

A STUDY OF INTERPERSONAL SKILLS TRAINING GROUPS WITH JUVENILE
CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS

by

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(Under the direction of Dr. Brian A. Glaser)

ABSTRACT

The present study was an attempt to create and validate a psychoeducational group for Juvenile Correctional Officers entitled LEADERS (Listening Empathically And Discerning Empathic Relationship Skills). The review of the literature cites the need for the development for psychoeducational training for Juvenile Correctional Officers. However, there is a paucity of studies that address this established need. Based on past research and clinical experience, a group protocol was created that addresses three main content areas: adolescent development, communication skills, and empathy training. The topics of correctional roles and stress/burnout were also included. Central to the conceptualization of the LEADERS program, group process was emphasized and included in the group design. Following the development of the LEADERS program, this group protocol was implemented in a Southeastern Regional Youth Detention Center. Thirty-one Juvenile Correctional Officers completed the LEADERS group. Four separate instruments were used to evaluate the LEADERS program: a correctional role measure, an empathy measure, a measure of social interest, and a group measure. The sample as a whole showed a statistically significant increase in Empathic Concern, which is a component of empathy, and each of the individual groups showed a statistically significant increase on at least on scale utilized for the purposes of this study. In addition, Social Interest was best predicted by the Perspective Taking component of empathy (as measured by the IRI). However, Social Interest was not related to the scores on the CRI. Results from the Critical Incidence Inventory suggest that the therapeutic factors of universality and imparting information were found to be most salient in the LEADERS groups. The small sample size in this study greatly limited the power of the inferential testing that was used to evaluate the group itself. However, through a combination of moderate and large effect sizes (and several more small effect sizes), along with the results from the group measure used in this study, additional work groupwork with correctional officers is warranted.

INDEX WORDS: Group work, Psychoeducation, Correctional Officers, Prison, Empathy, Communication Training, Approaches to Correctional Work

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work to my wife, Mary, and to the JCOs at the Youth Detention Facility that participated in this study. Mary, you are the love of my life and my biggest supporter, even when I do not see it. Thank you for your patience throughout this process. I also appreciate your willingness to drop what you were doing to “come here and read this,” time after time. You made this process much more enjoyable than it would have been without you. Thank you for being part of my life... I love you!!!

To the JCOs... Yours is a position that is not often rewarded and that is fraught with stress and difficulty. Yet, yours is also a position that is the keystone to change in the lives of the young men with whom you work. That is a combination that is difficult (few opportunities for rewards, a high level of stress, and much responsibility). Yet, you perform your job day after day to the best of your abilities. I appreciate what you do for our community and for our youth. Thank you for participating in the groups, for challenging me, and for pushing each other.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The difficulties encountered in correctional facilities have been discussed for centuries. Recent depictions of prison behaviors and conditions, such as in the film The Shawshank Redemption (Marvin & Darabont, 1994), have given the public a vivid depiction of what some prisoners endure while being incarcerated. However, the public is also aware that these individuals have committed a crime that warrants their incarceration, thus limiting the public's sympathy toward these individuals. These two realities "reside together as our system of justice attempts to reach a more effective synthesis; a synthesis that will provide order and stability in the community in a humane way without diminishing the potential for positive change in most of the individuals who offend in the community" (Braswell, 1992, p.3). Counseling psychologists who serve the justice system, focus on the realm of positive change in several aspects of the correctional system, from the inmate to the larger system context. In many ways, counseling psychologists who work in a forensic setting enter to help individuals in crisis and to help a system that occasionally nears crisis. In Chinese, the word "crisis" comes from two characters meaning "danger" and "opportunity." The opportunities for change that can be invited in the lives of the inmates and in the system as a whole have been addressed in the literature; however, many more avenues of research exist to be explored.

