, naturalistic, and

critical). In practice each of the three planning model are interconnected. According to Cervero

and Wilson (1994a), the key component that influences the program planner's ability to develop

successful educational programs is his or her ability to negotiate the conflicting interests between

the program stakeholders. The arrows in the critical model of educational program planning (see

Figure 1) demonstrate the flow of negotiation between each of the planning factors and each of

the three models.

Figure 1

Critical Model of Educational Program Planning (Macro-level)
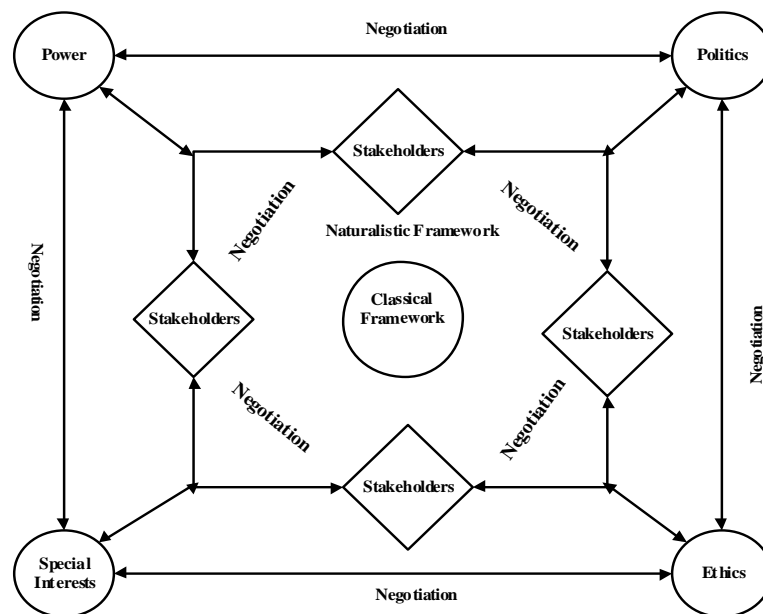
Power and Educational Program Planning

Power is defined as a person or group of people having the ability to control the social system (Boone, 1985). Program planners are never working on a level playing field, because there are so many persons of interest with different levels of power and positionality who have a voice in the direction of the educational program. Forester (1989) noted that for the "planners who ignore those in power, they assure their own powerless. Alternatively, if planners understand how relations of power shape the planning process, they can improve the quality of their analyses and empower citizen and community action" (p. 27). Cervero and Wilson (1994b) state, "whenever people act in an organizational context, they do so within sets of power relations" (p. 249). There are two factors in which power is identified: social capital and cultural capital (Inglis, 1997).

Social capital represents a person's ability to connect through specific social networks, which is defined by his or her socioeconomic class. Rubenson (2001) identifies this as the power resources theory. He states, "It is based upon an assumption that in advanced capitalist societies, a division exists between the exercise of economic power and the exercise of political power, that is, between markets and politics" (p. 95). In a study of adult education participation, Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) found that adults are more likely to participate in adult learning activities if they are higher up in the socioeconomic ladder. Freire defined "class consciousness as the power" (Aronowitz, 1993, p. 21) to break down the barriers of personal oppression. As for program planning, Forester (1999) suggests that "no realistic discussion of planning and policy analysis is possible without taking power into account in several forms. Planning and public governance obviously take place on stages permeated and structured by relations of political-economic . . . power" (p. 9).

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The second power factor, cultural capital, "derives from people having greater prestige, honor, and respect due to knowledge, education, manners, and morals" (Inglis, 1997, p. 11). Tisdell (2001) suggests that such cultural issues described by Inglis would be the result of what she calls "positionality." Positionality represents "how aspects of one's identity such as race, gender, class, sexual orientation, or ableness significantly affect how one is 'positioned' relative to the dominant culture" (p. 148). In regard to the power of positionality, Freire suggests that "knowing who exercises dominant power in society for what ends and how power is currently organized and used in society" (Shor, 1993, p. 32) will help those who are in a position to create change to use this as leverage against the social structure when planning programs. Apple (1990) suggests that the problem then "involves examining how a system of unequal power in society is maintained," (p. 31) thus developing some plan of action in order to increase one's level of power. Finally, Isaac in 1987 suggested that "power is the capacity to act, distributed to individual planners by virtue of their organizational and social position" (cited in Wilson & Cervero, 1996a, p. 9).

Politics and Educational Program Planning

While power represents the ability of one to control the social system, it is politics which puts power into action. "The foundation of political (broadly conceived) leanings and relations to political and social structures is in a belief system that itself rests upon basic patterns of assumptions 'determined' by social and economic activity" (Apple, 1990, p. 101). According to Lister (1994), Freire viewed politics as an ongoing activity whereby the ordinary person could serve as a political actor. He suggested that Freire saw "politics and education as activities – that is, with an important action dimension which goes beyond theory and reflection" (p. 66). Dewey (1933), in discussing the political nature of education for children, suggested that those

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individuals "who are in a position to make their wishes good, will demand a liberal, a cultural occupation, and one which fits for directive power the youth in whom they are directly interested" (p. 318). In governmental politics, political parties represent the networking of politics. Baradat (1979) suggested that the purposes of political parties acts for the same reasons regardless if it is housed in either a single-party system, a two-party system, or a multiple-party system. Baradat noted that the primary "goal of a political party is easily stated: to gain control of the government. Though this may sound harsh, a political party has little reason to exist unless its members take control of the political system" (p. 133). However, as a contrasting view, Culley and Demaine (1983) suggested that the relationship between education and politics represented inherent interests, which clearly rely upon the "conception of social totality (capitalism) which is inevitably essentialist" (p. 165).

Rubenson (2001) describes the political sphere of adult education as gaining its strength through the mobilization of adult educators who must unite in order to implement educational theory through democratic process. Forester (1999) suggests that "because planning and policy analysis take place in a political world, planners and analysts need to anticipate and respond to foreseeable relationships of power and domination" (p. 9). He also noted that program planners "must be able to anticipate and somehow respond to the play of power" (p. 186) as well as the social constraints often associated with the specific action-taking place. The Murk and Walls (1998) model of program planning considers the importance that politics plays in both the internal and external settings of the program planning process. This model focuses primarily upon the events, which occur during the technical framework (classical & naturalistic) of program planning. Kanter (1977) referred to politics as giving program planners the avenue and

knowledge to get things done. According to Lister (1994), Dewey and Freire both recommended

the following:

> If people are to be political actors they need the predisposition to act and they need skills
> for effective performance. Working on issues requires and develops skills. How to
> identify an issue as a political issue; how to analyze an issue; how to work with others on
> an issue; how to identify alternative courses of action; how to mobilize support; in short,
> how to act on an issue – all these are items for a possible inventory of political skills. (p.
> 66)

Cervero and Wilson (2001) suggested, the "definition of politics as the ability to get things done

takes the existing relations of power in the organizational or social settings as acceptable, or at

least unchangeable" (p. 6). Cervero and Wilson continue to explain that politics is not just a

means of getting things accomplished, but rather it involves the active process by which power is

distributed. Program planners are often "positioned with and against one another in social and

political-economic structures that display significantly nonrandom continuity" (Forester, 1989, p.

59). Forester (1989) suggests that program planners cannot choose between acting technically

and acting politically, thus noting that the program planner is always a political player. Rather,

Forester recommends that the program planner should focus upon four questions:

1. In what way will the program planner act politically?

2. To what degree will the program planner engage in politics?

3. To whom will the program planner represent in the political arena?

4. To whom will the program planner choose to exclude in the planning process?

Interests and Educational Program Planning

Cervero and Wilson (1994a) state that educational program "planning is always

conducted within a complex set of personal, organizational, and social relationships of power

among people who may have similar, different, or conflicting sets of interests regarding the

program" (p. 4). The term "interests" is defined as "a complex set of dispositions, goals, values,

desires, and expectations that lead people to act in certain ways and to position themselves in a particular manner when confronted with situations in which they must act" (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, pp. 122-123). However, race, gender, religion, and socioeconomic class consciously and unconsciously influence these sets of dispositions, goals, values, desires, and expectations. Youngman (1996) suggests "the central issue for a transformative political economy of adult education is how to adequately conceptualize the interconnections between the four main systems of domination in society, namely, those deriving from imperialism, class, gender, and race-ethnicity" (p. 7). Therefore, it is through our special interests toward issues relating to class, gender, race, and often religion that we as educational program planners will use our political power to determine the needs, purposes, direction, as well as whose interests will be served when planning educational programs (Cervero, 1994a; Johnson-Bailey, 2001).

The amount of formal education and training that a person receives will often determine how much income, knowledge, power, and social status the individual will hold in society. Therefore, the "success of women and people of color relative to white men in the educational system offers another indication of the persistent effects of racism and sexism" (Hayes & Colin, 1994, p. 9) in the United States. According to Langston (1998), educational and vocational counselors are more likely to encourage students who are white middle-class males to become doctors, lawyers, engineers, and business executives than those students who are middle-class males of color. Secondly, women were less likely than men (especially women of color) to be encouraged to pursue the more professional careers. Johnson-Bailey (2001) suggested that black women have received the least amount of benefit from higher education. She stated, "Black women's positions are reflected in society by their place at the bottom of the economic totem pole, slightly above children, as the poorest individuals in society" (p. 129).

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West (1993) identified three basic versions as to how people from a more conservative background view African-American oppression. These three conservative viewpoints include the market version, the sociobiologist version, and the culturalist version. West (1993) suggests that the market version implies that "it is not in the economic interests of white employers and workers to oppose black employment opportunities. . . .The practical policy that results from this market perspective is to educate and persuade white employers and workers to be more rational or attuned to their own self-interests" (p. 253). The sociobiologist version, "suggests that prevailing evidence leads to the conclusion that blacks are, in some sense, genetically inferior" (p. 253). Finally, the culturalist version suggests that "the character and content of African American culture inhibits black people from competing with other people in American society, be it in education, the labor force or business" (p. 254). Johnson-Bailey (2001) suggested that white male professors are more likely to be taken seriously when discussing or writing about such an issue as racism than a person of color. She concurs that white male professors "often come off as heroes for doing this work if they have high enough status in their institutions . . . People of color . . . may be seen as 'pushing their own agenda' and are more often considered suspect" (p. 157).

The cultural disparity among race is no more evident than in the U.S. prison system, which is overwhelmingly minority (U.S. Department of Justice, 2005). According to the recent figures on adult crimes reported by the U.S. Department of Justice, 60.6% of violent crime arrests and 70.5% of total crime arrests are of White adults. However, the U.S. correctional facilities are only 34.7% White. These figures should cause people to question the disparity of race in prison. Some scholars might suggest that there more minorities in prison because they cannot economically afford the proper defense attorneys necessary to be acquitted in court (e.g.,

Davidson, 2000; Hayes & Colin, 1994; Ross-Gordon, 1994; Tisdell, 1995, Williamson, 1992).

Other scholars might suggest that the disparity of race in prison is due to the perceptions that

some people [e.g., white people] have regarding criminal behavior and the race (e.g., Colin &

Preciphs, 1991; Davidson, 2000; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Rothman, 1995; West, 1993).

Davidson (2000) states, "At key decision points the criminal justice system weeds out educated

middle- and upper-class offenders and convicts the undereducated poor, especially poor people

of color" (p. 395). For example, Mauer and Huling (1995) suggest, although African-Americans

"constitute 13 percent of all monthly drug users, they represent 35 percent of arrests for drug

possession, 55 percent of convictions, and 74 percent of prison sentences" (p. 1).

Therefore, it is the goal of the critical theorists in educational program planning to focus

upon how power and interests impact the planning process (Forester, 1989) and how program

planners engage in some form of negotiation with key stakeholders between the boundaries of

interests as to the educational program design (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a).

Ethics and Educational Program Planning

Because educational program planning is influenced by such factors as power, politics,

and special interests, then it is nearly impossible for the planning process to be value free. From

the classical framework, Cunningham (1988) stated, "it is an institutional bias and is reflected in

judgments educators make about what programs to offer and what funding to seek" (pp. 140-

141). According to Walker in 1993, "Ethics are defined as standards of conduct that indicate

how a person should behave, based on moral duties and virtues arising from (individual)

principles about right and wrong" (cited in Murk, 1996, p. 11). Developing a specific code of

ethics could be seen by many as a means of establishing some form of credibility for the field of

adult education through self-regulation (Murk, 1996). Wood (1996) provided a list of nine

ethical responsibilities for adult educators practicing in the western democratic countries. He

suggests that these ethical responsibilities can be grouped into five areas: (1) the society, (2) the

adult learners, (3) the parent sponsoring organization and other stakeholders, (4) the profession,

and (5) the consistent ethical practice. Wood (1996, p. 14) continues to state the following:

> With regard to the society, adult educators have the following ethical responsibilities: a
> responsibility, through education, to promote the concepts of a just and equitable society,
> and a responsibility, through education, to assist in the empowerment of its members to
> participate effectively on their own behalf in society. With regard to the adult learners,
> adult educators have the following ethical responsibilities: a responsibility to each learner
> to respect his/her ethno-socio-cultural heritage and dignity as a human being; a
> responsibility to respect the need of each learner for honesty, understanding, fairness, and
> confidentiality in all interactions between learner and adult educator; a responsibility to
> use the best available professional knowledge and practices in serving all learners; and a
> responsibility in all matters to resolve to do no harm to any person whose trust and
> welfare is accepted in adult education transactions and relationships. With regard to the
> parent or sponsoring organization and other similar stakeholders, adult educators have the
> following ethical responsibility: a responsibility to insure that they, their interests, and
> whatever support they provide are treated fairly and justly. With regard to the profession,
> the adult educators have the following responsibility: a responsibility to adult education
> colleagues and the adult education profession to practice adult education to the best of
> his/her ability and, in general, to do nothing that would bring disrepute on the profession.
> With regard to consistent ethical practice, adult educators have the following ethical
> responsibility: a responsibility to reflect continuously upon the effectiveness and ethical
> nature of his/her day-to-day practice and to amend these guidelines whenever and in
> whatever ways specific circumstances of practice and the insights from reflection dictate.

Wilson and Cervero (1996b) suggested that ethical dilemmas arise in program planning

practice through such forces as power and interest, which help to determine "who has the power

to do what and which interests will they represent in the planning process" (p. 21). Sork and

Welock (1992) also saw the importance of identifying the need for a profound set of ethical

guidelines for the field of adult education. However, they did have a small concern for the

restrictions that could arise out of such a code of ethics. For example, "if a professional

association develops a code and requires its members to adhere to the code or risk expulsion

from the association, then the code becomes a tool to restrict membership" (p. 117). Wood

(1996) addressed this concern by suggesting that the code of ethics would serve the adult

educator or program planners as a reflective tool of guidelines to consider when planning

educational programs. Finally, as the general rule regarding ethics and program planning,

Wilson and Cervero (1996b) stated, in "determining whose interests are represented in planning

– literally, who sits at the planning table – should be the planner's central ethical responsibility"

(p. 21).

Negotiation and the Planning Transformation

The final stage of the Messemer's Critical Theory Model of Educational Program

Planning (see Figure 1) consists of continuous negotiation as well as critical reflection and

action. Negotiation is like the blood flowing through the veins of the human body; it is in

constant motion as it travels throughout the entire program planning context. The program

planner has the ethical responsibility to negotiate between all of the eligible stakeholders

concerning the technical framework of the educational program as well as negotiating within the

social context of power, politics, special interests, and ethics (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, 1994b).

In order for true planning transformation to occur, two things must happen. First, the program

planner must be willing to reflect upon his or her program-planning situation in relation to his or

her previous planning experiences. This is reinforced by Hart (1990) concerning one of the key

elements in the process of consciousness rising toward liberation. Mezirow (2000) suggested

that this "involves assessing reasons advanced by weighing the supporting evidence and

arguments and by examining alternative perspectives. Reflective discourse involves a critical

assessment of assumptions. It leads towards a clearer understanding by tapping collective

experiences to arrive at a tentative best judgment" (p. 11). The second thing that the program

planner must do is continually be negotiating for change (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a). If the

educational program planning theories are never implemented into practice, then the program planner's work will be in vain.

Empirical Studies on Power and Politics in Educational Program Planning

There have been numerous empirical studies in adult education that have addressed issues relating to power, politics, special interests (i.e. gender & race), and ethics (Aiken, Cervero, & Johnson-Bailey, 2001; Brown, Cervero, & Johnson-Bailey, 2000; Gordon & Sork, 2001; McDonald & Wood, 1993; Sandlin, 2000; Sparks, 1998). However, four empirical studies have addressed these critical theory issues as well as negotiation within the context of program planning.

Mills, Cervero, Langone, and Wilson (1995) conducted a qualitative study that demonstrated how traditionalist interests affect the planning process through three contextual factors: organizational structure and culture, available resources, and power relationships. Two interrelated studies, Umble (1998) and Umble, Cervero, and Langone (2001) conducted a case study of adult learners who participated in a course related to public health. The interests of these adult learners were not usually considered during the planning of the course. This investigation studied the process by which these stakeholders engaged in meta-negotiations to redirect the power at the planning table as well as negotiated to change the course content of the target audience.

The final two studies are also interrelated. Yang (1996; Yang, Cervero, Valentine, and Benson, 1998) developed a survey instrument to measure adult educators' power and influence tactics in program planning practice. The Power and Influence Tactics Scale (POINTS) include the following seven significant dimensions to program planning: reasoning, consulting, appealing, networking, bargaining, pressuring, and counteracting. These seven factors influence

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the program planners' planning strategy in relation to special interests and power relationships involved in the planning process. Hendricks (2001) conducted a survey of students and faculty members from multiple adult education graduate programs, thus using the Yang et al. (1998) POINTS instrument. Hendricks found that in conflicting planning situations, "counteracting" was the favored tactic over "reasoning" and "consulting" tactics. In consensual planning situations, "reasoning" and "consulting" were the preferred planning tactics, whereas "counteracting" was seen as ineffective.

<center>Power and Politics in Context of Correctional Education</center>

The whole nature of prisons in the United States is built around the theory of power. Historically, one of the primary functions of prison has been to punish the inmates for the crimes in which they were convicted by requiring them to live in small living quarters as well as controlling their daily behaviors. According to Werner (1990), the time period between the 1970s and 1980s saw the most significant increases in prison sentences for inmates in the United States, but this seemed to have little effect upon the actual crime rate. The fact remains that nearly 90% of those incarcerated will be returning to society. Warner suggested that "an inmate who reenters society embittered by 5 to 10 years of incarceration and without any greater level of vocational or academic skill than when he or she entered prison threatens the entire social fabric" (p. 69). In contrast, "longer sentences put off the problem for a time, but the consequences of all actions have to be faced" (p. 69).

Another problem facing the American prison system is with the social and cultural make-up of the inmate population. As mentioned previously, more than 65% of all inmates in the United States are persons of color, thus mostly African-American. However, when you compare these numbers with the United States criminal arrests figures, you see a different picture. For

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example, the U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics (2005) reported that 70.5% of all criminal arrests of adults and 71.5% of all criminal arrests of juveniles in the United States involved persons who were White. Only 27.1% of the criminal arrests of adults and 25.7% of criminal arrests of juveniles involved African-Americans. Among the more violent crimes, African-Americans consisted of only 37.1% of the adult criminal arrests and 42.8% of the juvenile criminal arrests. African-American adults only led in two of the eight violent crime categories: murder (50.0%) and robbery (52.7%). As for non-violent crimes, African-American adults only led in one of the eighteen possible categories: illegal gambling (65.2%). White adults led in all of the remaining categories for violent and non-violent criminal arrests. In addition, the majority of the inmate population consists of persons from poverty-stricken communities. Have prisons become another means by which to control power between racial and socioeconomic lines? If this is true, then how do the inmate characteristics influence the educational program planning process in prison?

The power structure of many corrections programs resembles a top-down design (Houston, 1999; Phillips & Roberts, 2000). Correctional Education primarily functions using a systems approach to planning (Finn, 1997; Khatibi & Grande, 1993). Tisdell's (2001) reference to "positionality" might suggest that those individuals within the correctional program who hold power tend to determine what educational programs are offered and which inmates are worthy to participate. For example, when the U.S. government made it illegal for inmates to use Pell grant money to pay for college tuition, this sent a message that inmates were not worthy of participating in higher education. Taylor (1994) found that only 1.2% of the total number of Pell grants ever went to prisoners.

Messemer (2003) found that 53.3% of the U.S. states continued to offered college programs to inmates even with the ban on Pell grants. This study correlated the many state structural characteristics with whether or not a state offered college programs to inmates. The purpose of conducting an analysis of variance was to offer some remote explanation as to why some states offered college programs to inmates and why other states did not. As might be expected, Messemer found that state population was a statistically significant predictor. In this study, states with higher rates of population were more likely to offer college programs to inmates. This finding regarding state population was expected because much of the federal funding received by states is determined by the rate of its population. Therefore, those states with more tax dollars to play with were more likely to support college programs for inmates.

A second statistically significant predictor was the rate of higher education attainment among its state citizens. Messemer found that those states with higher rates of its citizens who hold a bachelor's degree or higher were more likely to offer college programs to its inmates. This statistic was a more statistically significant predictor than state population. Likewise, the most significant predictor in the study was the rate of citizens who held a master's degree or higher. Therefore, those states that had higher rates of its citizens holding a master's degree or higher was more likely to offer college programs to inmates. Messemer concluded that the correlation between the states' rate of higher education completion and the states' offering of college programs to inmates was due to the theoretical beliefs toward education by state administrators and prison officials in power.

Another factor influencing the correctional education community is in the relationship between the correctional officers, teachers, and inmates. Often correctional officers are opposed to educational programs for inmates. In some cases, correctional officers view inmate

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educational programs as reducing the amount of power that they have over the inmate population (Hassine, 1999). As the inmates become more educated, they are more likely to think for themselves and less likely to follow the crowd. In addition, the inmates may begin to the question the authority of the correctional officers. In a panel discussion at the 56th International Conference of the Correctional Education Association (Holman, 2001), one of the conference attendees mentioned that he has had correctional officers come into his college classroom and attempt to start an argument with an inmate student. He mentioned that the correctional officers would do so hoping to get the inmate into a confrontation. If the inmate lashes out at the correctional officer, then the correctional officer has the power to pull that inmate permanently from the educational programs. The conference attendee suggested that he has had to serve as a buffer in such a situation, thus convincing the inmate not to react to the correctional officer. Many of the conference participants attending this learning session mentioned similar incidents.

Another area of concern in correctional education is the research literature base concerning race and gender. Historically, issues relating to race and gender have been absent from the correctional education literature. However, this trend is beginning to subside. In a recent study, Case and Fasenfest (2004) found that female inmates have fewer educational opportunities in prison than their male counterparts. While some male inmates have an opportunity to attend college classes in prison, female inmates are encouraged to attend clerical training classes. Rose (2004) suggested that "*structural conditions of women's prisons (current policies, program availability, and program quality) are shown to be factors that are known to restrict women's participation*" (p. 78). Rose suggested that since the federal government banned Pell grants to inmates, the female participation in ABE, GED, and college programs in prison have steadily decreased. In terms of career placement, Case and Fasenfest (2004) found

that White inmates who attended the college program in prison experienced less discrimination post-release than the African-American inmate college participant does. This study also suggested that employers better received African-American inmates who attended vocational programs than African-American inmates who attended the college programs. However, not all of the research is negative. A study by Mageehon (2003) found that for a group of female inmates "the self-directed learning environment in jail (and for several, experienced elsewhere prior to incarceration) was very positive and was a significant factor in helping them achieve their goals" (p. 195).