One such avenue that has received some attention in the literature is addressing the role of correctional officers in the lives of inmates. Past literature has portrayed correctional officers as punitive and not interested in the rehabilitation of the inmates whom they supervise (e.g., Sykes, 1958). However, more recent literature has expanded this view to encapsulate two separate ways of conceptualizing the work of correctional officers: the 'hack' approach and the human services approach (Hemmens & Stohr, 2000). The hack approach to correctional work is the more traditional approach that is both power driven and not interested in rehabilitation. Conversely, the human services approach emphasizes the service that is given to inmates, advocating for inmates, and assisting inmates in their living in a correctional environment (Lombardo, 1989). These two separate and distinct approaches to correctional work reside together "in a system espousing the seemingly contradictory directives of punishment and rehabilitation" (Hemmens & Stohr, 2000, p. 331). The role conflict that is inherent in performing duties from such distinctly different roles is inherent in the system in which correctional officers work.

Regardless of the role conflict that is present in the correctional system, correctional officers play a quintessential role in the correctional system. For many years the importance of the role of correctional officers in the lives of correctional residents has been given attention in the literature (e.g., Reid, 1976). However, with this importance also comes concern. For example, the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act (United States Department of Justice, 1974) cited a concern with under-trained juvenile correctional workers in that these "inadequately trained staff in such courts, services, and

facilities are not able to provide individualized justice or effective help.” The literature of more than twenty years ago called for guards to be more than “mere custodial officers” and cited the importance of correctional officers in assisting in the establishment of a “rehabilitative atmosphere” (Reid, 1976). Correctional guards are being asked to perform tasks that are often at odds with each other. This group is asked to help provide the behavioral control and security that a correctional facility needs to operate, while at the same time provide an environment that is conducive to rehabilitation. Skills are needed in methods of detainment, but there also exists a current need for correctional officers to engage in training that improves “interpersonal, counseling, supervisory, and management skills” (OJJDP, 1996). A majority of the training for correctional officers is spent understanding behavioral and institutional control, as opposed to using verbal skills to effectively listen to and understand resident issues and concerns. The call for corrections officers to use communication skill in order to “defuse and control” confrontational situations in the correctional facility (American Correctional Association, 1992b), is one that is well intended. However, correctional officers receive insufficient training in the skill that is necessary to diffuse such situations.

Though the problem of inadequately trained correctional workers has been highlighted in the literature, little attention has been given to ameliorate this concern. This paucity of attention has led prison guards to not only feel little support from administrators and superiors, but also to feel they have a lack of management skills and techniques (Pogrebin, 1987). In part, the identified need of more management skills and techniques can be met with the implementation and monitoring of a program that

emphasizes the importance of interpersonal communication and teaches effective interpersonal communication. With the increased emphasis on rehabilitation in prisons and with the increasing value that is being placed on psychological services in forensic settings, psychologists are being called to provide such training for correctional staff (Byrne, Byrne, & Howells, 2001). However, specifying what to target with this training is an essential step in developing helpful interventions in a correctional system. The goal in the intervention is, in the end, to affect some change in the correctional environment, which should be evidenced by changes in inmate behaviors.

If correctional officers ‘must actively control inmates and their activities every moment of the day’ (American Correctional Association, 1992a, p. 20), and if inmate behavior in correctional facilities is frequently oppositional or disruptive, inherent conflict exists between the guard and the inmate. The importance of this conflict in the correctional system can be seen in the attention that the guard/resident relationship has received in the literature (Myers, 2000). Consistent with the emphasis on these relationships, Braswell (1992, p. 3) noted, ‘more than any specific systematic approach... the quality and credibility of relationships offenders have with treatment staff and significant others [such as correctional officers] may well have the greater... influence’ in the rehabilitative components of a correctional facility. Yet, if the relationships between officer and inmate are predominated by conflict, the rehabilitative aspects of correctional facilities diminish. Correctional personnel have been found to take a punitive orientation toward inmates and inmate behaviors (Bazemore, Dicker, & Al-Gadheeb, 1994). This punitive interactional dynamic can dominate the relationship

between correctional officer and inmate, thus reducing the rehabilitation component of prisons. Because of the importance of the relationship between correctional officer and resident, and because this relationship is typically one that is fraught with conflict, a needed aspect of training for correctional officers falls in the area of interpersonal skill training.