The final area of concern in correctional education is the stability of educational programming within a privatized prison environment. A recent article in The Wall Street Journal (Prison as Profit, 2001) provided a stunning report of how many of the U.S. States are developing for-profit prisons in order to increase the States' general revenue. This process of states operating prisons with a bottom-line philosophy has resulted in the exploitation of inmates solely for reaping an economic profit. The Eastern Oregon Correctional Institution in the town of Pendleton suggests that the for-profit prison is allowing many of its inmates to gain important work experience as well as make an average of $6.25 an hour by outsourcing their inmates to work in corporate factories. In Oregon, the state's inmate work program operates as a for-profit business under the assumed name Inside Oregon Enterprises (IOE). Oregon has contracted their inmates to many companies like Prison Blues, which manufacture a clothing line similar to the Oregon inmate uniform. Inmates are contracted out as temporary help similar to the business philosophy of Kelly Girls and Manpower. As a result, many companies, like Prison Blues, are able to cut their payroll budget by 35% by employing inmates because they do not have to pay employee benefits or social security taxes on the inmate.

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This may seem like a good deal for prisons and businesses. However, for the inmate, the benefit of the for-profit program is not what it appears to be. Many inmates on paper do earn $6 to $12 an hour working for the outside factories, but often the inmates are only allowed by the prison to keep 20% of their take home pay. According to the Prison as Profit (2001) article, "The rest of their wages can be withheld to pay income taxes, child-support obligations, room-and-board charges, and payments due victim-assistance funds" (p. B4). The child and family support issue is a valid deduction, but the remaining payroll deductions are questionable. For example, on an average, the inmates' annual earnings are less than the required amount by the IRS for the worker to have to pay state and federal income taxes. Is this money refunded to the inmate? Second, the article is very vague as to what the room-and-board charges represent. Do inmates have to pay for their living quarters in prison? Finally, the article suggests that the inmates who are qualified to participate in the work programs are those who have not committed a violent crime against other people. Therefore, why do the inmates have to contribute to the victim-assistance fund?

The basic element in planning educational programs in both a for-profit and non-profit setting is the same. For example, regardless of the economic structure, the program planner must continue to negotiate between the forces of power and politics while considering the opinions of those who hold special interests as well as evaluate the ethical factors, which arise from the planning process (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, 1994b, 2001). However, it is through the goals, values, and beliefs of the organization, whether for-profit or non-profit, that determine the direction of the educational program. The goal of the non-profit prison may be to maintain some degree of law-and-order within the prison, while offering educational and vocational programs for the inmates with some hope that it may have an impact upon his or her chances toward

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rehabilitation. The non-profit prison is not without its own source of political bureaucracy. For example, many of the state and federal prisons are dependent upon financial support from state and federal agencies which are controlled by political parties. Even with the political nature of the non-profit prison system, there still seems to be the philosophical belief that education is capable of making a difference for the greater good of the inmate.

In contrast, the for-profit prisons send their constituents to the program-planning table with their own set of values and beliefs, which help to promote a new course of action. Within the for-profit prison system, the educational and vocational needs of the inmate may be eliminated because the prison administration has the desire to make an economic profit (Prison as Profit, 2001). Through the outsourcing of inmates to private organizations as cheap labor, a company will usually pay a sales commission to the for-profit prison. For example, the Oregon-based company, Prison Blues, "also pays IOE a 6% royalty on its net sales" (p. B1). The state of Oregon noted that "it can earn a profit of between 76 cents and $1.14 for every hour of their labor" (p. B1). The focus of some educational programs in a for-profit prison system may have the tendency of shying away from the traditional non-revenue generating programs, such as literacy, ABE, and GED, and promote the high-revenue potential of vocational education.

The educational program planner's that work within the for-profit prison environment are challenged by the ethical concerns, which arise between the prison's desire to become profitable and the inmate's need for greater empowerment through education. In addition, the level of influence that the private corporations have upon the educational program planning process is great. For example, many companies, such as AT&T, Best Western, Control Data, Diamond Crystal Foods, Howard Jonhson's, MCI Worldcom, and the former RCA have seen the earning potential of contracting with for-profit prisons for making money on imprisonment (Krajick,

1989; Prison as Profit, 2001; Sexton, Farrow, & Auerbach, 1989). The construction of new for-profit prison facilities have been greatly influenced by private investors who underwrite lease arrangements in order that they may gain tax advantages as well as a steady cash flow from the monthly lease payments (Mullen, 1989). According to Mullen, some of the financial firms who have benefitted the most from such leasing agreements include Merrill Lynch Capital Markets, Lehman Brothers Kuhn Loeb, and the former E. F. Hutton. The struggle between each of these groups of special interests is strategically planned and is negotiated by the program planner (e.g., Cervero & Wilson, 1994a).

<center>Ethical Issues Concerning the For-Profit Prisons</center>

Mullen (1989) suggested that the first concern is whether States and counties have the legal authority to contract with private firms. According to Robbins (1989), under the Federal Civil Rights Act of 1983, there is some concern that "the government does not have the power to delegate to private entities the authority for such a traditional and important governmental function" (p. 156). A reporter from Barron's wrote that "peoples freedom should not be contracted out to the lowest bidder. In short, the private sector is more interested in doing well than in doing good" (Robbins, 1989, p. 156). However, it may be important to note that the privatization of prisons is not a new concept. Keating (1989) noted that "the United States in the aftermath of the Civil War, a more pernicious system evolved, particularly in the South, where prison labor came to be looked upon as a substitute for the now abolished slavery" (p. 149). Private contractors assumed total responsibility of the prisoners as well as reimbursed the state a fixed amount of money per inmate, thus generating revenue for the state (Keating, 1989). By 1923, the United States abolished this practice.

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Advocates for the privatization of prisons argue that this system can save the taxpayers money by building prisons faster and cheaper as well as operating them more cost effectively (Robbins, 1989). Keating (1989) suggested that "there is the question of what happens when one of these private correctional corporations goes broke. . . .Who picks up the bills in the even of a bankruptcy" (p. 152)? As a policy issue, "it is inappropriate to operate prisons with a profit motive, which provides no incentive to reduce overcrowding . . . nor to consider alternatives to incarceration, nor to deal with the broader problems of criminal justice" (Robbins, 1989, p. 156).

The researcher's concern with for-profit prison is what happens to the educational programs for inmates when the privatized organization focuses on running a low budget system, much like the medical HMO's. The Prison as Profit (2001) article only addressed the vocational needs of inmates. It failed to address the for-profit prison's stance toward such academic programs for inmates as: special education, literacy, ABE, GED, and college programming. How will privatized prisons financially support these educational programs when they are ineligible, as a private organization, to apply for most state and federal education grants? Another concern regarding for-profit prisons is that it has the tendency to maintain the status quo of oppressing inmates who are primarily both poor and Black. Beder (1992) noted that one of the problems with market driven educational programs are that it encourages inequality, because some of the "learners who do not have resources to exchange are not served" (p. 73).

Teachers' Decisions Regarding Classroom Instruction

In light of the power structures that exist in both adult education and correctional education, it is important to study how this affects teachers' ability to make instructional decisions in the classroom. After an extensive literature search, the researcher was unable to find empirical studies that looked at teacher decision-making within the fields of adult education and

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correctional education. Because the majority of correctional education curriculum consist of ABE and GED programs, the overall structure of these programs tend to mirror that of most normal elementary and secondary education programs. For example, the majority of public and private K-12 schools operate using a top-down organizational design system, which consists of the superintendent, principal, academic advisors, and teachers. In correctional education, the organizational design system is very similar in that it consists of the prison warden, educational director, academic advisors, and teachers. The superintendent has the role of overseeing the entire K-12 system for a particular school district, thus making sure that all of the policies and procedures established by the school board are met. Within a prison system, the warden serves essentially the same function of overseeing the entire prison facility including the educational program, making sure that it functions within the framework of the policies, and procedures set forth by the state department of corrections. The principal in a K-12 school system has the responsibility of supervising and controlling the daily flow of education within a particular school building. In correctional education, the educational director in the prison serves the same function as a school principal. However, because state correctional systems are operating on strict economic budgets, often the prison warden will assign a deputy warden to serve the function of educational director. In essence, the working relationship between the teachers and educational director in a prison facility is very similar to the working relationship between the teachers and principal in a K-12 school. Because the organizational design of a correctional education program is similar to that of a K-12 school program, the researcher chose to conduct a literature search involving teacher decision-making within the fields of elementary and secondary education. This particular literature search registered six empirical studies.

Clear (1968) conducted one of the early studies, which sought to look at how professional position and authority influenced the decisions social studies teachers made in the classroom. He discovered three significant outcomes. First, the social studies department chairperson had little or no influence over the decisions teachers made regarding classroom instruction. Secondly, the teachers did not perceive the principal as a source of instructional leadership. Thirdly, the teachers perceived the principal as a threat to the professional status as teachers, whereas the teachers perceived the department chairperson as a semi-colleague who did not pose the same threat. In a similar study, Chapel (1990) found that teachers were more likely to use cooperative learning techniques in the classroom if the principal played an active role in supporting the class and if the teachers were comfortable with their knowledge of the cooperative learning methods.

A third study by Owens (1981) sought to test whether teachers' educational beliefs coincided with their teaching practices with regard to the decisions teachers made regarding classroom instruction. Owens suggested that teachers did not discriminate between their philosophical beliefs concerning education with regard to the three philosophies of education delineated in this study: behaviorism, experimentalism, and humanism. The results suggest that teachers identified with multiple educational philosophies with no particular theory as dominant. With regard to educational practice, this study found that teachers were more likely to identify with one prevailing educational theory than to employ from a combination of theories. However, the teacher planning styles and the "types of decisions (behavioristic decisions, experimentalistic decisions, humanistic decisions) that teachers make do not appear to be directly influenced by teacher beliefs" (p. 148). Finally, Owens suggests that this study indicate that "teachers do not appear to consider objectives as a starting point for lesson preparation nor do they consider evaluation decisions to be a priority during the teacher preparation routine" (p. 148).

A fourth study by Hicks (1990) looked to identify the perception of freedom secondary education teachers in Kentucky had in making instructional decisions in the classroom. Hicks discovered four major points. First, this study suggests that female teachers perceived to have more freedom in making instructional decisions regarding classroom objectives, interactions, methods, materials, and the total score than their male colleagues. Secondly, teachers perceived to have more instructional freedom in smaller school districts than in much larger school districts. Thirdly, teachers with greater years of experience within the school district were more likely to perceive themselves as having more freedom in making instructional decisions in the classroom. Finally, teachers who held membership in subject area professional organizations perceived to have more freedom to make instructional decisions in the areas of interactions, content, and methods than teachers who did not hold such memberships.

A fifth study by Smylie (1992) sought to look at the teachers' willingness to participate in the school decision-making process. The sample for this study consisted of K-8 teachers from a large Midwestern metropolitan school district that employed over 200 classroom teachers. This study found that teachers were willing to participate in curricular and instructional decisions if they had a good working relationship with the school principal and the professional privacy regarding the working relationship with other teachers. This study also found that the teachers' willingness to engage in decisions regarding personnel, staff development, and general administrative was mostly dependent upon their working relationship with the school principal. According to Smylie, "Teachers appear substantially more willing to participate in all areas of decision making if they perceive their relationship with their principals as more open, collaborative, facilitative, and supportive" (p. 63).

A final study by Brandon, Wang, and Heck (1994) looked at the involvement teachers had in school-conducted needs assessments. The data collection for this study was from teachers in Hawaii's Special Needs Schools program that consists of at-risk students and chronic low achievers. According to the findings of this study, "teachers involved in school needs assessments may show fairly high levels of involvement in selecting the needs that the program should address and may largely agree that the appropriate needs were identified, yet may not be heavily involved in establishing decision-making processes" (p. 467). Secondly, the teachers' "involvement in establishing the foundation of decision-making may be somewhat affected by the participants' tendencies to take leadership roles in a group" (p. 467). Thirdly, the findings suggest, "the number of years that teachers had taught shows no significant relationship with their contributions to deciding about decision-making processes" (p. 468). Finally, this study suggest, the more teachers are "involved in deciding about both the process of decision-making and selecting the needs, the more they will agree with the results of the decisions" (p. 468).

CHAPTER III

THE METHODOLOGY

This chapter will describe the research methodology used to accomplish the purpose of the study. As stated in Chapter I, the purpose of this study was to better understand the dimensions of influence that affect instructional decisions made by correctional educators. This study measures two broad dimensions of influence: interpersonal dimensions of influence (prison administrators, correctional officers, other correctional educators, and inmates) and contextual dimensions of influence (classroom and security/safety), which consist of six dimensions of influence. Four research questions drive this study:

1. What is the relative importance of the six dimensions of influence for correctional education classrooms?

2. To what extent are the six dimensions of influence predicted by the teachers' personal and professional characteristics?

3. To what extent do the six dimensions of influence predict the teachers' power to make instructional decisions?

4. What are the major types of teachers with respect to the six dimensions of influence?

This chapter consists of seven sections, which describe the methodology used in this study. The seven sections of this chapter consist of the conceptual framework, instrument development, construction of the final questionnaire, sample, data collection, data preparation, and data analysis.

Conceptual Framework

This study sought to expand upon the current research relating to the factors that influenced the teachers' decision-making process (Brandon, Wang, & Heck, 1994; Chapel, 1990; Clear, 1968; Hicks, 1990; Owens, 1981; Smylie, 1992). The foundation of this study is rooted in the concept that multiple groups of interests drive all adult education programs. Kotler and Fox (1995) suggest that every educational undertaking has several *publics* and that institutions should strive to have positive relations with most or all of them. The term *public* is defined as "a distinct group of people and/or organizations that has an actual or potential interest in and/or effect on an institution" (Kotler & Fox, 1985, p. 24). Within the field of adult education, the term *public* would often be referred to as a *stakeholder*. Cervero and Wilson (1994a, 1994b, 2001) made a similar argument, but they added the process of *negotiation* to the planning model. They suggest that the success of an educational program is dependent upon the program planner's ability to effectively negotiate with the key stakeholders who come to the planning table with numerous interests (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, 1994b, 2001; Wilson & Cervero 1996a, 2001). This concept of negotiation is based upon the Forester's (1989) notion that all program-planning activities are bound by the relationships among numerous dimensions of influence. Forester (1999) suggests that when the educational program planner is engaged in the process of negotiation, he or she is attempting to learn the important "strategies that will or will not work, to learn about responsibilities and obligations as they assess proposed norms of action, and to learn about themselves and the others with whom they might act" (p. 202).

Adult education institutions vary enormously in the extent to which they employ centralized planning. In large corporate settings, training may be developed and implemented from a central site. Within less formal settings of adult education, a significant amount of

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instructional planning resides not with a centralized planner, but rather with the teacher. For example, an extreme case of this would be a literacy program that has no stated curriculum, but only stated students, whereby the teacher is in a position with only his/her own recourses to select, develop, and structure the program materials. The situation in correctional education varies significantly, but it seems to fall somewhere between both extremes. For example, in some states, either a state department or state organization might decide the curriculum within the correctional education classroom. In other states, there is considerable autonomy on the part of the teacher. More importantly, it would be a rare correctional education program if teachers did not have some degree of freedom to do what they believe they should do in the classroom setting.

There are three broad dimensions of influence affecting the teachers' decisions within the correctional education classroom. The three broad dimensions include *external dimensions of influence*, *interpersonal dimensions of influence*, and *contextual dimensions of influence*. A model depicting these three dimensions of influence is illustrated in Figure 2. The researcher developed this model from many formal and informal conversations with correctional administrators, teachers, inmates, and correctional officers during the past eight years. The *external dimensions of influence* represent those individuals who work outside the prison facility. The external dimensions of influence consist of three distinct categories: (1) the state and federal governments, (2) business and industry, and (3) the general public. The level of influence the external dimensions have upon the decision-making process of correctional education teachers is only indirect. The direct line of influence external dimensions have upon correctional education is toward the interpersonal dimensions of influence and the contextual dimensions of influence. Within the planning model (see again Figure 2), the external dimension influence is represented

by dashed arrows because they only indirectly influence teacher decisions. Because the external

dimension influence upon teacher decisions is mostly indirect, the researcher decided to

eliminate this group from this study.

Figure 2

Influences on Teachers' Power to Make Decisions in the Correctional Education Classroom
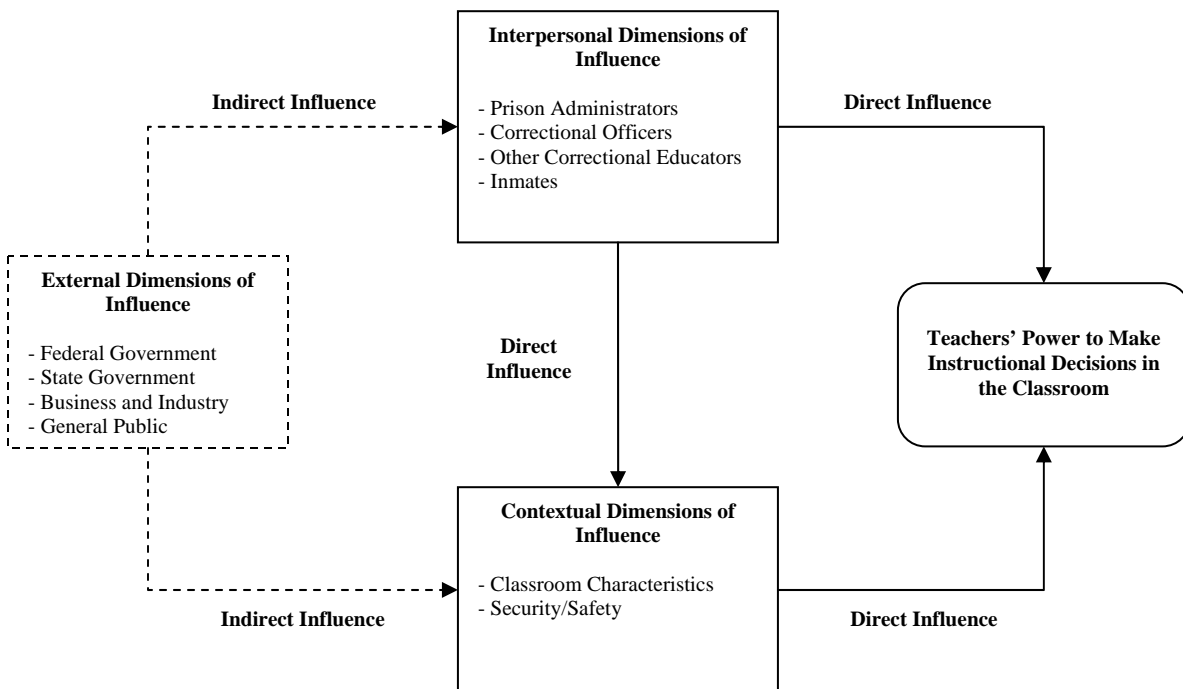
The second area, *interpersonal dimensions of influence*, represents those individuals who

are involved with the daily operations of a correctional education program at the local prison

facility. Four distinct groups represent the interpersonal dimensions of influence: (1) prison

administrators, (2) correctional officers, (3) other correctional educators, and (4) inmates. For

the purpose of this study, the teachers represent the central players in determining what goes on

within a correctional education classroom. Therefore, the underlying assumption is that the

teachers need to negotiate directly with each of the remaining four interpersonal dimensions.

With the use of solid directional arrows, the planning model (see again Figure 2) illustrates the

direct influence that the interpersonal dimensions have over the correctional education teachers' decision-making process.

The third area consists of the *contextual dimensions of influence*. In adult education practice, the process of negotiation between the educational program planner and the other program stakeholders is just one aspect of the planning model. According to Höghielm (1986), adult educators also need to focus upon the educational resources available and the contextual constraints, which affect the program planner's ability to develop educational programs. This theoretical position is evident in other adult education program planning models (Dean, Murk, & Del Prete, 2000; Murk & Walls, 1998; Murk & Wells, 1988; Sork, 2000). After careful consideration of these program-planning models, the researcher concluded that there are two contextual dimensions of influence, which affect the teachers' decisions within a correctional education program: (1) classroom characteristic influences and (2) security/safety influences (see again Figure 2). When developing a plan of instruction the teachers should be aware of many classroom influences, such as the instructional materials, the level of technology in the classroom, the size of the classroom, student enrollment, the type of furniture in the classroom, the classroom layout options, and the accessibility for inmates with physical disabilities. However, unlike many other adult learning environments, it is vital for teachers within a correctional education program to be fully aware of the many security influences. When developing a plan of instruction, the teachers must do so within the boundaries of the prison's policy toward security. In addition, the teachers need to continuously be aware of the current social climate between the inmates and develop an instructional plan that will insure the safety of both the inmates and the teaching personnel.

As illustrated in Figure 2, the contextual dimensions of influence have a direct affect upon the decisions-making process of teachers within the correctional education classroom. The contextual dimensions of influence are indirectly affected by the decisions and policies made from the external dimensions. However, the internal dimensions of influence have the most direct line of influence upon the contextual dimensions of influence. It is assumed that majority of power within the prison environment that has an influence upon the contextual dimensions of an educational program comes from both the prison administrators and the correctional officers. Although, it would be naive to assume that the correctional education teachers and the inmates did not have some influence over the contextual dimensions.

Finally, in order to test the strength that each dimensions of influence had upon teacher decision-making, the researcher developed a construct that measured the level of power the correctional teachers' believed that they held in making instructional decisions in the classroom. The remaining sections of Chapter III will be devoted to describing the process that researcher used to develop the questionnaire for this study and to describe the rate of reliability for each of the dimensions of influence.

Instrument Development

The instrument for this study consisted of a mailed self-completion questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed to measure the dimensions that influence the teachers' decision-making process in the correctional education classroom and to measure the teachers' power of instructional decision-making. The final questionnaire is depicted as Appendix A.

Developing the instrument was a protracted process that spanned the course of two years(see Appendix B). There were six major steps involved in the instrument development process, which are depicted in Table 1. Each of the six steps will be explicated in the following

paragraphs. It is worth noting that during the course of the instrument development process, the research questions went through a considerable number of revisions. For example, originally we envisioned conducting an exploratory study allowing us to map the dimensions of influence, using an exploratory factor analysis. However, the further we worked in developing the item pool it became clear to us that the exploratory methods would not be necessary. After considerable brainstorming and review sessions with adult educators, correctional educators, and research methodologists it became apparent to us that the many items that we had gathered fell into recognizable categories. Consequently, we subjectively derived inductive groupings to set the categories as previously depicted in the central column of Figure 2.

Table 1

Questionnaire Development Process

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1. Development and refinement of the item pool
2. Development of the response scale and prototype questionnaire
3. Pre-pilot review of the prototype questionnaire
4. Development of the pilot questionnaire
5. Testing the pilot questionnaire
6. Construction of the final questionnaire

Development and Refinement of the Item Pool

In developing the preliminary item pool, the researcher focused upon situations in correctional education that may occur due to the influential relationships between many stakeholders within a prison facility (e.g., Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, 1994b, 2001; Forester 1989, 1999; Wilson & Cervero, 1996b, 2001). The first step involved the development and refinement of the preliminary item pool. The focus of this procedure was to develop items that could potentially represent the key issues that influence the role of the teacher in the correctional

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education classroom. The preliminary item pool (see Appendix C) consisted of 402 items

designed to identify the common characteristics that influence the development and planning of

educational programs for inmates in prison. The researcher developed these items from three

primary sources: (1) a review of the adult education program planning and correctional education

literature, (2) informal interviews with correctional education administrators, teachers,

correctional officers and inmates, and (3) a brainstorming session with a group of eight adult

educators affiliated with the Department of Adult Education at The University of Georgia.

Although our work focused on the interpersonal influences that stakeholders had on the

teachers' decision-making, it increasingly became apparent throughout the brainstorming

sessions and the informal interviews that other constraints had a major influence on what

teachers did in the classroom. The constraints that appeared the most were the two contextual

factors: classroom characteristics and security/safety. Consequently, we added the two

contextual factors to the model (see again Figure 2) and developed item scales to measure the

factors. It was at this point when the terminology changed from measuring the influence of

stakeholders to the measuring the dimensions of influence.

Because there are numerous dimensions that influence the field of correctional education,

the researcher sorted each of the items into one of nine dimensions of influence. Each of the nine

dimensions of influence was categorized into one of two-dimensional groups: internal

dimensions of influence and external dimensions of influence. Internal groups represented four

dimensions of influence: (1) prison administrators, (2) prison teachers, (3) correctional officers,

and (4) prison inmates. External groups represented five dimensions of influence: (1) state

government, (2) federal government, (3) colleges/universities, (4) private sector/community, and

(5) funding sources.

Development of the Response Scale and the Prototype Questionnaire

The second task in the overall questionnaire development process involved two major components. The first component involved the construction of the response scale and the second component involved the first phase in development of the questionnaire. The researcher will discuss both components independently.

Construction of the Response Scale

The goal of the researcher was to develop a response scale that would best measure the attitudes of the survey participants regarding the factors that influence the teachers' decisions in the correctional education classroom. There were several formats considered for this study, but the final decision was to use a six-point Likert scale bounded by "Strongly Disagree" (1) and "Strongly Agree" (6). The researcher chose this type of rating scale because of its potential to "have good psychometric properties – that is, a well-developed summated rating scale can have good reliability and validity" (Spector, 1992, p. 2). The respondents' were asked to rate each of the items based upon the following set of instructions:

> Please reflect upon your own teaching experiences in a correctional facility. Then decide the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

After reading the questionnaire instructions, the respondents were asked to rate each of the questionnaire items using the six-point scale, as shown in Table 2. This example of the six-point rating scale represents the final questionnaire found in Appendix A.

Development of the Prototype Questionnaire

The purpose of this phase in the instrument development process was to reduce the number of items on the questionnaire. The researcher was seeking to eliminate the redundant items while maintaining the potential categorical factors. It is important to note that the researcher worked through many quantitative methodologies before settling on one position.

This study ultimately utilized a non-exploratory approach to analyzing the strength of each

dimension of influence. Because there was little empirical data pertaining to teacher decision-

making in correctional education available for the researcher to use as a guide, this led the

researcher and dissertation chairperson to question whether the non-exploratory research method

was the right for this study. Therefore, by the mid-point of the questionnaire development

process, the study changed to an exploratory approach. However, after further development of

the questionnaire, the researcher and dissertation chairperson believed that they had identified

the important dimensions of influence. Therefore, they concluded that the proper research

methodology was the non-exploratory approach.

Table 2

Response Scale of the Questionnaire

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on your decision-making in the correctional education classroom.	Strongly Disagree ↔ Strongly Agree					
1. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward the correctional educators.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward the educational program for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6

The initial prototype questionnaire consisted of a 38-item scale (see Appendix D). Each

of the scale items were representative of the four interpersonal dimensions of influence (prison

administrators, correctional officers, other correctional educators, and inmates) and the

classroom characteristics among the contextual dimensions of influence as previously illustrated

in Figure 2. At this stage of the instrument development process, the researcher and dissertation

chairperson believed that it was important to exclude the items previously represented by the external dimension group. As much as the external dimensions of influence had some affect upon the educational practices within the prison facility, they felt that it represented only an indirect affect upon the instructional decisions teachers made in the classroom. In addition, it is important to note that the initial 38-item scale did not include the security/safety dimension of influence (contextual dimension) as illustrated in Figure 2.

Pre-pilot Review of the Prototype Questionnaire

The pre-pilot investigation consisted of two separate investigations. The first pre-pilot investigation consisted of a survey review session with correctional educators. The second pre-pilot investigation consisted of a survey review session with adult educators. The researcher will describe each pre-pilot survey review session in more detail.

Pre-pilot Review with Correctional Educators

The researcher conducted a pre-pilot review of the questionnaire using a group of adult correctional educators in order to test the validity of the questionnaire. Validity represents the degree to which the questionnaire actually measures the variables that it claims to measure (Borg, Gall, & Gall, 1993; Spector, 1992). The pre-pilot review session occurred at the Lee Arrendale State Prison in Alto, Georgia. The Lee Arrendale State Prison is an adult closed-security prison facility, which houses nearly 1,200 male inmates. The questionnaire review session consisted of seven full-time teachers between 30 and 60 years-of-age and whose race and gender consisted of five White females, an African-American female, and a White male.

The majority of the recommendations from the correctional educators involved the need to change the terminology of some items on the questionnaire. The first recommendation was to change the wording for two major terms: *prison guards* and *plan of study*. The correctional

educators suggested that the term *prison guards* should be changed to *correctional officers*. The second recommendation was to change a *plan of study for inmates* to a *plan of instruction for inmates*. In addition, the correctional educators noticed that the terms *beliefs* and *views* were used interchangeably throughout the questionnaire. They recommended that the researcher settle on one particular term throughout the questionnaire, preferably the term *beliefs*. Therefore, the researcher changed all occurrences of the term *views* to *beliefs* throughout the questionnaire.

Pre-pilot Review with Adult Educators

The researcher organized another questionnaire review session with adult educators in order to insure the validity of the items on the research instrument. This review session consisted of three adult educators from The University of Georgia (all white females), the researcher, and the dissertation chairperson. After thoroughly reviewing each of the items on the prototype questionnaire, the adult educators made two recommendations. First, the adult educators recommended that the questionnaire items did not test for the *teachers' role* in the classroom, but rather the *teachers' decision-making process*. The researcher changed the focus of the questionnaire items to reflect how each item influenced the teachers' decision-making in the classroom. Secondly, the adult educators recommended that additional items were needed for the questionnaire that represented teacher decision-making with respect to security/safety. It was at this point, the researcher added the security/safety dimension of influence to the contextual dimension group as illustrated in Figure 2.

<div align="center">*Development of the Pilot Questionnaire*</div>

The prototype questionnaire consisted of a 40-item scale that represented six dimensions of influence: prison administrators, correctional officers, other correctional educators, inmates, classroom characteristics, and security/safety (see Appendix E). The researcher successfully

defended the dissertation prospectus before the doctoral committee, which also consisted of the prototype questionnaire.

During the prospectus defense, the doctoral committee recommended a number of adjustments to the prototype questionnaire and the target sample. First, one committee member recommended adding a set of items that would test for the power teachers believed they had in making decisions in the correctional education classroom. Although time did not permit for a protracted development, the researcher and dissertation chairperson brainstormed and repeatedly refined six items that they believe capture the concept of the power index. Two of the six items were written as negative items in order to test for a false/positive statistic as recommended by Spector (1992).

Prior to the prospectus defense, the researcher conceptualized surveying a more general correctional education population that would include administrators, counselors, professors, teachers, and so on. Because the researcher was primarily interested in studying what influenced teachers' decisions, he came away from the prospectus hearing convinced that the only way to proceed was to include only individuals who currently teach or have taught inmates in a prison facility. Therefore, the researcher changed the wording of the original scale items to reflect only teachers, thus writing it in the first-person.

Testing the Pilot Questionnaire

As a final step in the instrument development process, the researcher conducted a formal pilot study of the questionnaire. The purpose for piloting the questionnaire was to address three main concerns resulting from the data collection process. The first concern was the *rate of response*. One of the benefits of conducting a pilot study of the questionnaire is that it provides the researcher with an early estimate regarding the potential response rate for the complete

investigation (Jaeger, 1984). Therefore, the pilot study helped the researcher to determine, early in the data collection process, if the current sample group was a willing group of participants. The Salant and Dillman (1994) model for mailed surveys recommended that the researcher needed to mail at least 70 questionnaires to individuals from the target population.

The second concern that the researcher had was the *measure of reliability*. Reliability represents "the *accuracy* or *precision* of a measuring instrument" (Kerlinger, 1986, p. 405). The pilot study provides the researcher the ability to test the rate of reliability for all construct groups (Jaeger, 1984). Spector (1992) suggests that "*internal-consistency reliability* means that multiple items, designed to measure the same construct, will intercorrelate with one another" (p. 6). For the purpose of this study, the researcher tested for the internal-consistency among the items for each of the six dimensions of influence and the items regarding to the teachers' power to make classroom decisions. According to the research studies of Ferguson, reliability coefficients for equal-appearing interval scales for a 40-item scale ranged from .68 to .89 (as cited in Edwards, 1957). Although a Cronbach (1951) alpha value of $r = .70$ or greater is thought to be an acceptable reliability coefficient (e.g., Borg et al, 1993; Spector, 1992; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003), the researcher held the measure of reliability for the items in this study to a greater standard. For this study, researcher set a Cronbach alpha value of $r = .80$ or greater as an acceptable coefficient for reliability.

The third concern that the researcher had was to determine whether there were bad items among any of the six dimensions of influence. Usually these questionnaire items have no variance, too much variance, or an excessive number of non-responses. According to Jaeger (1984), "If any part of the survey is unclear or ambiguous, a well-designed pilot survey will allow the researcher to detect the problem" (p. 13). Therefore, if the pilot study revealed

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problems with any item on the prototype questionnaire, the researcher would be able to either

correct the item(s) or delete the item(s) from the final questionnaire.

Distribution of the Pilot Study

The questionnaire for the pilot study consisted of a 46-item scale (see Appendix F). The

questionnaire measured six dimensions of influence (prison administrators, correctional officers,

other correctional educators, inmates, classroom characteristics, and security/safety) on teacher

instructional decision-making and the level of teacher power to make decisions in the classroom.

The researcher submitted a written research proposal to seeking permission from the Internal

Review Board of the Graduate Research Office, The University of Georgia to conduct the pilot

study. The Internal Review Board stipulated that only the sample characteristics and the

measure of reliability generated from the pilot study sample could be published. Thus, all

remaining data or statistical information was to be excluded from all published documents and

presentations at professional meetings and conferences. In addition, no data collected for the

pilot study could be included in the final study results.

The sample for this pilot study consisted of a random sample of the people who hold

membership in the Correctional Education Association (CEA) and whose job title is known to be

teacher, instructor, or professor (Correctional Education Association, 2005). The CEA provided

the researcher with a computer database file listing of all the known teachers who held

membership in the CEA throughout the United States. The CEA database file consisted of 766

known teachers. In order to assure the pilot study would consist of participants throughout all

regions of the United States, the researcher sorted the CEA database file according to the mailing

zip code for each of the 766 CEA teachers. The sample for the pilot study consisted of 150 CEA

teachers chosen using an interval random sample approach, thus selecting the participants in

multiples of five. Once the researcher identified the sample for the pilot study, he administered

the questionnaire to the participants using a single mailing. The contents enclosed within each

mailed document consisted of the pilot questionnaire (see again Appendix F), the pilot cover

letter (see Appendix G), and the pilot confidentiality and research information sheet (see

Appendix H). Also enclosed in each mailing was a self-addressed stamped envelope so the

participants could return the questionnaire quickly and free of any postal charge.

The data collected for the pilot study was stored in an SPSS 10.0 computer software

dataset. The researcher used the SPSS 10.0 software to conduct all of the statistical analysis to

measure the item mean scores, scale-item mean scores, item redundancy, item variance, and the

rate of reliability. Because Items 45-46 (Teacher Power subscale) were written as negative items

to test for a false/positive reading (Spector, 1992), the researcher reversed the number value for

both items at the time of data entry. The purpose of the item reversal was to insure the Items for

the Teacher Power subscale were uniform in nature and did not skew the scale-item mean scores.

Results of the Pilot Study

The pilot study resulted in 64 completed questionnaires from a single mailing, thus

generating a 42.7% rate of response. The questionnaires received consisted of correctional

education teachers throughout 21-States, with Ohio (n=12) and California (n=11) fielding the

most responses. Of the questionnaires returned, 100% were considered usable and included in

the dataset. The characteristics describing the pilot study participants are shown in Appendix I.

There was missing data involving two items on the questionnaire for the pilot study. Two

participants failed to rate Item-8 and three participants failed to rate Item-37 (see again Appendix

F). In addition, five participants (including those just mentioned) wrote comments on the

questionnaire suggesting that they had trouble deciding if Items 8 and 37 were referring to

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themselves as teachers or were referring to the inmates. They felt the language was unclear.

Therefore, the researcher changed the language for both Item-8 and Item-37 and he also changed

the language for Item-38. The old and new versions of these items are shown in Appendix J.

The researcher tested the internal-consistency of the seven subscales using a Cronbach

(1951) alpha method (e.g., Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). Because the Inmate subscale contained

ten items and the remaining six subscales contained six items, the researcher felt that it was

important to insure that each of the seven subscales were measured equally when testing for

reliability. The researcher converted the scale-item mean scores for each of the seven subscales

to Z-scores and used this statistic for testing the level of internal-consistency. The results

identified fourteen pairs of items exhibiting a correlation greater than .70. Because, there were

no cases whereby the items were judged redundant, the researcher did not make any changes to

the items. The scale-item means, the standard deviations, and the alpha levels for each of the

seven subscales are shown in Appendix K. The scale-item means were generated using the

following formula: *Scale-Item Mean = Scale Mean / Number of Items in Each Scale*. All of the

sub-scales had a rate of reliability which was *a* >.80.

One item pertaining to the other correctional educators (Item-13) had a low corrected

item-total correlation equaling .47. If this item were deleted from the questionnaire, the rate of

reliability for this subscale would have increased to *a* = .90 representing only a one percent

increase. Since deleting the item would generate less than a three percent increase in reliability

and the subscale originally had a strong rate of reliability, the researcher decided to keep Item-13

in the questionnaire because of its validity to the study. Five items pertaining to inmates (Items

24-28) had corrected item-total correlations equaling .49 or less. For three of the items, Item-24,

Item-26, and Item-27 had corrected item-total correlations equaling .45, .47, and .46

respectively. Because the reliability testing demonstrated that deleting any of these three items would have resulted in a decrease in the rate of reliability for this subscale, the researcher decided to keep these items in the questionnaire. Two items concerning inmates had extremely low corrected item-total correlations (Item-25 = .16 and Item-28 = .09). If both items were removed from the questionnaire, the rate of reliability for the Inmate sub-scale only increased to $a = .82$. Therefore, the researcher and dissertation chairperson believed that we could justify leaving Item- 25 and Item-28 in the questionnaire.

<div align="center">Construction of the Final Questionnaire</div>

The final questionnaire consists of a 46-item scale measuring the six dimensions of influence and the level of teacher power to make instructional decisions in the classroom (see again Appendix A). The first part of the final questionnaire consists of measuring six dimensions of influence, which include prison administrators (Items 1-6), correctional officers (Items 7-12), other correctional officers (Items 13-18), inmates (Items 19-28), classroom characteristics (Items 29-34), and security/safety (Items 35-40). The second part of the final questionnaire consists of measuring the teacher power index consists of six items (Items 41-46), with Items 45-46 written as negative items in order of testing for a false/positive statistic. The third part of the final questionnaire consists of numerous variables designed to record the personal and professional characteristics of the participants.

The data pertaining to the professional characteristics of the correctional education teachers include, the type of educational program/courses they had taught, the type of inmates they had taught, the type and level of security of the correctional facility for which they were employed, and the number of years of experience they had teaching inmates in prison. In addressing the type of educational programs the teachers had taught in prison, the options on the

final questionnaire include special education, vocational education, English as a second language (ESL), ABE, GED, and college. In addressing the type of inmates, the teachers had previously taught in prison, the options on the final questionnaire include the inmates' gender (male, female, or both) and the inmates' age group (juvenile, adult, or both). In addressing the type of prison the teachers were employed, the options on the final questionnaire include state, federal, county/city, and for-profit (privatized). In addressing the level of security for the prison in which the teachers were employed include Levels I-VI, with Level-I representing low-security transitional facilities and Level-VI representing maximum-security prisons. In addressing the professional experience of the teachers, the final questionnaire provided the option for the teachers to write in the number of years of experience that they had in teaching inmates in prison.

In addressing the personal characteristics of the teachers participating in the final study, the final questionnaire asked the teachers to write in their personal characteristics, which include gender, race, year-of-birth, and the highest degree or diploma obtained. In addition, the researcher recorded on each questionnaire the state in which the teachers were employed, based upon the mailing list.

Sample

The sample for the final study targeted the same population of correctional educators as in the pilot study. The researcher conducted a random sample from the list of correctional educators stored on the Excel database file provided by the Correctional Education Association. This database file consisted of individuals listed in the Correctional Education Association (2005) membership directory who resided in the United States and whose professional title was teacher, instructor, or professor. The purpose of targeting this population was to be able to generate a database of teachers who were currently teaching inmates in prison.

The researcher submitted a written research proposal to seeking permission from the Internal Review Board of the Graduate Research Office at The University of Georgia to conduct the final study, targeting the current correctional education teacher population. The Internal Review Board approved the final study, but with the stipulation that 150 correctional education teachers targeted for the pilot study were to be excluded from the current target population for the final study. As the researcher deleted those correctional education teachers who were previously targeted for the pilot study, the researcher mailed the final questionnaire (see again Appendix A) to the remaining 616 correctional education teachers listed in the Correctional Education Association database file.

The sample for the final study consisted of 427 correctional education teachers. The personal and professional characteristics of the sample are described in Table 3. The sample consisted of a slight majority of female teachers (52.7%) who taught inmates in prison. In contrast, the overwhelming majority of 88.3% the sample consisted of teachers who were White. Whereas, persons of color represented only 11.7% of the teacher sample, with the African-American teachers consisting of 54.0% of the minority sample. The teachers in the sample had a mean age of 51.7 years and had a mean of 9.4 years of experience teaching inmates in prison. The educational background for the sample consisted of 59.7% of the teachers holding a master's degree or higher, with 4.7% of the teachers holding a doctorate. In contrast, nearly 8.7% of the teachers held less than a bachelor's degree.

A significant majority (74.5%) of the sample for this study consisted of teachers who taught only male inmates. In contrast, the sample consisted of only 5.9% of the teachers who taught only female inmates. Nearly 20% of the remaining teachers in the sample taught both male and female inmates. Nearly all of the teachers in this group taught in single-gender prison

facilities. However, some teachers worked in county/city jails that housed both male and female inmates. Therefore, a few of these teachers may have taught both gender groups in the same jail facility, but likely during separate class sessions. The total number of teachers who taught both male and female inmates in co-gender county/city jail facilities was not available to the researcher.

Table 3

Personal and Professional Characteristics of the Study Respondents (n=427)

Variable	Value*	
Age (in years)	Mean = 51.7	SD = 9.8
Years of experience teaching inmates in prison	Mean = 9.4	SD = 6.1
Gender		
Female	N = 225	52.7%
Male	N = 205	47.3%
Race/Ethnicity		
White	N = 377	88.3%
African-American	N = 27	6.3%
American-Indian	N = 8	1.9%
Hispanic/Latin American	N = 8	1.9%
Asian	N = 7	1.6%
Highest degree/diploma completed		
High School Diploma/GED	N = 8	1.9%
Certificate	N = 8	1.9%
Associate	N = 21	4.9%
Bachelor's	N = 135	31.6%
Master's	N = 235	55.0%
Doctorate	N = 20	4.7%
Types of inmates taught by the teachers		
Inmate Gender		
Male only	N = 318	74.5%
Female only	N = 25	5.9%
Male and Female	N = 84	19.7%
Types of inmates taught by the teachers		
Inmate Age		
Adult only	N = 254	59.5%
Juvenile only	N = 47	11.0%
Adult and Juvenile	N = 126	29.5%

Table 3 (Continued)

Variable	Value*	
Types of prison facilities taught in by the teachers		
Prison Affiliation		
State	N = 373	87.4%
Federal	N = 5	1.2%
County/City	N = 34	8.0%
Private (For-Profit)	N = 15	3.5%
Types of prison facilities taught in by the teachers		
Prison Security-Level		
Level-I (Transitional)	N = 14	3.3%
Level-II (Low Security)	N = 69	16.2%
Level-III (Medium Security)	N = 128	30.0%
Level-IV (Medium Security)	N = 114	26.7%
Level-V (High or Closed-Security)	N = 52	12.2%
Level-VI (Maximum Security)	N = 50	11.7%
Prison Facilities by U.S. Region		
Northeast	N = 69	16.2%
Midwest	N = 160	37.5%
West	N = 136	31.9%
South	N = 62	14.5%
Types of educational programs taught by the teachers**		
Adult Basic Education (ABE)	N = 252	59.0%
General Equivalency Development (GED)	N = 252	59.0%
Vocational Education	N = 121	28.3%
Special Education	N = 109	25.5%
College Degree Programs	N = 83	19.4%
English as a Second Language	N = 81	19.0%
Pre-Release Programs	N = 75	17.6%

*The percentages for each category may not total 100% due to rounding
**Some teachers taught multiple subject areas, thus the percentages do not equal 100%

Nearly 60% of the teachers in this study taught only adult inmates, compared to 11.0% of the teachers who taught only juvenile inmates. However, nearly 30% of the teachers in this study taught both adult and juvenile inmates in prison. This group of teachers could have taught inmates in separate juvenile and adult prison facilities. However, there is a strong possibility that many of the teachers taught only in the adult prison facilities, which also housed juvenile inmates

who were convicted of committing adult crimes.   The researcher did not have access to the data that would clarify which of the two assumptions were true.

An overwhelming majority of the teachers (87.4%) in this study taught inmates in state prison facilities (n=373). The remaining teachers in this study taught inmates in the following three types of correctional facilities: county/city jails (n=34), privatized/for-profit prisons (n=15), and federal prisons (n=5). A majority of the teachers in this study (56.7%) taught inmates in medium-security prison facilities (Level-III & Level-IV). Nearly 20% of the sample consisted of teachers who taught inmates in either transitional facilities (Level-I) or low-security prison facilities (Level-II). Transitional prison facilities often house various types of inmates who have been released from the formal prison facility to a halfway house environment in order to see how the ex-offender is likely going to do upon release from the judicial system. The low-security prison facilities often house inmates who have committed either non-violent crimes or inmates who have been transferred to the low-security prison from one of the other prison facilities. A number of the teachers in this study taught in either a high-security (12.2%) or a maximum-security (11.7%) prison facility. The only difference between the two types of prison facilities is that in the case of the maximum-security prison the inmates are required to be locked-up in their prison cells for 23-hours a day. In the maximum-security prison, the teacher conducts the class sessions (often in group-sessions) outside the inmates' prison cells. Whereas, in the high-security prison facility, inmates tend to spend numerous hours out of their prison cells participating in various forms of structured activities. Inmates in the high-security prison usually attend the educational programs in a normal classroom environment.

The correctional education teachers who participated in this study represented 38-States, with Ohio (n=85) and California (n=68) fielding the most responses. When sorting the sample

according to the four regions (Northeast, Midwest, West, and South) illustrated by the U.S. Census Bureau (2000), the majority of the sample (69.4%) consisted of correctional education teachers who taught inmates in either the Midwest (n=160) or West (n=136) states. The teachers who taught inmates in the states located in the Northeast (n=69) and the South (n=62) regions consisted of 30.7% of the sample.

The majority of the correctional education teachers who participated in this study taught inmates in multiple subject areas. The educational program areas identified in this study consisted of special education, vocational education, ESL programs, pre-release programs, ABE programs, GED programs, and the college degree programs. The majority of the sample (59.0%) consisted of teachers who taught in the prison literacy programs, as the ABE (n=175) and the GED (n=175) programs were equally represented by the teachers. The second educational area most represented in this study by the teachers was the vocational programs, which involved 28.3% of the sample. The third educational area most represented in this study was the special education programs, which involved 25.5% of the sample. The college, ESL, and pre-release programs were the educational programs least represented by the sample, as these programs were taught by 19.4%, 19.0%, and 17.6% of the teachers respectively.