The need for interpersonal training among correctional guards is at odds with the notion of the ‘hack’ approach to working with inmates. In fact, articles calling for the need for “specialized training with residents and other staff,” such as interpersonal skill training (Camp, 1991, p. 170), also call for more training in “psychological coercion” (p. 169) and “military style discipline” (p. 171). Thus, though there is a need for interpersonal skill training among correctional officers, this training also occurs in an environment that maintains a heavy emphasis on coercion, control, and management. Myers (2000) noted that certain “basic” skills (e.g., skills such as report writing, court testimony, detention standards, etc.) are emphasized in the initial training of correctional officers. Attention has only recently been given to adding training that is “designed to reduce conflict between [correctional] personnel and their clientele [e.g., communication training]” (p. 185). The training standards in correctional facilities emphasize how to maintain a secure environment through control and coercion and de-emphasize (or fail to address) the importance of communication and interpersonal skills in the work of correction officers. The importance of relationships between correctional officers and residents is highlighted in the literature; yet the conflictual nature of this relationship is also highlighted in the literature. The need for additional training for correctional officers

follows from this discrepancy in the relationships between correctional officer and resident.

Psychoeducational training provided to correctional officers by psychologists not only teaches skill, but can also be viewed as a systemic intervention to indirectly affect the lives of correctional residents. Utilizing training groups for correctional staff highlights the importance of the correctional guard in the prison system and highlights the importance of groupwork to the professional identity of a Counseling Psychologist. The relationship between Counseling Psychology and groupwork is receiving increasing attention in the literature (e.g., Gilbert & Shmukler, 1996). Further, intervening with guards, can also be seen as emphasizing prevention in the lives of residents and may help develop an environment that is more open for rehabilitation. Beyond the effects that may be elicited in guards, changing the guard may prevent many of the disruptive behaviors that are commonly associated with prison environments.

Statement of the Problem

As noted above, the importance of the correctional officer's role in a correctional facility is established in the literature base. Further, the need for increased interpersonal skills training, in addition to the training that correctional officers already receive is also contained in the literature. Calls remain for interventions in prisons that affect change at various levels. One such level that warrants current attention is the role of the correctional officer in the prison environment. Though some interventions for correctional guards have been presented in the literature (e.g., Groeneveld & Gerrard, 1985; Sovronsky & Shapiro, 1989), there are a very limited number of such interventions

that address the interpersonal skills of correctional guards. The training of guards focuses heavily on “the primary goal of security” and provides insufficient training for the “secondary goal of enabling change” in the inmates with whom correctional officers work (American Correctional Association, 1992b, p. 46). Though priorities in the role of correctional officers need to be established and though safety is tantamount in a correctional environment, additional training is needed to help correctional officers develop skills in helping to enable change in a secure environment. For correctional guards to be defined as “rehabilitation agents” as is called for in the literature (Ellis, 1993), change is needed.

Purpose of the Study

This study provides an examination of a brief psychoeducational group intervention that attempted to improve the social skills of a sample of correctional officers who work in youth detention centers. Specifically, this group intervention is designed to introduce correctional guards to (1) the importance of interpersonal skills, (2) the use of interpersonal skills in a youth detention facility, (3) the concept of empathy, (4) the use of empathy in a youth detention facility, (5) a model of adolescent development, and (6) an introduction to the purpose of behavior and misbehavior. It was expected that through these group sessions, correctional officers would develop a better understanding of interpersonal skills, a better ability to use interpersonal skills in a detention setting, a better understanding of empathy, and an understanding of how to use empathy in a correctional setting. The group intervention consisted of six sessions, each lasting approximately seventy-five minutes each. These sessions provided didactic instruction

and modeling of the importance of interpersonal skills and empathy in a correctional setting, while also providing group members (correctional guards) opportunities to practice the use of interpersonal skills in a controlled setting. A conceptual overview of the model that influenced the development of the LEADERS program is presented in Appendix A. Further, though the didactic content contained in the group protocol presented in Chapter 2 is quintessential to the functioning of the LEADERS group, there was an equal emphasis placed on the process of the group format itself. The role of the group leader was to present information that was derived from the current literature base, and to serve as a facilitator of group process. Finally, the statistical analyses that are included in this study allow for an empirical evaluation of the effectiveness of the group as well as providing information about the relationship of constructs included in this study (empathy, interpersonal orientation to corrections work, and level of social interest).

Research Questions

Research Question #1: Will an interpersonal skill training group improve the interpersonal orientation of correctional officers?