<center>Data Collection</center>

The data collection process consisted of two separate mailings. The original mailing included a copy of the study questionnaire (see again Appendix A), a cover letter (see Appendix L), a confidentiality and research information sheet (see Appendix M), and a stamped return envelop addressed to the researcher. The respondents' name and mailing address did not appear on the return envelope. The researcher affixed his own name and address to both the upper left corner of the return envelops (return address location) and to the middle of the return envelope

(mail to: address location). In order to maintain the respondents' confidentiality, the researcher assigned a unique three-digit number to each of the potential respondents. Every mailed questionnaire included the respondent's unique identification number hand-written in the upper right corner of the first page of the questionnaire. The second mailing included the same documents as previously mailed in the original mailing, except the cover letter was rewritten to serve as a follow-up letter (see Appendix N).

For the first mailing, the researcher sent out the questionnaire materials (see again Appendix A) to 616 potential respondents. The researcher received 332 completed questionnaires, which warranted an actual response rate of 53.9%. The researcher received 14 non-completed questionnaires from the teachers who did not want to participate in this study. The researcher subsequently deleted this group of individuals from the study and from any future mailings. The U.S. Postal Service returned 32 undeliverable envelops to the researcher, due to a change of address. Therefore, the researcher deleted this group of individuals from the study and from any future mailings. For the first mailing, the researcher continued to receive completed questionnaires on a daily basis for a period of nearly four weeks. The researcher waited one additional week before conducting the second mailing.

For the second mailing, the researcher sent out 238 questionnaire materials (see again Appendix A) to the remaining respondents who did not return either a completed questionnaire, a non-completed questionnaire, or had a questionnaire returned due to an address change during the first mailing. The second mailing warranted 95 completed questionnaires, which consisted of a 39.9% rate of response. The researcher received non-completed questionnaires from three additional teachers who did not want to participate in this study. Therefore, these three individuals were dropped from the study. The information regarding the rates of response is

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shown in Table 4. The total data collection process warranted 427 completed questionnaires,

thus resulting in a 69.3% actual rate of response.

Table 4

Response Rates from the Questionnaire Mailings

Mailing Dates	Questionnaires Mailed	Questionnaires Undeliverable	Non-Completed Questionnaires Received	Completed Questionnaires Received	Actual Response Rate
06/26/2005	616	32	14	332	53.9%
08/06/2005	238	0	3	95	39.9%
Totals:	616	32	17	427	69.3%

Data Preparation

The data for this study was stored in SPSS 10.0, a statistical analysis software package, to

tabulate and analyze the results. This study did not warrant any missing data. The researcher

and the dissertation chairperson acknowledge that, for a sample of this magnitude, it is extremely

unusual to have no missing data. Two factors may explain why there was no missing data for

this study. First, the researcher and the dissertation chairperson agree that in conducting the pilot

study prior to the final study likely reduced the potential for missing data. The pilot study

provided them with an excellent understanding as to the effectiveness of the administration of the

questionnaire and if there were specific items on the questionnaire that were likely to warrant

missing items. For example, as mentioned in the "Construction of the Final Instrument" section

of Chapter III, the pilot study identified two participants stating that they failed to rate Item-8

and three participants stating that they failed to rate Item-37 because they felt that the items were

not clearly written. Subsequently, three items on the questionnaire were rewritten so that they would be read more clearly.

A second factor that may explain why there was no missing data is the personal interests the participants had regarding the content of this study. For example, the researcher and the dissertation chair received an overwhelming number of telephone calls and email messages from the participants regarding this study. A few participants wanted more information concerning the purpose of the study, but the overwhelming majority of the participants wanted the researcher and dissertation chair to know how interested they were in knowing the results of the study. The researcher received correspondence from approximately 100 participants who requested a written summary of the research findings. In addition, the researcher received correspondence from five participants who made suggestions regarding the need for potential research projects in the future that pertained to correctional education teachers. Therefore, the personal interests that the correctional education teachers had regarding this study may help explain why they answered all of the items on the questionnaire. Finally, the contents of the telephone conversations and email messages for which the researcher received from the participants in this study are not disclosed in this study because the researcher believes this information to be strictly confidential.

The researcher retested the measure of reliability for the seven sub-scale areas in order to see if the dimensions of influence for the final study held strong as in the case of the pilot study. Like the pilot study, the researcher used the Cronbach (1951) alpha levels for each of the seven sub-scale areas of influence and teacher power. Each of the six dimensions of influence warranted alpha levels greater than .80. The sub-scale pertaining to teacher power warranted an alpha level of .80. The measure of reliability for the seven sub-scales of the pilot study is illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5

Reliability of the Seven Sub-Scales for the Final Study (N=427)

Dimensions of Influence and Power	Item Numbers	Scale Mean	Scale SD	Mean Item Mean	Alpha
Prison Administrators	1-6	22.28	7.07	3.71	.86
Correctional Officers	7-12	17.24	6.75	2.87	.85
Other Correctional Educators	13-18	26.17	6.64	4.36	.91
Inmates	19-28	39.40	8.65	3.94	.82
Classroom Characteristics	29-34	26.90	6.10	4.48	.86
Security/Safety	35-40	27.52	6.87	4.59	.88
Teachers' Power	41-46	28.91	5.54	4.82	.80

In preparation for the cluster analysis, the researcher used the Z-scores when tested for the inter-correlation between the six dimensions of influence. The researcher used Z-scores because standardized scores are significantly more accurate upon cross-validation than the conventional composite scores (Lorr, 1983). The researcher used a Pearson Correlation to test for the statistically significant inter-correlations, thus following the same format as described by Hendricks (2001). The purpose of testing for the significant inter-correlations was to accomplish two things. First, this procedure set out to measure whether the six dimensions of influence statistically correlate with each other. Second, this procedure set out to measure the power for each correlation statistic. The level of power is calculated using the r^2 statistic. The inter-correlation data is shown in Table 6. The results suggest that there were statistically significant

correlations (p < .01) between each of the six dimensions of influence. The level of power for

the inter-correlations range between $r^2 = .07$ and $r^2 = .35$.

Table 6

Inter-Correlation between the Six Dimensions of Influence (n=427)

Dimensions of Influence	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Prison Administrators	1.000	--	--	--	--	--
2. Correctional Officers	.593**	1.000	--	--	--	--
3. Other Correctional Educators	.344**	.270**	1.000	--	--	--
4. Inmates	.395**	.461**	.328**	1.000	--	--
5. Classroom	.298**	.324**	.303**	.546**	1.000	--
6. Security/Safety	.449**	.498**	.388**	.437**	.494**	1.000

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

Data Analysis

The researcher conducted the data analysis using SPSS 10.0 statistical software package.

The statistical analysis selected for this study sought to yield the output needed to address the

four research questions:

1. What is the relative importance of the six dimensions of influence for correctional

   education classrooms?

2. To what extent are the six dimensions of influence predicted by the teachers' personal

   and professional characteristics?

3. To what extent do the six dimensions of influence predict the teachers' power to make

   instructional decisions?

4. What are the major types of teachers with respect to the six dimensions of influence?

The first research question "What is the relative importance of the six dimensions of influence for correctional education classrooms?" was addressed through three main procedures. The first procedure consisted of rank ordering the items within each of the six dimensions of influence. The mean score for each item within the six dimensions of influence were calculated. The researcher tabulated the results and ranked the items within each dimension of influence from highest to lowest. The second procedure consisted of rank ordering the six items that were developed to measure the teachers' power to make instructional decisions. The mean score for each of the items pertaining to teacher power was calculated. The researcher tabulated the results and ranked the items from highest to lowest. The third procedure consisted of calculating the mean-item-mean score for each of the six dimensions of influence. The researcher rank-ordered the six dimensions of influence from highest to lowest mean-item-mean scores.

The second research question "To what extent are the six dimensions of influence predicted by the teachers' personal and professional characteristics?" was addressed through a number of bivariate analyses. First, the researcher used a Pearson correlation to measure the predicted value of the continuous independent variables in relation to the six dimensions of influence, thus using a format similar to the one described by Perdue (1999). There were two continuous independent variables measured using a Pearson correlation: teachers' years of experience and teachers' age. Second, the researcher used an independent t-test to measure the predicted value of the bi-level ordinal independent variables, in relation to the six dimensions of influence (e.g., Harroff, 2002). Independent t-tests were used to measure predicted value of the teachers' gender and five bi-level ordinal variables representing the following educational programs the teachers taught in prison: special education, vocational, pre-release, adult literacy, and college. Third, the researcher used a One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to measure

the predicted value of the ordinal independent variables that had three or more value levels, in relation to the six dimensions of influence (e.g., Harroff, 2002). Finally, the same three statistical models were used to measure the predicted value the independent variables had in relation to the teachers' power index.

The third research question "To what extent do the six dimensions of influence predict the teachers' power to make instructional decisions?" was addressed using a single procedure. The researcher conducted a simple regression analysis to measure whether the teachers' power to make instructional decisions was predicted by the six dimensions of influence, thus using a format similar to the one described by Reardon (2004). The researcher sought to identify the dimensions of influence that served as statistically significant predictors of teacher power and to determine the level of power each significant predictor had in explaining the amount of power the teachers' believed they had in making instructional decisions in the classroom.

The fourth research question "What are the major types of teachers with respect to the six dimensions of influence?" was addressed through a single procedure. The researcher used a cluster analysis to identify the major types of teachers with respect to how they rated the six dimensions of influence. The researcher followed the same format in the cluster analysis procedure as described by Harroff (2002). Clusters of two through six were calculated and examined for the output that offered the greatest conceptual clarity, using K-means clustering. The K-means cluster is a disjoint analysis in which each observed case of the sample is assigned to one cluster group (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Harroff, 2002; Lorr, 1983). The researcher found the five-cluster group as offering the greatest conceptual clarity. Therefore, each dimension of influence was analyzed in each cluster group using Z-scores. A 5-point influence scale represented the format used for the Z-scores: very low influence (< -1.0), low

influence (-.50 to -.99), average influence (-.49 to +.49), high influence (+.50 to +.99), and very high influence (> +1.0).

Finally, the researcher sought to measure the overall relationship between the independent variables and the cluster membership. The independent variables consisted of the teachers' personal and professional characteristics. In drawing upon the statistical methods used for research question #2, the researcher used a Pearson Chi-square and an ANOVA to measure the predictor value for the independent variables.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This chapter will present the results of the statistical analysis described in the preceding chapter. The purpose of this study was to better understand the dimensions of influence that affect instructional decisions made by correctional educators. This study measures two broad dimensions of influence: interpersonal dimensions of influence (prison administrators, correctional officers, other correctional educators, and inmates) and contextual dimensions of influence (classroom and security/safety). Four research questions drive this study:

1. What is the relative importance of the six dimensions of influence for correctional education classrooms?

2. To what extent are the six dimensions of influence predicted by the teachers' personal and professional characteristics?

3. To what extent do the six dimensions of influence predict the teachers' power to make instructional decisions?

4. What are the major types of teachers with respect to the six dimensions of influence

Findings Related to Research Question #1

The first research question asked, "What is the relative importance of the six dimensions of influence for correctional education classrooms?" Mean item means ranged from 2.10 to 5.50 on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) point scale. The total rank order of the 40-item scale, representing the six dimensions of influence on teacher decision-making, is shown in Appendix O. However, in order to develop a clearer picture as to the importance of the six

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dimensions of influence, the researcher will rank order the items within each of the six dimensions of influence.

The first dimension consists of the influence prison administrators had on the teachers' instructional decisions in the classroom. The rank order of the mean scores for the prison administrator influence is shown in Table 7. The mean scores suggest that the teachers' instructional decisions are strongly influenced by the prison educational administrators. In contrast, the mean scores suggest that the prison warden's have little influence over the instructional decisions the teachers make in the classroom. The total mean for the three educational administrator items (Items 4-6) was 4.55 in comparison to the total mean score of 2.88 for the three warden items (Items 1-3).

Table 7

Rank Order of the 6-Item Scale Measuring Prison Administrator Influence (n=427)

Item #	Item	Mean
5	When making instructional decisions, I consider the requirements imposed by the educational administrators.	4.81
6	When making instructional decisions, I consider the academic expectations of the educational administrators.	4.67
4	When making instructional decisions, I consider the attitudes of the educational administrators.	4.17
3	When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward the educational program for inmates.	3.07
2	When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward the correctional educators.	2.83
1	When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward inmates.	2.73

The second dimension consists of the influence correctional officers had on the teachers' instructional decisions in the classroom. The rank order of the mean scores for the correctional officer influence is shown in Table 8. In general, the results suggest the correctional officers have little influence on the teachers' instructional decisions in the correctional education classroom. However, the correctional teachers suggest that their instructional decisions are strongly influenced by the correctional officers' attitudes toward security, thus this item (Item-9) had a mean score value of 4.19. The correctional teachers also suggests that they are slightly influenced by the control the correctional officers have over the physical movements of the inmates, which includes who [inmates] attends class on a particular day. This item (Item-11) had a mean score value of 3.81.

Table 8

Rank Order of the 6-Item Scale Measuring Correctional Officer Influence (n=427)

Item #	Item	Mean
9	When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward security.	4.19
11	When making instructional decisions, I consider the control correctional officers have over the physical movements of inmates.	3.81
12	When making instructional decisions, I consider the power correctional officers have over the classroom environment.	2.72
8	When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward the correctional educators.	2.22
7	When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward the inmates.	2.19
10	When making instructional decisions, I seek input from correctional officers.	2.10

The third dimension consists of the influence other correctional educators had on the teachers' instructional decisions in the classroom. The rank order of the mean scores for the other correctional educator influence is shown in Table 9. The mean scores suggest that the correctional teachers' instructional decisions are strongly influenced by their teacher colleagues. The only area, in which the teachers occasionally network with one another in making instructional decisions, pertains to group discussions. The item (Item-15) pertaining to teacher group discussions had a mean score of 3.86, whereas the remaining teacher mean scores ranged between 4.37 and 4.56.

Table 9

Rank Order of the 6-Item Scale Measuring Other Correctional Educator Influence (n=427)

Item #	Item	Mean
14	When making instructional decisions, I seek input from other correctional educators about classroom problems.	4.56
13	When making instructional decisions, I consider the recommendations from other correctional educators.	4.53
18	When making instructional decisions, I discuss with other correctional educators issues regarding inmates.	4.42
16	When making instructional decisions, I discuss teaching strategies with other correctional educators.	4.41
17	When making instructional decisions, I collaborate with other correctional educators.	4.37
15	When making instructional decisions, I have group discussions with other correctional educators.	3.86

The fourth dimension consists of the influence inmates had on the teachers' instructional decisions in the classroom. The rank order of the mean scores for the inmate influence is shown

in Table 10. According to the mean scores, the items representing the inmates' influence on teacher decision-making can fall into three distinct groups. The first group consists of five items that the teachers rated as having a strong influence upon their instructional decision making process. These five items had a mean score range of 4.22 and 5.50. The results suggests that the teachers were strongly influenced by the inmates' learning needs, learning disabilities, purpose for attending class, number of contact hours in class, and life experiences.

The second group consists of two items whereby the teachers rated as having a slight influence upon their instructional decision-making process. These two items had a mean score range of 3.53 and 3.59. The results suggest that the teachers' instructional decisions were slightly influenced by the inmates' opinions of the class and the inmates' race/ethnicity.

The third group consists of three items that the teachers rated as not having any influence upon their instructional decision-making process. These three items had a mean score range of 2.12 and 3.23. The results suggest that the teachers' instructional decisions are not influenced by the inmates' gender, religious affiliation, and previous criminal history.

Table 10

Rank Order of the 10-Item Scale Measuring Inmate Influence (n=427)

Item #	Item	Mean
25	When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' learning needs.	5.50
28	When making instructional decisions, I consider the learning disabilities of some inmates.	5.26
26	When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' purpose for attending the class.	4.58

Table 10 (Continued)

Item #	Item	Mean
27	When making instructional decisions, I consider the number of hours per week the inmates attend class.	4.39
22	When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' life experiences.	4.22
23	When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' opinions about the class.	3.59
20	When making instructional decisions, I consider the race/ethnic diversity among the inmates.	3.53
19	When making instructional decisions, I consider the gender of the inmates.	3.23
21	When making instructional decisions, I consider the religious diversity among the inmates.	2.97
24	When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' criminal history.	2.12

The fifth dimension consists of the influence the classroom characteristics had on the teachers' instructional decisions. The rank order of the mean scores for the classroom influence is shown in Table 11. The results suggest that the teachers' instructional decisions are strongly influenced by the classroom characteristics. Five of the six items concerning the classroom influence index warranted mean scores that ranged between 4.36 and 5.19. The classroom characteristics for these five items pertained to the room size, classroom layout, classroom technology, number of inmates in the class, and the instructional materials. The mean-item-mean score for these five items was 4.48. The correctional teachers rated only one item (Item-32) as having a slight influence on their instructional decision-making in the classroom. This item had a mean value of 3.74 and pertained to the type of furniture in the classroom.

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Table 11

Rank Order of the 6-Item Scale Measuring Classroom Influence (n=427)

Item #	Item	Mean
34	When making instructional decisions, I consider the instructional materials available for the class.	5.19
29	When making instructional decisions, I consider the number of inmates in the class.	4.65
33	When making instructional decisions, I consider the level of technology available for inmates.	4.58
31	When making instructional decisions, I consider the classroom layout.	4.37
30	When making instructional decisions, I consider the room size.	4.36
32	When making instructional decisions, I consider the type of furniture in the classroom.	3.74

The sixth dimension consists of the influence the security/safety requirements have on the teachers' instructional decision-making. The rank order of the mean scores for the security/safety influence is shown in Table 11. The results suggest that the teachers' instructional decisions are strongly influenced by security/safety concerns. The six items concerning the security/safety influence index warranted mean scores that ranged between 4.27 and 4.85. However, the total six item scale measuring how the correctional teachers rated the security/safety dimension of influence on their instructional decision-making had a total mean score of 4.59.

Table 12

Rank Order of the 6-Item Scale Measuring Security/Safety Influence (n=427)

Item #	Item	Mean
38	When making instructional decisions, I consider the safety of the inmates.	4.85
36	When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison's policy toward security.	4.78
37	When making instructional decisions, I consider my own safety.	4.73
39	When making instructional decisions, I consider the current social climate among the inmates.	4.45
40	When making instructional decisions, I consider previous security concerns at the prison.	4.43
35	When making instructional decisions, I consider the level of classroom security.	4.27

The second part of the questionnaire consists of a 6-item scale (items 41-46) designed to measure the level of power the correctional education teachers believed that they had to make instructional decisions in the classroom. Items 45 and 46 consisted of negative items for testing a false-positive statistic. The mean item-means ranged from 3.42 to 5.35 on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) point scale. The 6-item scale is depicted in Table 13.

The four positive items (items 41-44) warranted mean item-means equal to or greater than 4.50, thus suggesting that the teachers believed that that they had the power to make the necessary instructional decisions in the correctional education classroom. For two items, the teachers rated their own level of power to decide the students' learning assignments (item 42) and teaching methods (item 44) for the class, as 5.28 and 5.35 respectively. As one would expect, the two negative items (items 45 and 46) had a mean item-mean score of 2.42 and 2.71

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respectively, which represented the two lowest mean item-means for the power construct. This finding discounts any notion that a false-positive outcome has occurred. Therefore, when the scores for items 45 and 46 are reversed to resemble positive items, then items 45 (M=4.58) and 46 (M=4.29) become complimentary to the positive findings found in items 41-44 of the power construct.

Table 13

Rank Order of the 6-items Scale Measuring Teacher Power (n=427)

Item #	Item	Mean
44	I decide the teaching methods to use in my classroom.	5.35
42	I decide what learning assignments the students will do in my classroom.	5.28
43	I decide which subject matter to cover in my classroom.	4.91
41	I feel I can do what I want to do in my classroom.	4.50
46	Sometimes I feel that I do not have the opportunity to be creative in my classroom. (Reverse Item)	2.71
45	Sometimes I feel like other people are really making the important decisions in my classroom. (Reverse Item)	2.42

A mean-item-mean was calculated for each of the six dimensions of influence on teachers' decision-making in the correctional education classroom. The mean-item-mean scores for the six dimensions of influence are shown in Table 14. This was accomplished by calculating the mean for each of the item-means within each construct. The results of the mean-item-mean, on a scale of one (strongly disagree) to six (strongly agree), suggests that the security/safety dimension demonstrated the strongest influence on the teachers' instructional

decision-making, with a mean-item-mean of 4.59. The results suggests that the classroom

characteristics dimension and the other correctional educators dimension also had a strong

influence upon the teachers' instructional decision-making, thus demonstrating mean-item-mean

values of 4.48 and 4.36 respectively. The results suggest that the inmate dimension and the

prison administrator dimension had a slight influence on the teachers' decision-making in the

correctional education classroom, thus demonstrating mean-item-mean values of 3.94 and 3.71

respectively. The lowest mean-item-mean of 2.87 is found in the correctional officer dimension

of influence. The correctional officer influence is the only dimension that fell below the

theoretical mean of 3.50, thus suggesting that this construct had little influence upon the

teachers' decision-making in the correctional education classroom.

Table 14

Mean-Item-Mean for the Six Dimensions of Influence (n=427)

Rank	Dimension of Influence	Mean-Item-Mean
1	Security/Safety	4.59
2	Classroom Characteristics	4.48
3	Other Correctional Educators	4.36
4	Inmates	3.94
5	Prison Administrators	3.71
6	Correctional Officers	2.87

Findings for Research Question #2

The second research question asked, "To what extent are the six dimensions of influence

predicted by the teachers' personal and professional characteristics?" A correlation of the six

dimensions of influence and the teachers' personal and professional characteristics was conducted in order to further explain the dependent variables. In order to measure the predicted value the independent variables had on the six dimensions of influence and teacher power, the researcher conducted the following bivariate analyses: Pearson correlation, independent t-test, and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The researcher will discuss the results of the bivariate analyses for each of the six dimensions of influence and teacher power independently.

Independent Variable Predictors of Prison Administrator Influence

The results suggest that the prison administrator influence was significantly predicted by two independent variables: years of teaching experience and teachers' race. First, the results suggest that the teachers who had less years of experience teaching inmates in prison were more likely to rate higher the prison administrators' influence on instructional decision-making than the teachers with more years of experience teaching inmates ($r = -.10$, $p < .05$, $r^2 = .01$). Second, the results suggest that teachers of color were more likely to rate higher the prison administrators' influence on instructional decision-making than the White teachers ($F (4, 426) = 2.45$, $p < .05$).

Independent Variable Predictors of Correctional Officer Influence

The results suggest that the correctional officer influence was significantly predicted by three independent variables: teachers' age, special education programs, and type of prison facility. First, the results suggest that the older teachers were more likely to rate higher the correctional officers' influence on instructional decision-making than the teachers who were younger ($r = .10$, $p < .05$, $r^2 = .01$). Second, the results suggest that the teachers who taught inmates in special education classes were more likely to rate higher the correctional officers' influence on instructional decision-making than the teachers who did not teach in the special

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education program (t (425) = -2.07, p < .05). Third, the results suggest that the teachers who taught in state, county, and city prison facilities were more likely to rate higher the correctional officers' influence on instructional decision-making than the teachers who taught in federal and for-profit prison facilities (F (3, 426) = 2.72, p < .05).

Independent Variable Predictor of Other Correctional Educator Influence

The results suggest that the other correctional educator influence was significantly predicted by only one independent variable: teachers' gender. The results suggest that the female teachers were more likely to rate higher the other correctional educators' influence on instructional decision-making than the male teachers (t (425) = -2.97, p < .01).

Independent Variable Predictors of Inmate Influence

The results suggest that the inmate influence was significantly predicted by two independent variables: teachers' gender and U.S. region. First, the results suggest that the female teachers were more likely to rate higher the inmates' influence on instructional decision-making than the male teachers (t (425) = -3.09, p < .01). Second, the results suggest that the teachers who taught in prisons located in the South and West regions of the U.S. were more likely to rate higher the inmates' influence on instructional decisions than the teachers who taught in prisons located in the Midwest and Northeast regions of the U.S. (F (3, 426) = 2.83, p < .05).