H₁: An Interpersonal skill training group improves the interpersonal orientation of correctional officers.

Research Question #2: Will an interpersonal skill training group increase the level of empathy that correctional guards have for residents?

H₂: An Interpersonal skill training group improves the level of empathy that correctional officers have for residents.

Research Question #3: Does increased interpersonal skill among guards lead to decreases in disruptive resident behavior?

H₃: Increased interpersonal skill among guards leads to decreased disruptive resident behavior?

Research Question #4: Does increased interpersonal skill among guards lead to fewer counselor requests?

H₄: Interpersonal skill training groups leads to fewer counselor requests.

Research Question #5: Does increased interpersonal skill among guards lead to fewer nurse visits among residents?

H₅: Interpersonal skill training groups leads to fewer nurse visits among residents.

Research Question #6: Are juvenile correctional officers less empathic than the sample used to norm an empathy measure.

H₆: Juvenile Correctional Officers are less empathic than the sample used to norm an empathy measure.

Research Question #7: Is Social Interest related to empathy among correctional officers?

H₇: Social Interest is positively related to empathy among correctional officers.

Research Question #8: Is Social Interest related to a human service approach to correctional officers' work?

H₈: Social Interest is positively related to a human service approach to correctional officers' work.

Operational Definition of Terms

Empathy. Empathy is a multidimensional set of constructs that deals with an individual's responsivity to others (Davis, 1983), This construct consists of four separate, discernable constructs, which are as follows:

1. **Perspective Taking-** The tendency to adopt the point of view other people in everyday life.
2. **Fantasy-** The tendency to transpose oneself into the feelings and actions of fictitious characters in books, movies, and plays
3. **Empathic Concern-**The tendency to experience feelings of warmth, compassion, and concern for other people.
4. **Personal Distress-** Feelings of personal unease and discomfort in reaction to the emotions of others.

Interpersonal Skill Training. Interpersonal skill training is a specific type of training that intends to improve the effectiveness of communication between two individuals, or two groups of individuals. This training will allow for individuals to "talk among themselves about their communication, using concepts and language they can understand" (Allred, 1992, p. 183) in order to improve their ability to related to others.

Correctional Officer. A correctional officer is an individual employed by a correctional center whose primary responsibility is to maintain the security of the center and who supervise many of the daily tasks of correctional residents (adapted from American Correctional Association, 1992b).

Correctional Resident. A correctional resident is an individual who is being detained at a correctional facility for an illegal offense.

Social Interest. This construct is best described as “the willingness to participate in the give and take of life and to cooperate with others and be concerned about their welfare” (Dinkmeyer, Dinkmeyer, & Sperry, 1987). At its basic level, social interest is an expression of interest for others and for the welfare of others.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE AND CONSTRUCTS

The aim of this study is to develop a six-session group designed to address the work of juvenile correctional officers (JCOs), their communication with the adolescent residents, and constructs relating to the adolescent residents themselves. The impetus for this study is based both in the literature and in needs noted by staff and professionals working in correctional facilities that serve juvenile offenders. A review of the literature revealed little research that directly addresses the specific topic of psychoeducational groups with juvenile correctional officers. In order to develop an effective psychoeducational group for this population, two bodies of literature were reviewed. First, literature that addresses correctional officers and the correctional environment are discussed. Secondly, the theoretical approaches that support the intervention described by this study are presented. Then, studies involving effective communication with adolescents and constructs related to adolescent development are reviewed. Finally, the rationale supporting the six content areas of the LEADERS model is synthesized from this review of the literature, and the resulting sessions are outlined. The research that is included in this chapter influenced the development of the six LEADERS sessions, and it supports the need for this type of intervention with correctional officers.

Correctional Officers

The importance of the correctional officers role in developing and maintaining an environment that is both secure and encouraging of treatment is well documented; the correctional officer is expected to interact with inmates in a manner that is hospitable and supportive, while also operating in a manner that provides a sense of management and control of a secure facility (Pogrebin, 1978). These disparate roles often place the correctional officer in a difficult position. Further, though correctional officers have been viewed as “agents of social control” or sources of social influence in prison settings, research has determined that their personality profiles cannot be discriminated from the individuals they are intended to manage (Holland, Heim, & Holt, 1976). Thus, in some ways, the agent of social influence in prison settings is not different from the individuals who are being influenced (the inmates).

In addition to role conflict and personality variables that affect correctional officer interactions with inmates, these officers are being asked to help control a tumultuous and, at times, dangerous, environment. Individuals working in a prison setting engage in a “psychologically challenging experience” because of the “significant affective arousal, monitoring of the impact of feelings like fear, anger, helplessness, hopelessness, depression, denial, and psychic numbing” that can be an aspect of working in a forensic setting (Maier, Bernstein, & Musholt, 1989, p. 29). A significant proportion of correctional guards have been found to consider their occupation stressful and are not fully satisfied with their occupational role (Lindquist & Whitehead, 1986). The high levels of stress, burnout, and work dissatisfaction that are associated with the role of

correctional officers, possibly contribute to the higher risk for suicide for correctional officers when this occupational group is compared to other occupational categories (Stack & Tsoudis, 1997). In summary, the literature suggests that prison guards may experience stress that negatively affects their behavior with inmates. Further, the literature also seems to suggest that environments in which correctional officers work is stressful and provides a low level of reward. If Lewin's (1951) formula is correct, and behavior is a function of personality and environment, correctional guards may be at-risk to be an impediment in the rehabilitation of inmates.

The combination of personality factors and environment factors that influence guard behavior is a difficult set of variables to manage when it comes to relationships with inmates. The famous prison study by Zimbardo (1973) demonstrates the salient forces that affect the roles that correctional guards and residents have when in a correctional environment. Even in a simulated prison environment, individuals who were assigned to correctional officer roles became more power and authority oriented and individuals assigned to correctional residents became more passive and demoralized. These interactional characteristics may lead to the finding that prison guards are more likely to support "incapacitation and retribution over rehabilitation as a motive for incarceration" (Cullen, Lutze, Link, & Wolfe, 1989). In fact, past research solely highlighted the punitive emphasis of correctional workers (Bazemore, Dicker, & Al-Gadheeb, 1994). However, more recent research suggests that correctional officers take multiple perspectives on their work; perspectives that include the role historically

ascribed to this group (the role of the punitive ‘hack’), but also include an emphasis on human relations in their work with residents (Hemmens & Stohr, 2000).

Interventions with Correctional Officers

Correctional officers have more face-to-face contact with inmates than any other correctional staff. Partly because of this abundance of time, various agencies have placed calls for improving the training for correctional officers. For example, the National Juvenile Detention Association (NJDA) has recently placed a call for improving the standards in juvenile detention facilities. Specifically, this call indicates,

Accountability-based interventions change juvenile offenders through healthy relationships with healthy adults. Staff training remains the most cost-effective strategy of integrating these accountability based principles with the development of good people in juvenile confinement and custody facilities. (National Juvenile Detention Association, n.d.).

The importance of staff training is emphasized in this call to develop new standards to improve the effectiveness of juvenile detention facilities. This call is echoed by the Office for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (1996), which cites a need for “continual professional development and adjustments in training curriculums” for detention workers. The emphasis of providing training for correctional officers is not a newly developed emphasis. A review of the literature indicates several interventions have been designed to train and to intentionally address various roles that correctional officers play in the prison culture.

Training correctional officers provides a mechanism for psychologists to “maximize therapeutic effectiveness by training the staff” (Ackerman, 1972, p. 364). Past attention has been given to such training by psychologists in hopes that a systemic change could be afforded by addressing the role of the correctional officer. Ackerman (1972) implemented a group for correctional workers that helped to ameliorate the interpersonal dynamics that operate between correctional officers, while at the same time providing a vehicle to cope with the occupational stress that is inherent for correctional officers. Though no empirical methods were employed to assess the effectiveness of this group approach, the author noted that the group was helpful in increasing group members’ comfort and level of empathy with each other. Further, though the interpersonal dynamics between correctional officers may have been addressed, the impact on the correctional facility or on the residents was not addressed.