Independent Variable Predictors of Classroom Characteristics Influence

The results suggest that the classroom characteristics influence was significantly predicted by two independent variables: teachers' gender and type of prison facility. First, the results suggest that the female teachers were more likely to rate higher the classroom characteristics influence on instructional decision-making than the male teachers (t (394) = -2.67, p < .01). Equal variances were not assumed for this statistic, which explains the lower value for

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the degrees of freedom. Second, the results suggest that the teachers who taught in state, county, and city prison facilities were more likely to rate higher the classroom characteristics influence than the teachers who taught in federal and for-profit prisons ($F (3, 426) = 4.54$, $p < .01$).

Independent Variable Predictors of Security/Safety Influence

The results suggest that the security/safety influence was significantly predicted by five independent variables: teachers' gender, teachers' highest degree completed, vocational programs, college programs, and level of prison security. First, the results suggest that the female teachers were more likely to rate higher the security/safety influence on instructional decision-making than the male teachers ($t (425) = 2.95$, $p < .01$). Second, the results suggest that the teachers who had less formal education attainment were more likely to rate higher the security/safety influence on instructional decision-making than the teachers who had attained a greater level of formal educational ($F (5, 426) = 2.23$, $p < .05$). Third, the results suggest that the teachers who taught in the vocational programs were more likely to rate higher the security/safety influence on instructional decision-making than the teachers who did not teach vocational classes ($t (425) = -2.23$, $p < .05$). In contrast, the results suggest that the teachers who taught in the college programs were more likely to rate lower the security/safety influence on instructional decision-making than the teachers who did not teach college courses ($t (425) = 3.15$, $p < .01$). Finally, the results suggest that the teachers who taught in prisons with higher levels of security were more likely to rate higher the security/safety influence on instructional decision-making than the teachers who taught in prisons with lower levels of security ($F (5, 426) = 2.71$, $p < .05$).

Independent Variable Predictors of Teachers' Power

The results suggest that the teachers' power to make instructional decisions in the classroom was significantly predicted by three independent variables: years of teaching experience, pre-release programs, and inmate age. First, the results suggest that the teachers who had more years of experience teaching inmates in prison were more likely to rate higher their level of power to make instructional decisions than the teachers who had less years of experience teaching inmates ($r = .10$, $p < .05$, $r^2 = .01$). Second, the results suggest that the teachers who taught inmates in the prison pre-release programs were more likely to rate higher their level of power to make instructional decisions than the teachers who did not teach in the pre-release programs ($t (425) = 3.18$, $p < .01$). Third, the results suggest that the teachers who taught in the juvenile prison facilities were more likely to rate higher their level of power to make instructional decisions than the teachers who taught in the adult prison facilities ($F (2, 426) = 3.23$, $p < .05$).

Findings for Research Question #3

The third research question asked, "To what extent do the six dimensions of influence predict the teachers' power to make instructional decisions?" A simple regression analysis was used to test the relationship between the six dimensions of influence and the teachers' power to make instructional decisions. The simple regression analysis data is depicted in Table 15. The results suggest that the correctional officer dimension of influence served as a statistically significant ($p < .01$) negative predictor of the teachers' power to make instructional decisions. In addition, the results suggest that the other correctional educator dimension of influence served a statistically significant ($p < .05$) positive predictor of the teachers' power to make instructional decisions. The four remaining dimensions of influence were found to not be a statistically

significant predictor on the teachers' level of power. Previously mentioned results (see again

Table 14) suggest that the teachers rated the greatest dimension of influence as security/safety

concerns. However, the regression analyses suggest the security/safety dimension of influence

as being the lowest predictor on the teachers' power to make instructional decisions.

Table 15

Results of Simple Regression Analysis: Six Dimensions of Influence on Teachers' Power (n=427)

Dimensions	Statistics for teachers' power regressed on each dimension		
	beta	$p <$	r-square
1. Prison Administrators	-.07	.29	.005
2. Correctional Officers	-.22	.01	.048
3. Other Correctional Educators	.11	.04	.012
4. Inmates	.03	.68	.001
5. Classroom Characteristics	.07	.23	.005
6. Security/Safety	-.02	.79	.000

Findings Related to Research Question #4

The fourth research question asked, "What are the major types of teachers with respect to

the six dimensions of influence?" Cluster analysis was utilized to develop a typology of

correctional education teachers with respect to the six dimensions of influence on instructional

decisions in the classroom. The 6-dimension solution that was used to address research question

#1 was employed to organize the 427 observed cases into a meaningful number of clusters using

K-means clustering. The K-means cluster is a disjoint cluster analysis in which each observed

case of the sample is assigned to one cluster group. Solutions of three through six clusters were

calculated and examined for the output that offered the most conceptual clarity. The five-cluster

analysis offered the greatest conceptual meaningfulness by observing an acceptable number of

types of teachers that capture a variety of influential dimensions on classroom decision-making.

Therefore, the five-cluster K-means analysis was selected as the preferred cluster method.

The mean-item-mean scores for the six dimensions of influence were converted to Z

scores so that the six dimension areas could be compared equally regardless of the number of

items assigned to each dimension area. In order to facilitate the interpretation of the findings,

labels were assigned to scores as certain designated levels. The labels were assigned as: very

low influence (<-1.0), low influence ($-.50$ to $-.99$), average influence ($-.499$ to $+.499$), high

influence ($+.50$ to $+.99$), and very high influence ($> +1.0$). The five clusters are presented in

Table 16. Table 16 presents five distinct types of teachers regardless of the order in which the

cluster analysis identified them. The types of teachers are presented according to the number of

represented within each of the clusters, from the highest to the lowest as indicated by the sample

size of each cluster.

Type I: Teachers Characterized by High Administrative Influence

Type I, Cluster 3, included 124 (29%) of the 427 observed cases. Type I, Cluster 3,

represents correctional education teachers whose instructional decisions are highly influenced by

the prison administrators. The remaining dimensions, as reported by the respondents, are

average influence indicators: correctional officers, other correctional educators, inmates,

classroom, and security/safety. The prison administrator influence has an overall 3.71 mean

value for all types of teachers observed in this study. The Type I teachers have a higher than

average prison administrator influence with an overall cluster mean value of 4.01.

Type II: Teachers Characterized by High Classroom Influence and
Low Administrative and Correctional Officer Influence

Type II, Cluster 2, included 101 (24%) of the 427 observed cases. The Type II cluster

represents correctional education teachers whose instructional decisions show a high influence

indicator for the classroom characteristics and low influence indicators for the prison

administrators and the correctional officers. The Type II teachers have average influence

indicators for the remaining dimensions: other correctional educators, inmates, and

security/safety. The classroom influence has an overall 4.48 mean value for all types of teachers

observed in this study. Although the Type II teachers demonstrated as having a high indicator

for the classroom influence, this cluster had an overall mean value of 4.11, which is below the

sample mean for the classroom influence dimension. The Type II teachers have a low influence

indicator for the prison administrators with an overall mean value of 2.85. The Type II teachers'

overall mean value regarding the prison administrators' influence toward the teachers'

instructional decision-making was well below the mean value of 3.71 for the total sample. The

Type II teachers have a low influence indicator for the correctional officers, with an overall mean

value of 2.94. However, the correctional officers' influence on the Type II teachers'

instructional decisions is slightly higher than the 2.87 mean value for the total sample.

Type III: Teachers Characterized by High Overall Influence

Type III, Cluster 5, included 85 (20%) of the 427 observed cases. The Type III teachers

have very high influence indicators regarding correctional officers and high influence indicators

for the remaining dimensions: prison administrators, other correctional educators, inmates,

classroom, and security/safety. The correctional officer influence for the Type III teachers has

an overall mean value of 4.77, in contrast to the overall mean value of 2.87 for the total sample.

Type III teachers have an overall high influence from each of the six dimensions, with an overall

cluster mean value of 4.43.

Type IV: Teachers Characterized by Low Correctional Officer,

Inmate and Classroom Influences

Type IV, Cluster 1, included 76 (18%) of the 427 observed cases. The Type IV cluster represents correctional education teachers whose instructional decisions show low influence indicators for correctional officers, inmates, and classroom dimensions. Type IV teachers have average influence indicators for the three remaining dimensions: prison administrators, other correctional educators, and safety/security. Type IV teachers' low influence indicators for correctional officers, inmates, and classroom characteristics have overall mean values of 3.00, 2.51, and 2.87 respectively. The overall mean value of the correctional officer influence indicator for the Type IV teachers is slightly above the overall mean value of 2.87 for the total sample. The Type IV teachers' overall mean values for the inmate and classroom influence indicators is well below the total samples' overall mean values of 3.94 and 4.48, for the inmate and classroom influence indicators respectively.

Type V: Teachers Characterized by Very Low Overall Influence

Type V, Cluster 4, included 41 (10%) of the 427 observed cases. The Type V cluster represents correctional education teachers whose instructional decisions demonstrate very low influence indicators for each of the six dimensions: prison administrators, correctional officers, other correctional educators, inmates, classroom, and security/safety. Type V teachers demonstrated an overall cluster mean value of 1.43.

Relationship between Independent Variables and Cluster Membership

The researcher examined the relationship between the teachers' personal and professional characteristics and the cluster membership. Type I teachers consisted of the greatest percentage of minority teachers (32.0%) in the study. Sixteen of the 50 minority teachers in this study were

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classified as Type I. In addition, Type I teacher had the greatest percentage of teachers (34.1%) who taught both adult and juvenile inmates. Among the 126 teachers who taught both adult and juvenile inmates, 43 teachers were classified as Type I. Type I teachers primarily taught in medium to high level security prisons, with 54.8% teaching in Levels III and IV facilities and 28.2% teaching in Levels V and VI facilities. Type I teachers had the second lowest power index rating with a mean score of 4.69.

Type II teachers had the third greatest percentage of minority teachers (24.0%) in the study. Twelve of the 50 minority teachers in this study were classified as Type II. Type II teachers primarily taught in low to medium level security prisons, with 26.7% teaching in Levels I and II facilities and 52.5% teaching in Levels III and IV facilities. Type II teachers had the highest power index rating with a mean score of 5.01.

Type III teachers had the second greatest percentage of minority teachers (26.0%) in the study. Thirteen of the 50 minority teachers in this study were classified as Type III. Type III teachers primarily taught in medium to high level security prisons, with 55.3% teaching in Levels III and IV facilities and 31.8% teaching in Levels V and VI facilities. Type III teachers had the lowest power index rating with a mean score of 4.63.

Type IV teachers primarily taught in medium level security prisons, with 68.4% teaching in Levels III and IV facilities. Type IV teachers had third highest power index rating with a mean score of 4.90.

Type V teachers taught primarily in taught in low to medium level security prisons, with 29.3% teaching in Levels I and II facilities and 52.7% teaching in Levels III and IV facilities. Type V teachers had the second highest power index rating with a mean score of 4.92.

In summarizing the overall relationship between the independent variables and the cluster membership, the researcher found three interesting results. First, the results suggest that 82% of the minority teachers are classified as either Type I, Type II, or Type III, with 50% representing African-American teachers. In contrast, the White teachers were more evenly distributed among the five cluster types. Because there was a great disparity in the sample sizes between the White teachers and minority teachers, a Pearson Chi-square statistic did not show teacher race to be a significant predictor of the cluster membership. Second, the results suggest that the level of prison security was a statistically significant predictor of the cluster membership (X^2 (20, N = 427) = 33.12, p < .05). Third, the results suggest that the teachers' power to make instructional decisions was a statistically significant predictor of the cluster membership (F (4, 426) = 2.68, p < .05).

Table 16

Results of the Five-Cluster Analysis

Type	Cluster	N	%	Dimension 1 Influence of Prison Administrators	Dimension 2 Influence of Correctional Officers	Dimension 3 Influence of Other Correctional Educators	Dimension 4 Influence of Inmates	Dimension 5 Influence of Classroom	Dimension 6 Influence of Security/Safety
I	3	124	29%	0.51 High	0.26 Average	0.21 Average	0.24 Average	-0.15 Average	0.18 Average
II	2	101	24%	-0.65 Low	-0.56 Low	-0.40 Average	0.23 Average	0.61 High	0.04 Average
III	5	85	20%	0.97 High	1.27 Very High	0.69 High	0.91 High	0.87 High	0.85 High
IV	1	76	18%	-0.38 Average	-0.50 Low	0.21 Average	-0.99 Low	-0.63 Low	-0.36 Average
V	4	41	10%	-1.24 Very Low	-1.10 Very Low	-1.45 Very Low	-1.36 Very Low	-1.68 Very Low	-1.75 Very Low
	Mean Clusters			3.71	2.87	4.36	3.94	4.48	4.59

Note: Constructs are presented as Z scores. To allow for a comparison of clusters, the mean clusters are presented.

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CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the questionnaire findings, consider the implications for practice and research, and suggest areas for further investigation. The purpose of this study was to better understand the dimensions of influence that affect instructional decisions made by correctional educators. This study measures two broad dimensions of influence: interpersonal dimensions of influence (prison administrators, correctional officers, other correctional educators, and inmates) and contextual dimensions of influence (classroom and security/safety). Four research questions drive this study:

1. What is the relative importance of the six dimensions of influence for correctional education classrooms?

2. To what extent are the six dimensions of influence predicted by the teachers' personal and professional characteristics?

3. To what extent do the six dimensions of influence predict the teachers' power to make instructional decisions?

4. What are the major types of teachers with respect to the six dimensions of influence?

Summary of the Study

This study gathered data from a systematic sample of correctional education teachers who hold membership in the Correctional Education Association. First, this study sought to determine if the six dimensions of influence had an affect on the teachers' instructional decisions in the correctional education classroom. Second, this sought study to measure the predicted

value of numerous independent variables in relation to the six dimensions of influence and the teachers' power to make instructional decisions. Third, this study attempted to measure if the six dimensions of influence had any barring upon the power the teachers perceived they had to make instructional decisions. Fourth, this study sought to develop some form of typology of teachers with respect to the six dimensions of influence.

A research tool in the form of a questionnaire instrument was developed to address the four research questions of this study. The survey was developed to measure the correctional teachers' perceptions of various influences on their instructional decision-making. The theoretical framework for the study sought to expand upon the current research pertaining to the factors that influenced the teachers' instructional decision-making in the classroom (Brandon, Wang, & Heck, 1994; Chapel, 1990; Clear, 1968; Owens, 1981; Smylie, 1992). The researcher attempted to draw upon the studies from the K-12 environment, because an extensive review of the literature found no research pertaining to the influences on teacher decision-making within the correctional education or higher education environment. The foundation of this study was rooted in the concept that many groups of interests and contextual dimensions have a strong influence upon the daily educational decisions made by adult educators (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, 1994b, 2001; Kotler & Fox, 1985, 1995). The research pertaining to the influence of personal interests helped the researcher to develop the items that sought to measure the six dimensions of influence for this study. In addition, this study was influenced by the work of Forester (1989, 1999) in developing the questionnaire items that sought to measure the power teachers believed that they had to make instructional decisions.

The review of the research literature for this study consisted of searching the following nine areas: (1) history of correctional education; (2) inmate characteristics; (3) purpose of

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correctional education; (4) correctional education programs and evaluation; (5) adult education and its impact upon correctional education; (6) educational program planning theory; (7) empirical studies on power and politics in educational program planning; (8) power and politics in the context of correctional education; and (9) teachers' decisions regarding classroom instruction. The development of the questionnaire instrument went through numerous revisions through a series of review sessions with adult educators, correctional educators, and the dissertation chairperson. The questionnaire was pilot tested with 150 correctional education teachers who hold membership in the correctional education association. The pilot study received a 42.6% rate of response (n = 64). The pilot study was successful in assisting the research to determine the potential rate of response, measure the internal consistency between the items, and measure the rate of reliability.

The final questionnaire was mailed, through two mailings, to 616 correctional education teachers who held membership in the correctional education association. The random sample consisted of 427 completed questionnaires, which involved a 69.3% rate of response. One of the most phenomenal aspects regarding the data collection process was that among all of the completed questionnaires, there was no missing data.

Using a series of rankings of all the dimension of influence items and the testing of the inter-correlation among the six dimensions of influence, the relative importance of the six dimensions of influence on the teachers' instructional decision-making was determined. Through a series of bivariate analyses, the researcher was able to identify the significant independent variables predictors for the six dimensions of influence and the teacher power index. The researcher used a simple regression analysis to measure the predicted value the six dimensions of influence had on the teachers' power to make instructional decisions in the

correctional education classroom. A cluster analysis was conducted to group the teachers into five-cluster groups in relation to the six dimensions of influence. A series of bivariate analyses were conducted to identify the five-cluster groups with respect to the teachers personal and professional characteristics.

Discussion of the Significant Findings

This study has addressed the four stated research questions. The researcher will discuss the significant findings for the four research questions independently.

Findings Related to Research Question #1

The results for research question # 1 found that five of the six dimensions of influence had mean-item-mean scores above the theoretical mean of 3.50. The correctional officer dimension of influence was the only area of influence that fell below the theoretical mean. Among the five positive dimensions of influence, three had mean-item-mean scores greater than 4.00. The six dimensions of influence consisted of the following rank order:

1. Security/Safety Influence

2. Classroom Influence

3. Other Correctional Educator Influence

4. Inmates Influence

5. Prison Administrators Influence

6. Correctional Officer Influence

The results found that the security/safety dimension of influence received the highest rating from the teachers' among the six dimensions of influence. The mean scores for each of the six items measuring the influence of security/safety concerns on instructional decision-making demonstrated extremely high values. The researcher believes that this finding is in part

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due to the social context in which the teachers are working. Because the teachers are teaching in a learning environment that is predicated by the need for the total security and safety of all persons within the prison walls, then it seems obvious that the teachers' instructional decisions would be greatly influenced by security and safety concerns. The number one requirement of any activity in prison is that it must insure the security and safety of all inmates and prison personnel in the correctional facility (Werner, 1990).

The results found that the classroom characteristics dimension of influence received the second highest rating among the six dimensions of influence. Like most adult learning environments, the instructional decisions of the correctional education teachers were influenced by the classical model characteristics, which often pertain to the instructional materials, the level of technology, the number of adult learners, the room size, and the classroom layout. These findings suggests that the correctional teachers are highly influenced by what Apps (1991) would describe as the *learning situation*. The learning situation pertains to the location of the learning session, size of the group (number of adult learners), the time-of-day, the length of the learning session which have a distinct influence upon the selection of learning tools (instructional materials and technology) for the class.

The results found that the other correctional educator dimension of influence received the third highest rating among the six dimensions of influence. Therefore, suggesting that the teachers had a strong tendency to consult with their teacher colleagues on an individual basis when making instructional decisions. The teachers rated group discussions with other correctional educators as having a slight influence on instructional decision-making. Werner (1990) suggests that it is very important for correctional education teachers to develop a support group with their fellow colleagues in order to become teachers that are more effective in the

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classroom. Werner also suggests that teachers who network with one another will quickly

develop a significant degree of influence within the educational program in prison.

The results found the inmate dimension of influence to receive the fourth highest rating

among the six dimensions of influence. The rank order of the 10-item scale suggested that the

teachers' instructional decision-making fell into three distinct groups. The first group of inmate

items suggested that the teachers' instructional decisions were strongly influenced by the

inmates' learning needs, learning disabilities, purpose for attending class, number of contact

hours in class, and life experiences. The influence the inmates had over the teachers was not an

issue of power and control, but rather the teachers had a strong need to develop a plan of

instruction that met the inmates' individual learning needs (Apps, 1991; Dewey, 1938; Jarvis,

1987; Knowles, 1970, 1980; McKee, 1970; McKee & Clements, 2000, McKee & Seay, 1968;

Tyler, 1949).

The second group of inmate items suggests that the teachers' instructional decisions were

slightly influenced by the inmates' opinion of the class and the inmates' race and ethnicity. The

researcher believes that the aspect of the inmates' race and ethnicity was an important factor for

the teachers because of the distinct cultural differences between the teachers and the inmates.

For example, according to the U.S. Department of Justice (2005) the overwhelming majority of

inmates in prison are persons of color. In contrast, the sample for this study consist of more than

88% White teachers. Therefore, the cultural difference between the two groups of people likely

had an impact upon how the teachers conceptualized the inmates in the class, particularly the

inmates of color, and their perception of the inmates' adult learning needs (Johnson-Bailey,

2001; West, 1993). If the teachers viewed the inmates differently do to their race, then this likely

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had an impact upon the type of learning activities and educational materials the teachers chose to use in the classroom.

The third group of inmate items suggests that the teachers' instructional decisions were not influenced by the inmates' gender, religious affiliation, and previous criminal history. First, one of the reasons for the lack of influence by the inmates' gender could be due to the overwhelming number of prisons in the U.S. that are single-gender inmate facilities. Therefore, the teachers typically taught only one gender group of inmates, unless they taught at multiple prison facilities. Second, the researcher did not expect to find the inmates religious affiliation as having much impact upon the teachers' instructional decision-making process. However, the researcher thought it was important to include this item because the inmates' participation in some form of religious programming in prison is increasing. Many prisons today are seeing an increase in the inmates' participation in both the Christian and Muslim faiths. The researcher was primarily interested to see if this variable had any bearing upon how the teachers taught their classes. Third, the researcher found it interesting that the teachers did not rate the inmates' previous criminal history the same as they rated the inmates' life experiences. It is interesting that the teachers were able to distinguish between the social context of the inmates' community prior to incarceration and the inmates' criminal behavior when making instructional decisions. The teachers likely saw their role as adult educators as setting out to create a transformational change in the lives of the inmates through education, therefore, inmates as victims of their previous community and not as criminals.

The results found that the prison administrator dimension of influence had the fifth highest rating among the six dimensions of influence. The findings suggest there was a complete split between the three items that represented the prison educational administrators and the three

items that represented the prison warden. The teachers rated the influence of the educational administrators much greater than the influence of the prison warden. The correctional teachers' high rating of the educational administrator influence was opposite of what Clear (1968) found regarding the relationship between teacher decision-making and the school principal within a K-12 school environment. Likewise, Cervero and Wilson (1994a) and Forester (1989) suggest all planning and educational decisions occur in light of the current power structure of the social context. Bee (1996) suggests that the lives of adults differ in society due to one's social status, social class, and/or professional status. In hindsight, this study may have been better served if the prison administrator dimension of influence was split into two separate dimensions of influence: wardens and educational administrators. Therefore, the interpersonal dimensions of influence would have consisted of five dimensions of influence.

Finally, the results of this study found that the correctional officer dimension of influence had the lowest rating among the six dimensions of influence and the mean-item-mean score fell below the theoretical mean of 3.50. The findings suggests that the teachers' instructional decisions were only influence by the correctional officers' attitudes toward security and the correctional officers' ability to control the physical movements of the inmates. The teachers were cognizant of the security and safety concerns of the correctional officers and they understood the power the correctional officers had in determining which inmates were allowed to attend class on a particular day. However, the remaining four items measuring the correctional officer influence received a low rating by the teachers. Werner (1990) can best explain the findings concerning the influence of the correctional officers. Werner suggests that the primary function of the correctional officer is to insure a safe environment for the inmates, administrators, teachers, medical/health workers, correctional officers, and so on. Therefore, the

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correctional officers can dictate who attends class and when class will commence, but they do

not serve a role in the instructional development process unless it pertains to security and safety.

Findings Related to Research Question #2

The results of this study identified fifteen statistically significant independent variable

predictors among the six dimensions of influence. Although, each of the predictors are important

with respect to understanding what affects the correctional education teachers' instructional

decision-making, the researcher believes that many of the significant predictors can be

categorized into a single predictor group.

The study found that the teachers' gender was a statistically significant predictor of four

dimensions of influence. The results suggest that the four dimensions of influence, which

include the security/safety concerns, classroom characteristics, other correctional educators, and

inmates, affected the instructional decision-making for the female teachers. The findings

concerning the classroom characteristic influences and the inmate influences might be explained

by the female teachers' perception of having the freedom to make the necessary instructional

decisions (Hicks, 1990) that pertain to the routine task-oriented steps found in the classical

model for educational program planning (Caffarella, 1988, 1994; Murk & Walls, 1998; Sork,

2000; Sork & Welock, 1992; Tyler, 1949).

In a study on teacher decision-making in the secondary education classroom, Hicks

(1990) found that female teachers perceived themselves as having more freedom in making

instructional decisions regarding the classroom objectives, interactions, methods, materials, and

the total score than their male colleagues. If this were the case for the current study of

correctional education teachers, then it would help explain the female teachers rated the

classroom characteristics and inmates as strong influences on their instructional decision-

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making. For the female correctional education teachers in this study, the classroom characteristics and the inmates may have been two areas in which the teachers felt they had some power in deciding what the plan of study would be in terms of the necessary educational materials for the class and the specific teaching methods.

The current study also found that the female teachers were more likely to have their instructional decision-making influenced by security/safety concerns than were the male teachers. This, in part, could be due to the physical nature of the adult learning environment. Because the female teachers were teaching in a prison facility, the social context of the education program in itself causes the teachers to focus upon security/safety issues when making instructional decisions. In addition, many of the female teachers were teaching in male inmate prison facilities, which increase the need for them to focus upon security/safety concerns out of respect for their own physical well-being.

The study found that the female teachers were more likely to consult with other correctional educators when making instructional decisions than were the male teachers. Smylie (1992) found that K-8 teachers were more likely to network with their teacher colleagues at the school if they had a good working relationship with the school administrator (e.g., principal) and the other teachers. As mentioned earlier, this would have been one of the benefits of being able to have prison educational administrator items stand alone as its own dimension of influence. The educational administrator dimension of influence would have provided the researcher with a more reliable construct in measuring the relationship between the educational administrators and the female correctional teachers.

Findings Related to Research Question #3

The results from a simple regression analysis (see again Table 15) found that the correctional officers served as a negative predictor of the teachers' power to make instructional decisions in the classroom, which is similar to the claims made by Werner (1990) concerning the relationship between the teachers and the correctional officers. In addition, the results suggest that the other correctional educators served as a positive predictor toward the teachers' power to make instructional decisions in the classroom. The teachers' need to network with their teacher colleagues in making instructional decisions coincides with the findings of Clear (1968) and Smylie (1992) in the K-12 school environment. Finally, the results from the simple regression analysis found that the security/safety dimension was the lowest predicted value among the six dimensions of influence with regard to the teachers' power to make instructional decisions in the classroom. Although, this statistic was not statistically significant as a negative predictor, it is important to note that the security/safety dimension of influence had no predicted value toward the teachers' power to make instructional decisions in the classroom. However, as illustrated in Table 14, the results found that the teachers rated the security/safety concerns as having the greatest influence upon their instructional decision-making process. The researcher believes that in the correctional education environment the security/safety dimension of influence likely serves as a strong hindrance to the teachers' power to make instructional decisions in the classroom.

Findings Related to Research Question #4

The researcher used a disjoint cluster analysis, thus using a K-means clustering method to organize the 427 cases into a meaningful number of clusters with respect to the six-dimension solution. Five types of teachers were identified as: (a) teachers characterized by high

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administrative influence, (b) teachers characterized by high classroom influence and low administrative and correctional officer influence, (c) teachers characterized by high overall influence, (d) teachers characterized by low correctional officer, inmate, and classroom influence, and (e) teachers characterized by very low overall influence.

Type I: Teachers Characterized by High Administrative influence

Type I teachers were rated as overall average influence with a high influence rating for the prison administrators. The teachers in this group likely hold a strong regard for the educational goals and policies set forth by the educational administrators for the prison's educational programs for inmates. The secondary analyses conducted for this study suggest that the Type I teachers taught in medium to high level security prisons and had the second lowest power index rating among the five cluster groups. Because this group of teachers were working in prison facilities that were predicated by strong security and safety, this could suggest that the Type I teachers instructional decisions were likely influenced by the prisons' security and safety policies set forth by the prison administrators. In addition to security and safety, the nature of medium to high level security prisons often require stricter guidelines for all programs at the prison facility. Finally, because of the Type I teachers' lower power index rating, this might suggest that the Type I teachers did not feel that they had the power to supersede the authority of the prison administrators.

Type II: Teachers Characterized by High Classroom Influence and Low Administrative and Correctional Officer Influence

Type II teachers were rated as overall average in influence with a high influence rating for the classroom characteristics and a low influence rating for the prison administrators and correctional officers. Type II teachers are influenced by the physical nature of the classroom

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facilities which involve numerous elements, such as: the number of students, the size of the classroom, the type of educational materials available, the type of technology available and so on (Caffarella, 1994). In essence, Type II teachers' instructional decisions are controlled by the internal influences that are competing for the limited resources (Dean, Murk, & Del Prete, 2000). In contrast, Type II teachers' instructional decisions are less likely to be influenced by those persons who hold some degree of authority over the daily administration of the prison's educational program. The secondary analysis suggests that Type II teachers are more likely to teach in low to medium prison facilities and they had the second highest power index rating among the five cluster groups. This finding would help explain why the Type II teachers placed more of an emphasis on the classroom influence and less on the role of the prison administrator.

Type III: Teachers Characterized by High Overall Influence

Type III teachers were rated as overall high influence with a very high influence rating for the correctional officers. Type III teachers are likely characterized as conscientious individuals who attempt to consider all facets of the educational program before making instructional decisions in the classroom. The secondary analysis suggests the Type III teachers were teaching in medium to high-level security prison facilities and they had the lowest power index rating among the five cluster groups. The relationship between the two independent variables suggest that the Type III teachers are working in highly structured prisons predicated by many rules and regulations that reduces the power the teachers have to make adjustments to the educational program or to supersede the authority of the prison administrators.

Type IV: Teachers Characterized by Low Correctional Officer, Inmate, and Classroom Influence

Type IV teachers were rated as overall average in influence with a low influence rating for correctional officers, inmates, and classroom. Because the secondary analyses found that the

Type IV teachers had the third highest power index rating among the five cluster groups, this explains why they were least likely to consider the authority and adhere to the recommendations from the correctional officers when making instructional decisions in the classroom. Second, this also explains why the Type IV teachers were least likely to consider the learning needs and personal characteristics of the inmates and the many classroom characteristics when making instructional decisions in the classroom. Type IV teachers were more likely to work with whatever the circumstances happen to be in the classroom.

Type V: Teachers Characterized by Very Low Overall Influence

Type V teachers were rated as overall very low influence among the six dimensions when making instructional decisions in the classroom. The secondary analyses suggest that the Type V teachers had the second highest power index rating among the five cluster groups and that they primarily taught in low to medium-level security prisons. The findings from the secondary analysis could explain the very low overall influence among the six dimensions of influence. However, the Type V teachers could be characterized as having a low motivation for teaching and/or are teaching inmates in prison just for the sake of having a job. However, Type V teachers likely represent those individuals who are nearing retirement and/or individuals who are suffering from job burnout.

<div align="center">Implications for Practice</div>

This study provides practical contributions to the fields of adult education and correctional education. The researcher believes that this study will assist three groups of adult educators with regard to their practice techniques. The three groups of adult educators include correctional teachers, training and development specialists, and policy makers.

The traditional practice of adult education and correctional education greatly focuses upon identifying the needs and developing the necessary educational programs for the benefit of the adult learner (Tyler, 1994). In correctional education, especially, very little attention is devoted to the teacher. The findings of this study will help teachers to understand to what degree the six dimensions of influence affect their instructional decision-making. If the teachers are more cognizant that the security/safety dimension of influence and the classroom characteristics dimension of influence had the greatest impact on the correctional educators' instructional decisions, then the teachers are going to be more conscious of these factors when developing a plan of study for the inmates.

Because this study found that the other correctional educators served as a positive predictor for teacher power, this finding will help teachers to understand better the benefits that might occur when teachers choose to network with one another concerning instructional decision-making. Forester (1989) suggests that this form of "collaboration promises collective criticism and inquiry" (p. 192), which can help teachers to better identify the problem areas and the possible courses of action. According to Knox (2002), "Collaborative inquiry integrates the participation and knowledge of both practitioners and scholars to construct informal knowledge to guide action in participants' everyday lives and experiences." Therefore, correctional education teachers who collaborate with their teacher colleagues are likely to gain more insight regarding the proper course of action. In addition, this can also help teachers to identify someone else within the organization who holds a similar point-of-view. Because there is strength in numbers, the collaborative process can serve as an empowering experience.

The training and development specialists are the second group to benefit from this study. The findings derived from this study will increase the knowledge and practice opportunities for

adult educators who provide training and development to teachers who are employed by the prison system. Because this study found the security/safety dimension of influence to have the greatest impact upon the correctional teachers' instructional decision-making, this information will help training specialists to develop continuing education programs that meet the staff development needs of teachers with regard to safety and security. In addition, the study identified other correctional educators as a positive predictor for teacher power. This finding will help training specialists to understand the need for developing continuing education programs for correctional teachers that focus on team building and the networking with teacher colleagues using role-playing exercises and case studies (Apps, 1991; Dean, Murk, & Del Prete, 2000; Rothwell & Kazanas, 1994). Because this study found that female teachers were more likely to rate higher the security/safety, classroom, inmate, and other correctional educator dimensions of influence than the male teachers, the training specialists may be able to develop professional education programs that help to identify by the instructional differences between the two gender groups. This study also found that correctional officers served as a negative predictor for teacher power. Training and development specialists might find it productive to develop continuing education programs that build the working relationship between teachers and correctional officers. Finally, this study could serve as an aid to pre-service and in-service training for teachers. Although, many of the new correctional educators may have an extensive background in teaching, they have little or no experience teaching within a prison facility. The pre-service training would consist of programs designed to prepare teachers for the types of experiences they will encounter while teaching in a prison facility. This study will provide the new correctional educators with a brief understanding as to how the six dimensions of influence will affect their instructional decision-making in the classroom. In contrast, the in-service

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training for teachers would consist of programs designed to allow teachers to share their ideas with one another. In this particular case, the teachers' knowledge of the six dimensions of influence will serve as a means of improving the delivery of classroom instruction.

The administrators who serve as policy makers are the third group to benefit from this study. The findings derived from this study will help policy makers to understand better the social context of the prison facility and the influences that arise for those who teach the inmate population. Often, policy makers are concerned with evaluating the current organization or social program to see if it is achieving its previously established goals and policies. Therefore, when policy makers become engaged in evaluating the progress and achievements of their correctional education programs, this study will provide the policy makers with a better understanding as to how the six dimensions of influence affect what the teachers do in the classroom. For example, when policy makers become concerned with the impact that certain educational programs for inmates have on the security/safety policies established for prisons, this study will reassure policy makers that the instructional decisions of correctional teachers are continuously influenced by security and safety concerns.

The policy maker will also learn that there are times when the security and safety concerns act as a hindrance to the teachers with regard to their ability to make instructional decisions. In addition, when policy makers are concerned with the academic achievement of the inmates participating in correctional education, this study will provide the policy makers with a better understanding that the majority of correctional teachers are working in a world where there are numerous classroom constraints.

Finally, policy makers will likely learn for the first time the constraining influence correctional officers have upon the power teachers perceive they have to make instructional

decisions in the classroom. Policy makers may find it valuable to study the relationship between correctional officers and the correctional education teachers. This investigation could lead to new correctional policy making which improves the teachers' ability to make instructional decisions in the classroom and still maintains the security and safety concerns by the correctional officers. Ultimately, the researcher is hopeful that this study will stimulate policy makers to become more inclined to develop new policies or modify existing policies that will better serve the correctional education teachers' ability to make effective instructional decisions, meet the adult learning needs of the inmates, and assure the security and safety of all persons within the correctional facility.

<div align="center">Implications for Research</div>

In addition to the practical implications, this study provides theoretical contributions to the fields of adult education and correctional education. Within the field of adult education, the literature has provided empirical and non-empirical support regarding the social dynamics between the interpersonal and contextual dimensions of adult education (Apps, 1991; Caffarella, 1994, 2002; Cervero, 1988, Cervero & Wilson, 1994a; Forester, 1989; Hendricks, 2001; Merriam & Caffarella, 1991, 1999; Sork, 2000; Tyler, 1949; Yang, 1996). According to the literature, one of the primary functions of adult education is to develop educational programs with respect to the adult learning needs. This study found that the inmates (adult learners) had some influence over the teachers' instructional decisions, but it was not one of the highest rated dimensions of influence. Some adult education literature suggests that persons or groups of people in positions of power have a significant say in the direction of continuing education. This study found that the persons with the most power in corrections (prison administrators and correctional officers) had the least influence over the teachers' power to make instructional

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decisions in the classroom. However, the teachers did rate the correctional education administrators as having a strong influence over their decision-making process, which would coincide with adult education theory.

Adult educators often talk about providing a safe learning environment whereby the adult learner can feel comfortable to participate in the adult learning activities. This study found that safety was the highest rated dimension of influence on the teachers' instructional decision-making. However, unlike most adult education programs, the term *safety* within a correctional facility often pertains to the physical security/safety of all persons within the walls of the facility. This study will provide adult educators an avenue from which to theorize why the security/safety dimension of influence had a negative affect upon the teachers' perception as to the level of power they had to make instructional decisions in the correctional education classroom.

In correctional education, the foundation for most empirical and non-empirical research is concerned with the development of the inmate learner and the impact the educational programs have upon his/her rate of recidivism. The researcher found no empirical data that attempted to identify the factors that influenced teacher decisions in the classroom. Because this study identified and rated the six dimension of influence of the teachers' instructional decision-making in correctional education, the correctional educators will be able to formulate new areas in which to conduct their research.

Suggestions for Further Investigations

The researcher is willing to admit that, in some ways, the findings of this study are problematic. For example, the researcher certainly expected to find that the dimensions of influence affected the teachers' sense of power. The findings of this study only found two statistically significant predictors, correctional officers and other correctional educators.

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However, the predicted value for both dimensions of influence was very low. The biggest question the researcher has is "Why did the dimensions of influence not serve as a strong predictor for teacher power?" It is impossible to do more analyses with the current data, which would address this question. However, we can speculate in a way that will help the investigations of future researchers and future investigations by the current researcher.

One possibility is that the measure of power itself is flawed. In constructing the items measuring teacher power, the researcher softened the negative items (Items 45-46) hoping that they would be less difficult to respond to for the teachers participating in the study. This may have resulted in a strategic mistake on the part of the researcher, thus weakening the questionnaire. With hindsight, there was no justification for putting the word "Sometimes" at the beginning of the negative items and not at the beginning of the positive items. For future research investigations, anyone who uses this questionnaire should eliminate the word "Sometimes" from the power construct.

The second biggest challenge is that it seems counter-intuitive that the dimensions of influence do not affect the teachers' sense of power. Certainly, the researcher's expectation was that the dimensions of influence would affect the teachers' level of power. Perhaps, this is because of the nature in which the researcher worded the items within the six dimensions of influence. The researcher kept the items measuring the six dimensions of influence as neutral issues. The questionnaire asked only "did the teacher consider these factors?" In fact, many teachers, even those with the highest sense of power and the most autonomy, might consider all of these things without compromising their sense of power and autonomy. This is to say that the teachers could consider their classroom constraints and plan within it. However, to say that the teachers are in charge of their own instructional decisions is true within the context of numerous

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constraints, which all teachers face. Possibly, if the research questions and questionnaire items were written to measure *constraints* and not influences, this may have had a profound affect on the six dimensions' predicted value on the teachers' sense of power.

The researcher believes that there is a third possibility, which could explain the low predicted value the six dimensions of influence had on the teachers' sense of power. When looking at the how the teachers rated the six dimensions of influence with respect to their instructional decisions, the two highest rated dimensions of influence consisted of contextual dimensions of influence: security/safety and classroom characteristics. In contrast, when looking at the predicted value of the six dimensions of influence for teacher power, the teachers suggest that correctional officers were a negative predictor and other correctional educators (e.g., teachers) were a positive predictor. Although, the combination of these variables explained only 6% of the observed variance in teacher power, the researcher believes that it is important to recognize that the variables represented groups of people within the interpersonal dimensions of influence and not the contextual dimensions of influence. The question then becomes, "Can contextual influences, by themselves, predict teacher power?" For example, "Can the security and safety regulations at the prison facility alone influence the level of power the teachers have in order to make instructional decisions?" On the other hand, "Could it be that those who develop and set the security and safety policies for the prison facility are partly responsible for influencing the level of teacher power and not the security and safety policies themselves?" If the later is the case, then the researcher may not have asked the teachers to measure all of the important people or stakeholders who influenced their power to make instructional decisions. The researcher may have needed to include the external dimensions of influence (see again Figure 2) when measuring the predictors of teacher power.

Despite my previous arguments that the interpersonal dimensions of influence mediate external dimensions of influence, this might not be the case when it comes to a sense of power. The researcher believes that the six dimensions of influence in this study were the correct dimensions for measuring what influenced the teachers' instructional decision-making. In contrast, the researcher believes that it may have been useful to include the external dimensions of influence in measuring the predicted value of teacher power, because both the external dimensions of influence and the interpersonal dimensions of influence have an affect on the contextual dimensions of influence. In addition, the external dimensions of influence have an affect on the daily activities of the people who represent the interpersonal dimensions of influence. Therefore, when attempting to measure the important predictors for teacher power within a prison facility, the researcher recommends focusing primarily upon the external dimensions of influence and the interpersonal dimensions of influence. The researcher holds this belief because both dimensions of influence represent the people who have the power or capacity to act by virtue of their position within the correctional organization chart, their position within outside organizations, or their position within society (Apple, 1990; Cervero & Wilson, 2006; Isaac, 1987). Therefore, correctional education teachers need to negotiate continuously between the many groups of interests identified by the external and interpersonal dimensions of influence. The process of negotiation occurs between the teachers' relationship with multiple groups of people, not with the contextual dimensions of influence. As a result, the researcher suggests that there is a strong need for someone to study the significant predictors for teacher power in correctional education.

The researcher also suggests that there are additional studies needed to extend the current research and to investigate the influence on correctional teacher decision-making from a broader

perspective. First, there is an important limitation in this study in that the rating for the prison administrator dimension of influence was distinctly divided between the warden and the educational administrators. The wardens received an extremely low rating whereas the educational administrators received a much higher rating. The researcher believes that there is a strong need to conduct further research that addresses the influence educational administrators had upon the correctional teachers' instructional decisions.

Second, now that the specific dimensions of influence have been measured, it is recommended that there is a need for someone to investigate the decision-making tactics teachers use in relation to the six dimensions of influence. In developing a scale to measure the teachers' decision-making tactics, the researcher would suggest using the *Power and Influence Tactics Scale* (Yang, 1996) as a guide.

Third, this study found that security/safety to be the highest rated dimension of influence for the correctional education teachers. There is a strong need for someone to conduct an empirical study that looks further into the influence security and safety issues have upon the way teachers develop educational instruction for inmates in prison. In addition, one might want to further study why the security/safety dimension of influence had an affect upon the teachers' perception of their power to make instructional decisions.

Fourth, this study found that female correctional teachers were significantly more concerned with security/safety dimension of influence, classroom dimension of influence, inmate dimension of influence, and other correctional educator dimension of influence when making instructional decisions in the classroom. Therefore, it would be important to further study why these four dimensions of influence are more characteristic to female teachers than to male teachers.

Finally, the researcher previously mentioned the value this study would have upon the practice of training and development specialists. The researcher believes that there is a need for someone to study the quality of teacher training for those individuals who teach in a prison facility. The researcher recommends that someone conduct a follow-up study that compares the findings from the teacher training study with the six dimensions of influence.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The University of Georgia
College of Education
Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, and Policy
Athens, GA 30602-4811

I 7 8 5

TEACHER DECISION-MAKING IN THE
CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION CLASSROOM

INSTRUCTIONS: Please reflect upon your own teaching experiences in a correctional facility. Then decide the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

PART I — WHAT INFLUENCES *YOUR* INSTRUCTIONAL DECISIONS?

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on your decision-making in the correctional education classroom.	Strongly Disagree		⟷		Strongly Agree	
1. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward the correctional educators.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward the educational program for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the attitudes of the educational administrators.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the requirements imposed by the educational administrators.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the academic expectations of the educational administrators.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward the inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward the correctional educators.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. **When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward security.**	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on your decision-making in the correctional education classroom.	Strongly Disagree		↔		Strongly Agree	
10. When making instructional decisions, I seek input from correctional officers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. When making instructional decisions, I consider the control correctional officers have over the physical movements of inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. When making instructional decisions, I consider the power correctional officers have over the classroom environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. When making instructional decisions, I consider the recommendations from other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. When making instructional decisions, I seek input from other correctional educators about classroom problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. When making instructional decisions, I have group discussions with other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. When making instructional decisions, I discuss teaching strategies with other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. When making instructional decisions, I collaborate with other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. When making instructional decisions, I discuss with other correctional educators issues regarding inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. When making instructional decisions, I consider the gender of inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. When making instructional decisions, I consider the race/ethnic diversity among the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. When making instructional decisions, I consider the religious diversity among the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' life experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on your decision-making in the correctional education classroom.	Strongly Disagree		↔		Strongly Agree	
23. When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' opinions about the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' criminal history.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' learning needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' purpose for attending the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. When making instructional decisions, I consider the number of hours per week the inmates attend class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. When making instructional decisions, I consider the learning disabilities of some inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. When making instructional decisions, I consider the number of inmates in the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. When making instructional decisions, I consider the room size.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. When making instructional decisions, I consider the classroom layout.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. When making instructional decisions, I consider the type of furniture in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. When making instructional decisions, I consider the level of technology available for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. When making instructional decisions, I consider the instructional materials available for the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. When making instructional decisions, I consider the level of classroom security.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on your decision-making in the correctional education classroom.	Strongly Disagree		↔		Strongly Agree	
36. When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison's policy toward security.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. When making instructional decisions, I consider my own safety.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. When making instructional decisions, I consider the safety of the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. When making instructional decisions, I consider the current social climate among the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. When making instructional decisions, I consider previous security concerns at the prison.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PART II — HOW POWERFUL ARE *YOU* IN YOUR OWN CLASSROOM?

Please rate how much you agree with each item.	Strongly Disagree		↔		Strongly Agree	
41. I feel I can do what I want to do in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. I decide what learning assignments the students will do in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. I decide which subject matter to cover in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. I decide the teaching methods to use in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. Sometimes I feel like other people are really making the important decisions in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. Sometimes I feel that I do not have the opportunity to be creative in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PART III — BACKGROUND INFORMATION. *This information will be completely confidential.*

47. Which types of correctional education programs have you taught? (Check all that apply)

- **Special Education**
- **English as a Second Language (ESL)**
- **Adult Basic Education (ABE)**
- **College**

- **Vocational**
- **Pre-Release**
- **General Equivalency Diploma (GED)**
- **Other** _____

48. Which types of inmates have you taught?

    A. Gender (Check only one)

        o **Male**   o **Female**   o **Both**

    B. Age (Check only one)

        o **Juvenile**   o **Adult**   o **Both**

49. Which type of correctional facility have you had the most experience? (Check only one)

- **State**
- **County/City**
- **Other** _____

- **Federal**
- **For-Profit**

50. What is the security-level of the correctional facility that you have most experienced? (Check only one)

- **Level-I (Transitional Centers)**
- **Level-III**
- **Level-V**

- **Level-II**
- **Level-IV**
- **Level-VI (Maximum Security)**

51. How many years of experience have you had teaching inmates? _____

52. What is your gender? _____

53. What is your race/ethnicity? _____

54. What year were you born? _____

55. What is your highest educational degree or diploma obtained? _____

APPENDIX B

ITEM POOL AND QUESTIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Item Pool and Questionnaire Development Process

Process	Results	Appendix
Initial Item Pool Development	**402 items**	**C**
Refinement of item pool by Messemer and Valentine	-364 items	
Pre-Pilot Prototype Questionnaire	**38 items**	**D**
Multiple reviews of the pre-pilot prototype questionnaire	+2 items	
Prototype Questionnaire (Prospectus Defense)	**40 items**	**E**
Items added to the questionnaire by Messemer and Valentine	+6 items	
Pilot Questionnaire	**46 items**	**F**
Final Questionnaire	**46 items**	**A**

APPENDIX C

INITIAL ITEM POOL

INITIAL ITEM POOL

Who determines what goes on in a correctional education classroom?