Past research has also been designed to affect change in the race relations between correctional officers and between correctional officers and correctional residents. Wittmer, Lanier, and Parker (1976) designed a group intervention/workshop in order to continue to affect a change in the correctional system by “foster[ing] better communication between Black and White prison guards and between guards and inmates of a different race” (p. 306). Though no empirical methods were used in the implementation of these groups, there is some indication that the effects of the groups may have been attenuated by the influence of guards who did not attend the program (“old heads”), who encouraged the group participants to denigrate the importance of the skills they learned during the group process. However, self-reports following the training

groups indicated that group members noted the training was effective in affecting their views and that this effect will translate into their work as a correctional officer.

There is limited research conducted specifically to address the role of interpersonal and empathic communication between guard and resident. Janoka and Scheckenbach (1978) designed an extensive, forty-hour interpersonal skills training program that emphasized the role of developing empathy and empathic responses. This program was determined to be effective in improving correctional officers' empathic responses from a pre-test measure to a post-test measure. Further, participants in the training program also showed a higher level of empathic responses when compared to correctional officers who did not receive such training. In a similar vein, Groeneveld and Gerrard (1985) implemented a brief (one day workshop) interpersonal skills training program for correctional personnel that improved group members empathy scores from pre-test to post-test. Few studies exist in which interpersonal skills training programs or groups are used with correctional personnel. However, these two studies demonstrate some promise in implementing an interpersonal skills training program for correctional officers.

The importance of implementing training programs with correctional staff can be seen in the intent of such programs. Wittmer, Lanier, and Parker (1976) noted, "before prison reform and rehabilitation can occur, attitudes on the part of correctional guards must change" (p. 302). An important impetus of change in the prison system can be seen in the role of the correctional officer. For example, in a program proposed for mentally ill offenders, researchers note the importance of training and change at multiple levels,

especially in encouraging an active role by the correctional officers in helping to establish an environment that is conducive for rehabilitation (Cooke & Cooke, 1982). Further, programs have been designed to help correctional officers become better equipped to respond to residents who may become suicidal while incarcerated, with the ultimate aim being to help correctional officers to be better equipped to respond effectively to suicidal inmates (Sovronsky & Shapiro, 1989). Again, though a limited number of articles exist that address the role of training with correctional officers, the research that does exist seems to point to the importance of the role of correctional officers in helping to establish the culture or atmosphere of rehabilitation in a correctional facility. Ellis (1993) indicated that correctional officers have a key position in helping or diminishing the effectiveness of rehabilitation in correctional facilities. Thus, providing programs to increase the skill of correctional officers is crucial in helping to develop a larger, contextual shift in the correctional system.

What is notable about this review of the literature is that there is a paucity of articles that address the role of training correctional officers. Further, a majority of these articles are dated (published in the 1970s and early 1980s). There is a current emphasis on the understanding of the importance of the correctional officer's role in the prison system and there is an established need for interpersonal training for correctional workers. Despite this importance and this need, there is little attention given to designing programs to increase the interpersonal skill or empathic skill of correctional officers. This disparity (in what is called for and what is being implemented) is an opportunity for intervention and prevention that can affect change in the correctional system as a whole.

Theoretical Impetus

Beyond the understanding of the importance of the role of correctional officers in establishing an environment that is conducive to rehabilitation, there is a theoretical justification for developing training that addresses interpersonal skills and empathy training. The role of the correctional officer is comparable to that of teacher or guardian (surrogate parent) when an individual is incarcerated. Given this type of relationship, two theoretical stances add greatly to conceptualizing the importance of correctional officers. Both Social Learning Theory and Adlerian Theory highlight the importance of healthy communication between children and caregivers. In this regard, psychologists can co-opt correctional officers to be agents of change in the lives of correctional residents. Both the structure of the groups to be implemented in the LEADERS program, and the theoretical justification for these groups are heavily influenced by Social Learning and Adlerian Theories. Though contributions of each, and through a blending of these theories, an intervention addressing communication skills for guards can be developed.

Social Learning Theory

This theoretical orientation, initially developed by Albert Bandura (1977) cites the importance of observational learning patterns in the development and maintenance of behavior. Bandura cited a triadic reciprocal interaction among the environment, personal factors (such as beliefs), and behavioral actions as key to understanding learning, which can occur through the observation of others behaviors as well as through one's own experiences. Through experiences, individuals develop a sense of self-efficacy, which

allows individuals to deal with various experiences in life (Bandura, 1986). The importance of learning in this model is in the interactions that individuals have with one another. Learning can be vicarious in this approach, as we learn from the models in our environment. A model, such as a correctional officer, can greatly affect the behaviors of those observing (the correctional residents). Thus, this theoretical approach directly relates to the importance of the interactions between correctional officers and residents. Their relationship and interactions become reciprocal, in which a response of a correctional officer to an act by a resident becomes a stimulus for the resident to continue or escalate their behavior. Further, harsh responses by correctional officers become models for residents' templates for interacting with others.

A working model of the Social Learning Theory applied to delinquent youth has been developed (Patterson, Dishion, & Chamberlain, 1993). This model cites the importance of the family in the development of antisocial behavior in children. For example, inept discipline on the part of parents (ineffective parent discipline) and inadequate parental monitoring of their children was found to be related to child antisocial behavior. Through the tenets of Social Learning Theory, these authors developed an intervention that sought to change child antisocial behavior through training parents in more effective parenting practices. Affecting the working of the family system through the training of parents in more effective parenting practices was found to be a helpful way of changing child behavior. To change the behavior of the child, a change was sought in the child's environment. In a similar fashion, to change a child's behavior

in a correctional setting, change must be sought in the caregivers; the correctional officers.

The use of Social Learning Theory in working with troubled youth is not new. Fleischman, Horne, and Arthur (1983) developed a group intervention for families based on Social Learning tenets. According to Social Learning Theory, the first precursor to the development of antisocial behavior is often an unhealthy interaction between parents and children, which provide “payoffs to children for coercive and antisocial behavior” (Dishion, Patterson, Stoolmiller, & Skinner, 1991). The importance of this interaction has lead researchers to develop interventions that attempt to make change in the family system and family behaviors or interactions. Interactions between correctional guards and correctional residents have been shown to be very important in a correctional setting, in a similar (though temporary) way as parents. Social Learning Theory, as applied to working with delinquent children, has been shown to help reduce aggressive and disruptive child behavior (Sayger, Horne, Walker, & Passmore, 1988). An aspect of this training focuses heavily on the communication between parent and child. What is being modeled and what is being rewarded in a family system is important to consider, as it is in a correctional setting.

Stressing the importance of healthy communication, and the understanding of rewards and punishment in a social setting, this theoretical approach provides an impetus for communication training with correctional officers. Further, the Social Learning approach has also been used in order to help in the communication of empathy (Dalton & Sunbald, 1976; Dalton, Sunbald, & Hylbert, 1973). Social Learning Theory provides

both an impetus for addressing the dynamics between correctional officers and correctional residents, and a reason for providing an intervention in a training format. Bandura (1977) cited the importance of attention, retention, motor reproduction, and motivation in the effectiveness of training. Group participants will be given opportunities for the first three in the group format. The fourth is more problematic, because it is possible that correctional officers will not come to the group motivated to tend to their interpersonal communication styles. However, if, as Social Learning Theory postulates, that individuals learn because the “learning provides benefits” (Bell, 1994), then there must be some benefit to the correctional officers to implement the new strategies that will be taught in the LEADERS program. This program must offer the correctional officers something tangible that will aid them in their daily jobs. This benefit can be seen in that providing more effective communication to correctional residents will have results on the residents themselves, much in the same way that parent training has been shown to affect behavioral changes in children (Patterson, Dishion, & Chamberlain, 1993).

Adlerian Theory

In essence, Adler’s approach to psychology emphasizes “people are indivisible, social, decision-making beings whose actions and psychological movement have purpose” (Dinkmeyer, Dinkmeyer, & Sperry, 1987, p. 9). This approach is teleological in nature in that it ascribes purpose to all human behaviors as they relate to a goal; behavior has meaning when placed in a social context. Adlerians believe in a holistic approach to working with individuals in that they believe in working with the unity of the individual in their moving toward their life goals; hence the phrase Individual Psychology

is often ascribed to the Adlerian approach (Individual is from the Latin *individuum* meaning undivided or indivisible). There is an innate drive in humans to find a significant place in society, starting first with the family of origin. We strive to gain a sense of belonging in those groups on which we place value and express our “fundamental expression of human nature” in expressing this sense of belonging (Dinkmeyer et al., 1987, p. 11). Therefore, Adlerians place the utmost importance on the expression of mental health in the expression of social interest and the expression of pathology as becoming discouraged to the point that one is not able to find a place of significance in society in a socially constructive style (Prochaska & Norcross, 1999). As we find our place in society, we are able to move to the central life tasks of work, friendship, and love (later to be expanded to include spirituality and defining and affirming one’s self—Sweeney, 1989). In essence, the Adlerian approach is one that places utmost importance on the social nature of humans and the importance of being encouraged to express interest in others.