I. INTERNAL DIMENSIONS

A. Prison Administration

2.   My work is hindered by the lack of economic funding for the education program.

7.   The education al program is limited by budgetary constraints.

11.   The prison does not provide the proper equipment need for each classroom.

13.   Educational programs are hindered because of prison security regulations.

30.   The educational personnel know better than the inmate as to their learning needs.

42.   The inmates time to parole will impact which inmates can participate in the educational program.

43.   The inmates   time to parole will impact the effectiveness.

44.   Some inmates are not allowed to participate in the educational program because of the limited amount of time left on their sentence.

48.   The educational director does not provide the proper resources for the educational program.

49.   The resources for the educational programs are lacking.

50.   The prison does not supply the educational support staff with the sufficient amount of resources to manage the educational program.

192.   The textbooks for the inmate participants are not geared toward their learning needs.

59.   The prison does not offer the latest in computer equipment for the inmates to use.

61.   The prison education director does not seek the proper funding for the educational program.

68.   The prison does not offer college programs for the inmates.

75.   I have to be concerned with the politics within the prison site.

83.   The prison does not publicize the success of inmates participating in the education program.

87.   I do not have to consider the social environment within the prison.

91.   I do not worry about the views of prison administration.

101.   I do not worry about the prison warden.

107.   The power structure of corrections does not impact the development of such programs.

161

108.   The power structure within prisons does not impact the educational programs.

132.   I never consider the philosophical beliefs of prison administrators toward the purpose corrections.

135.   I never consider the philosophical beliefs of prison administrators toward the purpose of corrections.

137.   I never consider the political structure within the prison.

143.   I don t have to worry about budgetary constraints.

144.   The educational curriculum is not determined by the correctional education budget.

145.   There is more than enough classroom space for inmates to attend the educational program.

146.   The educational classrooms in our prisons provide a pleasant setting for learning to occur.

148.   The prison has provided a sufficient number of classrooms to meet all inmate learning needs.

149.   The prison classrooms provide inmates with a wide range of equipment to use in the educational program.

154.   Educational programs are developed with security issues in mind.

180.   Inmates are mandated to attend some educational programs in prison prior to release.

186.   I do not have to worry about the proper resources needed for the educational program.

187.   There are a number of significant resources available for the inmate to use in the educational program.

188.   The educational director has provided the teachers with the proper resources needed to provide a successful learning environment to inmates.

194.   The textbooks are chosen by the prison education director.

200.   The computer systems for the correctional education program are very modern

202.   The prison education director does a good job in receiving the proper funding for the education program.

203.   There is plenty of economic resources for the prison education programs.

206.   The GED program for inmates is well supported by the prison.

207.   The prison offers the college program to inmates.

216.   I do not have to worry about the political structure at the prison site.

222.   The prison is eager to publicize the success of its inmate education programs.

239.   I must consider the feelings of the prison education administrators.

241   I must consider the views of the prison warden.

247.   I take into consideration the power structure within the prison.

251.   I take into consideration the power structure within the field of corrections.

253. I take into consideration the power structure of the correctional education program.

275. I always consider the prison education administrators' philosophy toward the purpose of corrections.

277. I must consider the political structure within the prison.

283. I have trouble working with the prison educational director.

284. The educational counselors see my work as imposing upon their territory.

292. Many new educational programs do not survive the prison warden.

293. There is a lack of communication between the prison education personnel.

295. I feel comfortable discussing my educational ideas with the educational supervisor.

299. The educational supervisor regularly provides suggestions.

300. The educational supervisor regularly changes the course of action for the educational program.

307. I am always having to demonstrate the success of my students to the educational administrators.

308. I must always prove to the warden that the educational programs are working.

313. I have to continuously worry about the course expenses.

317. I must always work around the political power of the prison education director.

320. The prison education supervisor must have control the educational program planning and development process.

321. The prison warden is always controlling the expansion of the educational program.

322. The prison warden does not see the value of the prison education program.

323. The prison education supervisor will only half support my work.

324. I do not receive much support from the prison education director.

327. I do not feel comfortable with the prison education director.

330. I do not trust the prison education director.

332. I do not trust the prison warden.

333. I do not trust the prison education counselors.

336. I do not like the politics between the prison warden and deputy wardens.

337. I do not like the politics played by the prison education director.

339.   Funding will determine the programs success.

342.   The prison education supervisor is very supportive.

345.   The prison education director is well supportive of my work.

352.   I feel the prison warden is very supportive of the my work.

353.   I feel that the prison education director and I are on the same page.

354.   I feel comfortable making suggestions to the prison education director.

355.   I think the prison education director is very supportive.

356.   The level of communication in the prison education program is good.

360.   The prison education director never limits my ability to do my job.

364.   The prison warden is very interested in the success of the prison education program.

378.   The prison education counselors are interested in my ideas.

379.   The prison education counselors are interested in my work.

380.   The prison education counselors are very helpful in seeing the my ideas are accepted.

385.   I always feel safe around the prison education director.

392.   The prison education director s race is never an issue.

393.   The prison education director s gender is never an issue.

395.   The prison warden s race is never an issue.

B. Colleagues

15.   The educational program does not provide a safe environment for teachers.

24.   Teachers at the prison(s) are concerned for their safety with regard to the inmates.

39.   Mandating inmate participation causes problems for the teaching personnel.

46.   Teachers do not always have the adequate amount of resources to teach the inmates.

78.   I must plan around the political structure of the teaching personnel.

89.   I do not consider the needs of the teachers.

90.   I do not ask the advice of the teachers.

92.   The teachers do not determine the educational curriculum for inmates.

95.   I do not ask teachers for ideas for developing better educational programs for inmates.

164

190. Teachers are the inmates greatest resource.

193. The textbooks are selected by the teachers.

220. The teachers do not act in a political manner.

229. I must consider the needs of the teachers.

230. The teachers are given full authority to develop the curriculum.

231. The teachers are asked to develop the plan of study for each inmate.

232. The teachers have the responsibility to develop the educational program for inmates.

281. I experience power struggles with other teachers.

286. The teachers do not agree with my programs.

287. The teachers do not see my work as important.

288. The teachers do not have an interests in the programs that I have an interest.

294. I feel comfortable discussing my educational ideas with the other teachers.

316. I must always work around the politics between the teachers.

328. I do not trust the other teachers.

335. I do not like the politics between the teachers.

346. I work well with the prison teachers. 347. I have a good working relationship with the prison teachers.

367. The prison teachers all work together to make the prison education program work.

368. The prison teachers all communicate well between each other.

369. The prison teachers make constructive suggestions to each other in order to improve the educational program.

370. The prison teachers openly tell each other what educational approaches they are attempting in their classes.

376. The teachers are interested in the work I am doing.

384. I always feel safe around the teachers.

389. The teachers' race is never an issue.

391. The teachers' gender is never an issue.

C. Prison Guards

14. I have to plan educational programs in accordance to security concerns of prison guards.

17.   Prison guards view the educational program for inmates as a waste of time.

18.   The prison guards see the inmate educational program as a waste of tax-dollars.

19.   The prison guards see the educational program as giving inmates too much social control.

20.   The prison guards view the educational program as social club for inmates.

21.   The prison guards are more concerned about safety than the inmates' education opportunities.

22.   The prison guards attempt to disrupt the inmates' educational schedule.

23.   The prison guards attempt to disrupt the classroom environment.

40.   Mandating inmate participation causes problems for the prison guards.

80.   I must plan around the political structure of the prison guards.

98.   I do not worry about the needs of prison guards.

136.   I never consider the philosophical beliefs of prison guards toward the purpose of corrections.

157.   The prison guards value the educational programs for inmates.

158.   Prison guards see the educational programs as having a positive impact upon the inmates.

159.   The prison guards see the educational programs as helping to improve security concerns at the prison.

160.   The prison guards view the educational programs as helping to build better relations with the inmates.

161.   The prison guards the educational programs as changing the lives of inmates.

162.   The prison guards see the educational program as changing inmates' attitudes.

163.   The prison guards see the educational programs as helping the inmates to make better decisions.

164.   The prison guards view the educational program as helping the inmates to control their anger.

219.   I do not have to be concerned about the political structure of the prison guards.

238.   I must consider the opinions of the prison guards.

276.   I must consider the prison guards' philosophy toward the purpose of corrections.

282.   I experience conflict with the guards.

285.   The prison guards attempt to control the educational program.

291.   The prison guards are concerned with safety issues with the educational program.

297.   I feel comfortable discussing my educational ideas with the prison guards.

298.   The prison guards provide suggestions concerning the educational program.

301.   The prison guards are more concerned for safety than the inmates' education.

302.   The prison guards see the educational programs as causing more work for them.

303.   The prison guards resist the educational program because it makes it more difficult to keep inmate schedules well organized.

305.   I am concerned for my safety with regard to the prison guards.

306.   I always have to prove my worth to the prison guards.

318.   I must always consider the power of the prison guards.

319.   The prison guards have great deal of power.

325.   I do not feel comfortable with the prison guards.

329.   I do not trust the prison guards.

334.   I do not like the politics between the prison guards.

341.   Prison guards are always manipulating which inmates attend class.

343.   The prison guards are supportive of the educational program.

344.   The prison guards are interested in the inmates well being.

357.   The goals of the prison guards are compatible with my own goals.

361.   The prison guards never try to manipulate the education program.

362.   The prison guards never try to manipulate my work.

363.   The prison guards never attempt to control which inmates are allowed to attend the educational classes.

371.   The prison guards are willing to assist the teachers as much as possible.

372.   The prison guards help to make my work easier.

373.   The prison guards serve as a buffer between me and the teachers.

374.   The prison guards serve as a buffer between me and the prison education director.

375.   The prison guards seem interested in the work I am doing.

383.   I always feel safe around the prison guards.

397.   The prison guards serve as a buffer between me and the inmates.

D. Inmates

5.   There is not enough classroom space available for all inmates to participate.

6.   Many inmates have to be placed upon a waiting list in order to attend educational classes.

7.   The classroom environment is not conducive to providing a positive learning experience.

16.   The educational program does not provide a safe learning environment for inmates.

25.   Inmates are not allowed to help plan the educational program.

26.   Inmates do not value the educational program.

27.   Inmates do not care what educational programs are provided.

29.   The educational program does not cause the inmate to set personal goals.

31.   The inmates only participate in the educational program to get time out of their prison cell.

32.   The inmates are not motivated to learn.

33.   The inmates expect the teachers to set the educational agenda.

34.   The inmates have great respect for the teaching personnel.

47.   Inmates are not provided with adequate resources for learning to occur.

52.   The inmates do not feel comfortable with the textbooks being used in the educational program.

53.   The inmates are never asked to rate the quality of the textbooks.

54.   The textbooks do not associate the subject matter to the inmates' race.

55.   The textbooks do not relate the subject matter to the inmates' gender.

56.   The textbooks do not relate the subject matter to the inmates' life experiences.

57.   There are not enough computers for inmates to use in their learning experience.

58.   Inmates do not have access to the Internet.

81.   I must plan around the political structure of the inmate population.

94.   I do not ask inmates for ideas toward creating better learning programs.

102.   I do not consider the educational level of the inmate when planning correctional education programs.

103.   The academic history of the inmate is not important.

114.   My attitude toward the inmates does not impact the educational programs.

115.   My attitude toward the inmates' criminal history does not affect the educational programs.

116. The inmates' race does not affect the educational programs.

117. An inmate's race does not determine how much time I will spend developing educational programs for inmates.

118. I do not plan differently for white inmates and for minority inmates.

119. I do not plan differently for male inmates and for female inmates.

120. I do not treat male inmate programs differently than female inmate programs.

121. The gender of the inmate does not impact the educational programs.

122. I do not develop the programs differently for inmates who participate in the prison faith-based programs than those inmates who do not participate in a religious program.

123. I do not develop the programs differently for inmates participating in an Islamic religion program than for those participating in another religious program in prison.

124. I do not consider an inmate's religious faith.

128. I do not worry about the inmates' educational goals.

129. I do not consider the inmates' professional goals.

130. I do not consider the inmates' learning needs.

131. I do not consider the inmates' desire for learning.

147. Inmates do not have to be put on a waiting list in order to participate in the correctional education program.

150. All inmates have an equal opportunity to use classroom equipment.

152. All inmates participating in the prison education program have access to the classroom equipment.

153. The inmates are provided a safe learning environment.

155. Prison security is very important when developing educational programs for inmates

165. Inmates value the educational program.

166. The educational program is developed with the inmates' interests in mind.

167. The inmates help to plan the educational programs.

168. The inmates submit request for certain educational programs to be provided.

169. The educational program helps to provide the inmate with some social control.

170. It is important for the inmates to look forward to attending the educational programs.

171. It is important for the inmates to feel in control of their adult learning experience.

172. The inmates look forward to attending the educational programs.

173. The inmate needs are the pivotal criteria for selecting the educational curriculum.

174. The inmates are treated as equal partners in the learning process.

185. Inmates feel that educational participation will reduce their prison sentence.

189. Inmates can utilize a number of resources made available for the educational program.

191. The textbooks are sensitive to the gender of the inmates.

193. The textbooks are sensitive to the race of the inmates.

195. The inmates have some say in choosing the educational textbooks.

196. The textbooks meet the learning needs of the inmate participants.

197. Computers become an important medium for inmate learning to occur.

198. Inmates have access to computer based learning programs.

199. Inmates have access to the Internet.

210 Inmates with a GED or High School diploma desire to attend college courses.

221. The inmates do not engage the education programs in a political manner.

226. I take an inmate s gender into consideration.

233. I must consider the inmates needs.

234. I must consider the learning goals of inmates.

194. I always consider the inmate s educational history.

243. I must take into account the inmate s academic history.

255. My view of inmates has a significant impact upon the quality of my work.

256. The inmates' race plays a role in the educational programs.

257. I develop the programs differently for white inmates than for minority inmates.

258. I spend more time on programs for white inmates than for minority inmates.

259. I spend more time on programs for male inmates than for female inmates.

260. I value the programs for male inmates more than for female inmates.

261. The inmates' gender has a strong impact toward the development of the educational programs.

262.   The religious beliefs of inmates impact how I develop the educational programs.

263.   I develop educational programs differently for inmates who participate in prison faith-based programs than I do for the non-religion participants.

264.   I plan educational programs differently for Islamic inmates than I do for Christian inmates.

268.   I am concerned about the learning needs of the inmates.

269.   I am concerned about the educational goals of the inmates.

270.   I hope to empower the inmates through their learning gains.

271.   I must consider the inmates' academic learning gains.

296.   I feel comfortable discussing my educational ideas with the inmate students.

304.   I am concerned for my safety with regard to the inmates.

311.   The inmates do not care what type programs I offer.

312.   The inmates do not care how the educational classes are constructed.

326.   I do not feel comfortable with the inmates.

331.   I do not trust the inmates.

338.   I do not like the inmates.

348.   The inmates are my biggest concern.

349.   I look to empower the inmates through education.

365.   The inmates always provide suggestions for the educational program.

366.   The inmates want to help plan the educational programs.

377.   The inmates are interested in the work I am doing.

382.   I always feel safe around the inmates.

388.   The inmates' race is never an issue.

390.   The inmates' gender is never an issue.

E. Adult Educator (Survey Participant)

8.   The classroom setting is too small.

9.   The classroom setting does not have the latest in technology.

10.   The classrooms are not fully equipped to handle technological oriented courses.

35.   Inmates need to be mandated to attend the educational program.

36.   Mandating inmates to attend the educational program does not improve their desire to learn.

37.   Mandating the inmates to participate in the educational program makes the inmates reject the need to learn.

38.   Mandating the inmates to attend the educational program causes social tension between the inmates and teachers.

41.   The inmates' participation in the educational program does not reduce their prison sentence.

45.   Time to parole has a negative impact upon the inmates' level of motivation to learn.

84.   I do not have to take into account for issues regarding race.

85.   I do not worry about race when developing correctional education programs.

86.   I do not take gender issues into consideration.

88.   I do not worry about cultural issues.

93.   I do not worry about the program stakeholders.

104.   I never use research literature as a guide.

105.   I disregard the findings from empirical research.

106.   I never consult the correctional education research literature.

125.   I never consider the relationship between the inmates and teachers.

126.   I never consider the relationship between the inmates and prison guards.

127.   I never consider the relationship between the teachers and prison guards.

156.   Prison security is considered when developing the educational curriculum.

175.   Mandating inmates to attend the educational program causes the inmates to value learning.

176.   Mandating inmates to participate in the educational program causes the inmates to see the importance of education.

177.   Inmates who are mandated to attend the educational program see education as a means of reducing their prison sentence.

178.   Inmates who voluntarily attend the educational program are more motivated to learn.

179.   The mandated inmates are motivated to learn.

181.   Inmates with the greatest amount of time to parole show the greatest amount of motivation to learn.

182.   Time to parole has a positive impact upon the learning process.

183.   Inmates near release from prison are more likely to attend the educational program.

184.	Time to parole is a positive factor in the development of the educational curriculum.

215.	I do not have to worry about political groups.

224.	I take race into consideration.

225.	I must consider issues relating to race.

227.	I must worry about the power relationships between inmates and prison guards.

228.	I must be concerned about many social issues.

244.	I consider many research findings.

245.	I reflect upon many research articles as a guide.

246.	I use the findings from empirical research to guide the development of the educational programs.

254.	The inmates' criminal history has an impact upon the educational programs.

265.	I must consider the relationship between the teachers and inmates.

266.	I must consider the relationship between the inmates and prison guards.

267.	I must consider the relationship between the teachers and prison guards.

272.	I must consider my own philosophy toward the purpose of corrections.

314.	Money becomes an important factor.

315.	Time is always a problem.

340.	I do not have enough resources to work with.

359.	There is plenty of funding for me to properly do my job.

381.	Safety is not an issue.

386.	My race is never an issue.

387.	My gender is never an issue.

394.	My level of education is never an issue.

II. EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS

A. State Government

4.	The state department of corrections has decreased our correctional education budget.

12.	The state department does not provide the necessary funding for classroom equipment.

28.   The state department does not care about the goals of inmates.

60.   The state department does not value computer instructional learning tools for inmates.

65.   The state department does not seek the proper amount of foundational support.

66.   The state department of corrections does not value college programs for inmates.

67.   The state department of corrections does not view college programs for inmates as having an impact upon recidivism rates.

76.   I have to be concerned with the political structure at the state department of corrections level.

82.   The state department of corrections does not like to publicize the educational programs that they offer to the inmates.

99.   I do not worry about the state government officials.

109.   The power structure of state government does not impact the educational programs.

113.   The power structure of the correctional education program does not impact the educational programs.

133.   I never consider the philosophical views of state administrators toward the purpose of corrections.

138.   I never consider the political structure of the state government.

140.   I never consider the political structure within the state correctional system.

142.   The state department of corrections provides the necessary funds needed to operated the educational program.

151.   The state department has provided the necessary equipment to provide a positive classroom environment.

201.   The state correctional education director seeks the proper funding for the inmate educational programs.

208.   The state department of corrections values college programs for inmates.

209.   The state department of corrections focuses its attention toward the ABE/GED programs for inmates.

217.   I do not have to plan around the political structure at the state level.

223.   The state department of corrections likes telling the public what educational programs they offer to inmates.

237.   I must consider state correctional officials.

248.   I take into consideration the power structure of state government.

273.   I must consider the state administrators' philosophy toward the purpose of corrections.

278.   I must consider the political structure of the state correctional system.
280.   I must be aware of the political structure of the state government.

310.   I find the state department of corrections dictates the work I perform.

358.   The state department of corrections is very supportive of my work.

396.   The state department of corrections is very helpful.

B. Federal Government

3.   I am hindered by federal laws which limit the funding of some educational programs.

77.   I must plan around the political structure of the federal government.

100.   I do not worry about the federal government.

110.   The power structure of federal government does not impact the educational programs.

134.   I never consider the philosophical beliefs of federal administrators toward the purpose of corrections.

139.   I never consider the political structure of the federal government.

195.   I do not have to worry about the political structure of the federal government.

240.   I must consider the federal government.

249.   I take into consideration the power structure of federal government.

274.   I must consider the federal administrators   philosophy toward the purpose of corrections.

196.   I must consider the political structure of the federal government.

C. Colleges/Universities

64.   The prison education program does not receive many donations from colleges and/or universities.

69.   University faculty members are not willing to teach college courses to inmates in prison.

70.   Most universities do not view the importance of college programs for inmates.

79.   I must plan around the political structure of a college and/or university.

289.   I have problems with faculty members at a local university or college.

290.   The university or college administrators tend to control the planning process.

309.   I find it hard to work with university or college personnel.

350.   I feel working with the local university or college is a good experience.

351.   I feel the local university or college is very supportive of the prison education program.

D. Private Sector/Community

71.   The general public does not know what educational programs are available to inmates.

72.   The general public is not for college programs for inmates.

73.   The general public is not for education programs for inmates.

74.   The general public does not feel that educational programs will have a positive
        influence upon the inmate.

96.   I do not consider the needs of the community.

111.   The power structure of the private sector does not impact the educational programs.

112.   The power structure of business and industry does not impact the educational programs.

211.   The general public is for the reeducation of inmates.

212.   The general public is interested in what educational programs are offered to inmates.

213.   The general public would be for college programs for inmates.

214.   The general public is involved in the planning process of the correctional education programs.

235.   I must consider the private community.

250.   I take into consideration the power structure of the private sector.

252.   I take into consideration the power structure of business and industry.

E. Funding Sources

62.   There is not an adequate amount economic support from non-profit organizations.

63.   The prison receives little donations from corporate foundations to finance the education programs.

97.   I do not worry about the funding sources.

141.   My work is supported by foundational grant money.

204.   The prison education program receives foundational money from colleges and/or

universities.

205.   The prison education program receives the donation of computer equipment from corporate foundations.

236.   I must consider the funding sources.

APPENDIX D

PRE-PILOT PROTOTYPE QUESTIONNAIRE

PRE-PILOT PROTOTYPE QUESTIONNAIRE

Many people have opinions about the role of the teacher within the correctional education classroom. Think of the inmate education programs (e.g. literacy, adult basic education, GED, and college) with which you are most familiar. Then decide the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

	To what extent do you agree with each statement?	Strongly Disagree		↔			Strongly Agree
1.	**Teachers consider the prison guards' views toward the inmates when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	**Teachers consider the prison warden's beliefs toward education for inmates when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	**Teachers consider the beliefs of the educational administrators at the state level when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	**Teachers consider the inmates' previous social economic status when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	**The teachers' consider their own gender beliefs when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	**Teachers consider the religious diversity among the inmates when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	**Teachers consider the inmates' life experiences when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	**Teachers consider the age of the inmates when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	**Teachers consider the security constraints at the prison when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Disagree		↔			Strongly Agree
To what extent do you agree with each statement?							
10.	Teachers consider the prison guards' beliefs toward the prison education program when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Teachers consider the university administrators' beliefs toward education for inmates when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Teachers consider the amount of funding available for the class when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Teachers consider the security level at the prison facility when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Teachers consider the need for inmates to be self-directed when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Teachers consider the level of technology available to inmates when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Teachers consider the inmates' desires for learning when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Teachers consider the views of the prison guards when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Teachers consider the beliefs of the educational supervisor at the prison facility when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	The teachers' consider their own beliefs toward race when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Teachers consider the inmates' capacity to learn when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Teachers consider the needs of the educational administrators at the prison when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	To what extent do you agree with each statement?	Strongly Disagree		↔			Strongly Agree
22.	Teachers consider the inmates' ideas for the class when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	Teachers consider the instructional materials available for the class when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Teachers consider the inmates' criminal history when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	Teachers consider the inmates' need to excel academically when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Teachers consider the inmates' learning needs when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	Teachers consider the inmates as adult learners when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	Teachers consider the beliefs of the educational director at the prison facility when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	Teachers consider the inmates' intentions for attending the class when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	Teachers consider the inmates' daily prison schedule when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	Teachers consider the inmates' future aspirations when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	Teachers consider the views of local school board when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	Teachers consider the class size when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	Teachers consider the number of hours per week the inmates attend class when developing a plan of study for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	To what extent do you agree with each statement?	Strongly Disagree		↔			Strongly Agree
35.	**Teachers consider the race of the inmates when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
36.	**Teachers consider the needs of the state correctional education director when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
37.	**Teachers consider the inmates' career aspirations when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
38.	**Teachers consider their own social economic status when developing a plan of study for inmates.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

APPENDIX E

PROTOTYPE QUESTIONNAIRE

PROTOTYPE QUESTIONNAIRE

Do you have experience in the planning, developing, supervising, or teaching of educational programs for inmates in prison?   _____ YES   _____NO
If you answered YES, please complete the survey.
If you answered NO, thank you for your time. Please return the uncompleted survey in the envelope we have provided.

INSTRUCTIONS: Many people have opinions regarding the decision making process of teachers in the correctional education classroom. Think of the inmate education programs (e.g. literacy, adult basic education, GED, and college) with which you are most familiar. Then decide the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on the teachers' classroom decisions in correctional education.	Strongly Disagree ↔ Strongly Agree					
1. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the prison warden's attitude toward inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the prison warden's attitude toward the correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the prison warden's attitude toward the educational program for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the attitudes of the educational administrators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the requirements imposed by the educational administrators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the academic expectations of the educational administrators.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on the teachers' classroom decisions in correctional education.	Strongly Disagree		⟷		Strongly Agree	
7. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward security.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers seek input from correctional officers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the control correctional officers have over the physical movements of inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the power correctional officers have over the classroom environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the recommendations from other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers seek input from other correctional educators about classroom problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers have group discussions with other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers discuss teaching strategies with other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers collaborate with other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers discuss with other correctional educators issues regarding inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the gender of inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on the teachers' classroom decisions in correctional education.	Strongly Disagree		↔		Strongly Agree	
20. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the race/ethnic diversity among the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the religious diversity among the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the inmates' life experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the inmates' opinions about the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the inmates' criminal history.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the inmates' learning needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the inmates' purpose for attending the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the number of hours per week the inmates attend class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the learning disabilities of some inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the number of inmates in the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the room size.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the classroom layout.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the type of furniture in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on the teachers' classroom decisions in correctional education.	Strongly Disagree	↔			Strongly Agree	
33. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the level of technology available for inmates.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
34. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the instructional materials available for the class.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
35. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the level of classroom security.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
36. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the prison's policy toward security.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
37. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider their own security.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
38. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the security of the inmates.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
39. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider the current social climate among the inmates.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
40. When developing a plan of instruction at a prison facility, teachers consider previous security concerns at the prison.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

BACKGROUND INFORMATION. <u>**This information will be totally confidential**</u>.

41. Which types of correctional education programs are you currently working with? (Check all that apply)

o **Special Education**   o **Career Development/Self Help**

o **English as a Second Language (ESL)**   o **Pre-Release**

o **Adult Basic Education (ABE)**   o **General Equivalency Diploma (GED)**

o **College**   o **Other** _____

42. **Which types of correctional facilities are you currently working with? (Check all that apply)**

- o **Male**   o **Female**

- o **Adult**   o **Juvenile**

- o **State**   o **Federal**

- o **County/City**   o **For-Profit**

- o **Other** _____

43. **Which work activity best describes your role in correctional education? (Check one only)**

- o **Warden**   o **Educational Administrator**

- o **Educational Counselor**   o **Teacher/Professor**

- o **Correctional Officer**   o **Parole Officer**

- o **Social Worker**   o **Judge**

- o **Other** _____

44. **How many years of experience have you had in correctional education?** _____

45. **What is your gender?** _____

46. **What is your race/ethnicity?** _____

47. **What year were you born?** _____

48. **What is your highest educational degree or diploma obtained?** _____

For Office Use Only	Survey #:

APPENDIX F

PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE

The University of Georgia
College of Education
Department of Adult Education
Athens, GA 30602-4811

TEACHER DECISION-MAKING IN THE
CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION CLASSROOM

INSTRUCTIONS: Please reflect upon your own teaching experiences in a correctional facility. Then decide the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

PART I — WHAT INFLUENCES *YOUR* INSTRUCTIONAL DECISIONS?

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on your decision-making in the correctional education classroom.	Strongly Disagree ↔ Strongly Agree					
1. When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward the correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward the educational program for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. When making instructional decisions, I consider the attitudes of the educational administrators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. When making instructional decisions, I consider the requirements imposed by the educational administrators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. When making instructional decisions, I consider the academic expectations of the educational administrators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward security.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on your decision-making in the correctional education classroom.	Strongly Disagree		↔		Strongly Agree	
10. When making instructional decisions, I seek input from correctional officers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. When making instructional decisions, I consider the control correctional officers have over the physical movements of inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. When making instructional decisions, I consider the power correctional officers have over the classroom environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. When making instructional decisions, I consider the recommendations from other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. When making instructional decisions, I seek input from other correctional educators about classroom problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. When making instructional decisions, I have group discussions with other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. When making instructional decisions, I discuss teaching strategies with other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. When making instructional decisions, I collaborate with other correctional educators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. When making instructional decisions, I discuss with other correctional educators issues regarding inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. When making instructional decisions, I consider the gender of inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. When making instructional decisions, I consider the race/ethnic diversity among the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. When making instructional decisions, I consider the religious diversity among the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' life experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on your decision-making in the correctional education classroom.	Strongly Disagree		↔		Strongly Agree	
23. When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' opinions about the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' criminal history.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' learning needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' purpose for attending the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. When making instructional decisions, I consider the number of hours per week the inmates attend class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. When making instructional decisions, I consider the learning disabilities of some inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. When making instructional decisions, I consider the number of inmates in the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. When making instructional decisions, I consider the room size.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. When making instructional decisions, I consider the classroom layout.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. When making instructional decisions, I consider the type of furniture in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. When making instructional decisions, I consider the level of technology available for inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. When making instructional decisions, I consider the instructional materials available for the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. When making instructional decisions, I consider the level of classroom security.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please rate the amount of influence that each item has on your decision-making in the correctional education classroom.	Strongly Disagree ↔ Strongly Agree					
36. When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison's policy toward security.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. When making instructional decisions, I consider their own security.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. When making instructional decisions, I consider the security of the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. When making instructional decisions, I consider the current social climate among the inmates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. When making instructional decisions, I consider previous security concerns at the prison.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PART II — HOW POWERFUL ARE *YOU* IN YOUR OWN CLASSROOM?

Please rate how much you agree with each item.	Strongly Disagree ↔ Strongly Agree					
41. I feel I can do what I want to do in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. I decide what learning assignments the students will do in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. I decide which subject matter to cover in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. I decide the teaching methods to use in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. Sometimes I feel like other people are really making the important decisions in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. Sometimes I feel that I do not have the opportunity to be creative in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PART III — BACKGROUND INFORMATION. *This information will be completely confidential.*

47. **Which types of correctional education programs have you taught? (Check all that apply)**

   o **Special Education**   o **Vocational**

   o **English as a Second Language (ESL)**   o **Pre-Release**

   o **Adult Basic Education (ABE)**   o **General Equivalency Diploma (GED)**

   o **College**   o **Other** _____

48. **Which types of inmates have you taught?**

   A. Gender (Check only one)

       o **Male**   o **Female**   o **Both**

   B. Age (Check only one)

       o **Juvenile**   o **Adult**   o **Both**

49. **Which type of correctional facility have you had the most experience? (Check only one)**

   o **State**   o **Federal**

   o **County/City**   o **For-Profit**

   o **Other** _____

50. **What is the security-level of the correctional facility that you have most experienced? (Check only one)**

   o **Level-I (Transitional Centers)**   o **Level-II**

   o **Level-III**   o **Level-IV**

   o **Level-V**   o **Level-VI (Maximum Security)**

51. **How many years of experience have you had teaching inmates?** _____

52. **What is your gender?** _____

53. **What is your race/ethnicity?** _____

54. **What year were you born?** _____

55. **What is your highest educational degree or diploma obtained?** _____

APPENDIX G

COVER LETTER FOR THE PILOT STUDY

<University of Georgia Letterhead>

Letter of Contact

April 8, 2005

Dear Correctional Education Colleague:

Only correctional educators can really understand the complexity of providing quality
educational programs to inmates. Although the level of complexity varies from state-to-state, in
almost every case the prison environment has a profound influence on what teachers do in their
classroom. In our ongoing efforts to improve correctional education, we need to understand the
reality of teacher decision-making.

We are currently conducting a national research study to identify the dimensions that influence
the teachers' decisions in the correctional education classroom. You are one of the 150 people
chosen to help us with Phase-I of the study, which involves testing the validity and reliability of
the questionnaire. We will be counting on your wisdom and honest responses to help us achieve
this task.

If you are willing to participate in this study, we ask you to fill out the enclosed questionnaire
and return it in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope by April 29, 2005. The
questionnaire consists of a 46-item scale and 9-items describing your professional background.
You should be able to complete the questionnaire in less than 15-minutes. If you would like a
summary of the research findings, please enclose a business card when you return the
questionnaire. If you are unwilling to participate in this study, please return the blank
questionnaire in the self-addressed stamped envelope so that we can remove your name from any
future mailings.

We believe this study is very important. Your response will be extremely helpful to our work.
Enclosed is a research information sheet that describes the research in more detail and your
rights as a participant. If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact us at
(706) 542-2214. Thank you for your input.

Sincerely,

_____   _____
Jonathan E. Messemer   Thomas Valentine
Doctoral Candidate   Associate Professor
Department of Adult Education   Department of Adult Education
Email: jonathanmessemer@prodigy.net   Email: tvnj@aol.com

APPENDIX H

PARTICIPANT CONFIDENTIALITY AND RESEARCH INFORMATION SHEET (PILOT STUDY)

Research Information and Participant Consent Form

TEACHER DECISION-MAKING IN THE
CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION CLASSROOM

Research Information for Participants

We are currently conducting a study entitled, "Teacher Decision-Making in the Correctional Education Classroom." The questionnaire-based study is designed to increase our understanding of the dimensions that influence the decisions that teachers make in the correctional education classroom.

I am conducting the study under the guidance of Associate Professor Thomas Valentine of the Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, and Policy. We will use the information you provide for scholarly publications and for various other formal and informal reports.

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary. If you agree to participate, you are asked to complete a questionnaire which should take less than 15-minutes to complete.

Your participation in this study will be treated with strict confidentiality. Each questionnaire contains a code number on Page 1 for the sole purpose of tracking responses so that we can send up to two reminders to participants who have not returned the questionnaire. As soon as the data collection is complete, we will destroy our mailing list so that no one will be able to determine the names of people who completed the questionnaires. When we publish our findings, we will report our findings based upon groups, not on individuals.

We hope that you will complete the questionnaire and return it in the enclosed envelope. However, if you choose not to participate in this study, simply return the blank questionnaire in the enclosed envelope. If you return a blank questionnaire, we will remove your name from our mailing list and you will not receive any future mailings related to this project.

We do not foresee this study causing you any harm or discomfort. However, should you be uncomfortable about completing the questionnaire, simply return the blank questionnaire in the enclosed envelope.

If you have any questions about this research—now or in the future—please contact me via telephone (678 442-1022) or by email at jonathanmessemer@prodigy.net. Please feel free to contact Dr. Thomas Valentine at the Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, and Policy, The University of Georgia, 317 River's Crossing, Athens, Georgia 30602-4811, via telephone at (706) 542-4017, or via email at tvnj@aol.com.

Please note: Completion and return of this questionnaire implies that you have read this information and consent to participate in the research.

Thank you for your help with this important research.

APPENDIX I

PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

OF THE PILOT STUDY RESPONDENTS

PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

OF THE PILOT STUDY RESPONDENTS (N=64)

Variable	Value	
Age (in years)	Mean = 51.4	SD = 9.3
Years of experience teaching inmates in prison	Mean = 9.1	SD = 5.9
Gender		
Female	N = 33	51.6%
Male	N = 31	48.4%
Race/Ethnicity		
White	N = 55	85.9%
African-American	N = 3	4.7%
American-Indian	N = 3	4.7%
Hispanic/Latin American	N = 2	3.1%
Asian	N = 1	1.6%
Highest degree/diploma completed		
Certificate	N = 2	3.1%
Associate	N = 6	9.4 %
Bachelor's	N = 18	28.1%
Master's	N = 35	54.7%
Doctorate	N = 3	4.7%
Types of inmates taught by the teachers		
Inmate Gender		
Male only	N = 47	73.4%
Female only	N = 3	4.7%
Male and Female	N = 14	21.9%
Inmate Age		
Adult only	N = 36	56.3%
Juvenile only	N = 10	15.6%
Adult and Juvenile	N = 18	28.1%

PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

OF THE PILOT STUDY RESPONDENTS (CONTINUED)

Variable	Value	
Types of prison facilities taught in by the teachers		
Prison Affiliation		
State	N = 53	82.8%
Federal	N = 1	1.6%
County/City	N = 7	10.9%
Private (For-Profit)	N = 3	4.7%
Prison Security-Level		
Level-I (Transitional)	N = 5	7.8%
Level-II (Low Security)	N = 7	10.9%
Level-III (Medium Security)	N = 18	28.1%
Level-IV (Medium Security)	N = 19	29.7%
Level-V (High or Closed-Security)	N = 10	15.6%
Level-VI (Maximum Security Facility)	N = 5	7.8%
Types of educational programs taught by the teachers*		
Adult Basic Education (ABE)	N = 36	56.3%
General Equivalency Development (GED)	N = 34	53.1%
Special Education	N = 17	26.6%
Pre-Release Programs	N = 16	25.0%
Vocational Education	N = 15	23.4%
English as a Second Language	N = 10	15.6%
College Degree Programs	N = 10	15.6%

*Some teachers are represented in multiple subject areas and percentages do not equal 100%

APPENDIX J

ITEM CORRECTIONS

ITEM CORRECTIONS

DESCRIPTION OF THE ITEMS

Old Version of the Items

---

8. When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward them.

37. When making instructional decisions, I consider their own security.

38. When making instructional decisions, I consider the security of the inmates.

New Version of the Items

---

8. When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes' toward the correctional educators.

37. When making instructional decisions, I consider my own safety.

38. When making instructional decisions, I consider the safety of the inmates.

APPENDIX K

RELIABILITY OF THE SEVEN SUB-SCALES FOR THE PILOT STUDY

RELIABILITY OF THE SEVEN SUB-SCALES FOR THE PILOT STUDY

Dimensions of Influence and Power	Item Numbers	N	Scale-Item Mean	Scale-Item SD	Alpha
Prison Administrators	1-6	64	3.53	1.20	.87
Correctional Officers	7-12	62	2.57	1.06	.84
Other Correctional Educators	13-18	64	4.35	1.11	.89
Inmates	19-28	64	3.78	0.87	.80
Classroom	29-34	64	4.32	1.03	.84
Security (Safety)	35-40	61	4.34	1.28	.91
Teachers' Power (Decision-Making)	41-46	64	4.95	0.95	.83

APPENDIX L

FINAL STUDY COVER LETTER: MAILING #1

<University of Georgia Letterhead>

Letter of Contact

June 26, 2005

Dear Correctional Education Colleague:

Only correctional educators can really understand the complexity of providing quality educational programs to inmates. Although the level of complexity varies from state-to-state, in almost every case the prison environment has a profound influence on what teachers do in their classroom. In our ongoing efforts to improve correctional education, we need to understand the reality of teacher decision-making.

We are currently conducting a national research study to identify the dimensions that influence the teachers' decisions in the correctional education classroom. You are one of the 616 people chosen to help us with this study. We will be counting on your wisdom and honest responses to help us better understand the decisions you make in the correctional education classroom.

If you are willing to participate in this study, we ask you to fill out the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope by July 21, 2005. The questionnaire should take you less than 15-minutes to complete. If you would like a summary of the research findings, please enclose a business card when you return the questionnaire. If you are unwilling to participate in this study, please return the blank questionnaire in the self-addressed stamped envelope so that we can remove your name from any future mailings.

We believe this study is very important. Your responses will help us to understand the decisions you make in your classroom.   Enclosed is a research information sheet that describes the research in more detail and your rights as a participant. If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact us at (706) 542-2214. Thank you for your input.

Sincerely,

_____   _____
Jonathan E. Messemer, M.A.   Thomas Valentine, Ed.D.
Doctoral Candidate   Associate Professor
Phone: (678) 442-1022   Phone: (706) 542-4017
Email: jonathanmessemer@prodigy.net   Email: tvnj@aol.com

APPENDIX M

CONFIDENTIALITY AND RESEARCH INFORMATION SHEET (FINAL STUDY)

Research Information and Participant Consent Form

TEACHER DECISION-MAKING IN THE
CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION CLASSROOM

Research Information for Participants

We are currently conducting a study entitled, "Teacher Decision-Making in the Correctional Education Classroom." The questionnaire-based study is designed to increase our understanding of the dimensions that influence the decisions that teachers make in the correctional education classroom.

I am conducting the study under the guidance of Associate Professor Dr. Thomas Valentine of the Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, and Policy. We will use the information you provide for scholarly publications and for various other formal and informal reports.

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary. If you agree to participate, you are asked to complete a questionnaire which should take less than 15-minutes to complete.

Your participation in this study will be treated with strict confidentiality. Each questionnaire contains a code number on Page 1 for the sole purpose of tracking responses so that we can send up to two reminders to participants who have not returned the questionnaire. As soon as the data collection is complete, we will destroy our mailing list so that no one will be able to determine the names of people who completed the questionnaires. When we publish our findings, we will report our findings based upon groups, not on individuals.

We hope that you will complete the questionnaire and return it in the enclosed envelope. However, if you choose not to participate in this study, simply return the blank questionnaire in the enclosed envelope. If you return a blank questionnaire, we will remove your name from our mailing list and you will not receive any future mailings related to this project.

We do not foresee this study causing you any harm or discomfort. However, should you be uncomfortable about completing the questionnaire, simply return the blank questionnaire in the enclosed envelope.

If you have any questions about this research—now or in the future—please contact me via telephone (678 442-1022) or by email at jonathanmessemer@prodigy.net. Please feel free to contact Dr. Thomas Valentine at the Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, and Policy, The University of Georgia, 317 River's Crossing, Athens, Georgia 30602-4811, via telephone at (706) 542-4017, or via email at tvnj@aol.com.

Please note: Completion and return of this questionnaire implies that you have read this information and consent to participate in the research.

Thank you for your help with this important research.

For Questions or problems that may arise during this study, please call or write: Human Subjects Office, The University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone No. (706) 542-6514; E-mail Address: IRB@uga.edu.

APPENDIX N

FINAL STUDY COVER LETTER: MAILING #2

<University of Georgia Letterhead>

Follow-Up Letter

August 6, 2005

Dear Correctional Education Colleague:

This is just a friendly reminder hoping that you will agree to participate in my research study. Your response to the questionnaire items will greatly improve our understanding of the factors that influence the teachers' decision-making in the correctional education classroom. Just in case you did not receive the questionnaire during the first mailing, I have enclosed two documents. The first document is the questionnaire with a self-addressed stamped envelope. The second document is the research information form which describes the details of the research study and your rights as a participant.

Please return the questionnaire in the self-addressed stamped envelope by August 27, 2005. If you have any questions, please contact me at (678) 442-1022 or jonathanmessemer@prodigy.net.

Thank you for your assistance with this research project.

Sincerely,

Jonathan E. Messemer
Doctoral Candidate
Phone: (678) 442-1022
Email: jonathanmessemer@prodigy.net

APPENDIX O

RANK ORDER OF THE 40-ITEM SCALE (FINAL STUDY)

FINAL STUDY: RANK ORDER OF THE 40-ITEMS SCALE (N=427)

Rank	Item #	Item	M	SD
1	25	When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' learning needs.	5.50	0.79
2	28	When making instructional decisions, I consider the learning disabilities of some inmates.	5.26	0.98
3	34	When making instructional decisions, I consider the instructional materials available for the class.	5.19	0.93
4	38	When making instructional decisions, I consider the safety of the inmates.	4.85	1.35
5	5	When making instructional decisions, I consider the requirements imposed by the educational administrators.	4.81	1.26
6	36	When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison's policy toward security.	4.78	1.38
7	37	When making instructional decisions, I consider my own safety.	4.73	1.52
8	6	When making instructional decisions, I consider the academic expectations of the educational administrators.	4.67	1.32
9	29	When making instructional decisions, I consider the number of inmates in the class.	4.65	1.29
10	33	When making instructional decisions, I consider the level of technology available for inmates.	4.58	1.29
11	26	When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' purpose for attending the class.	4.58	1.33
12	14	When making instructional decisions, I seek input from other correctional educators about classroom problems.	4.56	1.29
13	13	When making instructional decisions, I consider the recommendations from other correctional educators.	4.53	1.21

Rank	Item #	Item	M	SD
14	39	When making instructional decisions, I consider the current social climate among the inmates.	4.45	1.34
15	40	When making instructional decisions, I consider previous security concerns at the prison.	4.43	1.46
16	18	When making instructional decisions, I discuss with other correctional educators issues regarding inmates.	4.42	1.36
17	16	When making instructional decisions, I discuss teaching strategies with other correctional educators.	4.41	1.31
18	27	When making instructional decisions, I consider the number of hours per week the inmates attend class.	4.39	1.40
19	17	When making instructional decisions, I collaborate with other correctional educators.	4.37	1.40
20	31	When making instructional decisions, I consider the classroom layout.	4.37	1.40
21	30	When making instructional decisions, I consider the room size.	4.36	1.43
22	35	When making instructional decisions, I consider the level of classroom security.	4.27	1.56
23	22	When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' life experiences.	4.22	1.44
24	9	When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward security.	4.19	1.63
25	4	When making instructional decisions, I consider the attitudes of the educational administrators.	4.17	1.50
26	15	When making instructional decisions, I have group discussions with other correctional educators.	3.86	1.47

Rank	Item #	Item	M	SD
27	11	When making instructional decisions, I consider the control correctional officers have over the physical movements of inmates.	3.81	1.57
28	32	When making instructional decisions, I consider the type of furniture in the classroom.	3.74	1.53
29	23	When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' opinions about the class.	3.59	1.37
30	20	When making instructional decisions, I consider the race/ethnic diversity among the inmates.	3.53	1.68
31	19	When making instructional decisions, I consider the gender of the inmates.	3.23	1.81
32	3	When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward the educational program for inmates.	3.07	1.71
33	21	When making instructional decisions, I consider the religious diversity among the inmates.	2.97	1.62
34	2	When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward the correctional educators.	2.83	1.67
35	1	When making instructional decisions, I consider the prison warden's attitude toward inmates.	2.73	1.64
36	12	When making instructional decisions, I consider the power correctional officers have over the classroom environment.	2.72	1.56
37	8	When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward the correctional educators.	2.22	1.43

FINAL STUDY: RANK ORDER OF THE 40-ITEMS SCALE (CONTINUED)

Rank	Item #	Item	M	SD
38	7	When making instructional decisions, I consider the correctional officers' attitudes toward the inmates.	2.19	1.38
39	24	When making instructional decisions, I consider the inmates' criminal history.	2.12	1.37
40	10	When making instructional decisions, I seek input from correctional officers.	2.10	1.31