Though the communication patterns in the family of origin have been given much attention in the Adlerian literature base (e.g., Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1976), the importance of an expression of social interest in the form of good communication skills between adults and children can be clearly seen in this theoretical approach. Correctional guards become caregivers to correctional residents while they are detained; thus their interest, expressed in their communication with residents with whom they work is important to consider. Jaakelainen (2000) cites the importance of social relationships in

the Adlerian approach to psychology. This importance of relationships must be stressed between correctional guards and the residents with whom they work.

Ansbacher (1968) points to a three-stage development of social interest. The first of these three stages is an innate desire to express social interest for others; the second is the development of social skills, including gaining an understanding of one's self, gaining empathy skills, gaining communication skills, gaining cooperation skills, and gaining skills of responsible contribution to society; the final stage is an attitudinal approach to implementing the skills learned in stage 2. It is possible that correctional guards may not have the innate social interest that would be necessary to be interested in gaining the skills in stage 2. However, it is in stage two that skills training (especially in communication skills and empathy skills) with correctional officers is warranted.

Though an Adlerian skills training approach presupposes the mental health of the group participants (as expressed by social interest) (Nicoll, 1994), there remains a theoretical justification for such social skills training with a group in need of such training. In this mindset, it is important for correctional officers to learn the basic Adlerian concepts such as the purposiveness of behavior (e.g., the goals of misbehavior), good communication skills, and how to set appropriate boundaries for behavior (Merrell, 1987). Further, Merrell cites the importance of striking a balance between caregivers providing appropriate encouragement and appropriate limit setting. However, it seems that much of the correctional officers' training has spent time on the latter, and denigrated the importance of the former.

Adlerian theory directly impacted the development of the LEADERS group protocol in two ways. First, the inclusion of discussions of teleology and the purpose, or goals, of misbehavior, was directly aimed at providing a lens through which the residents' behavior could be conceptualized. The second direct Adlerian influence on the development of the LEADERS program is in the form of a model for communication that was drawn from an Adlerian perspective. Allred (1992) provides a conceptual framework for important tenets of Adlerian theory to include in communication training. This model denotes the importance of horizontal (or equal) communication, and the problems with strictly vertical ("superior-inferior") communication. Though there are some superior-inferior aspects that are innate between correctional officer and resident, important aspects for training for effective communication can be gleaned from Allred's article. In sum, this model provides examples of types of vertical communication and examples of types of horizontal communication and allows group members to distinguish the difference between the types of communication for themselves. The specific types of vertical and level communication discussed are presented in Appendix B.

That skills training with correctional officers will change their behavior denotes that they are motivated to make a change in their behavior (as evidenced by how they relate to the residents). This motivation may not be present. Though it may be that correctional guards are discouraged to the point that they do not express much social interest toward residents it remains important to insure that the skills are given to correctional guards in much the same way as Adlerian parent groups work to give parents the skills to communicate more effectively with their children. However, it must always

be kept in mind that if such training is not successful, an intervention that deals with more “core” issues of social interest and encouragement may be warranted for correctional guards. The groups that are proposed here presuppose that correctional guards can be taught and are willing to learn more effective communication skills. This type of training can make their work more rewarding, more enjoyable, and more effective.

Training with Parents and Teachers

The notion of teaching interpersonal skills and empathy training are well established in the literature. Specifically in relationship to children and adolescents, this skill training has been widely used with both teachers and parents. The impetus for training parents and teachers in such skills is not only in the remediation of problematic behavior that can occur as a result of parents and teachers relating differently to children and adolescents, but also in the preventive role that such training can afford. This focus on prevention is not only consistent with the formation of the field of Counseling Psychology, but is a focus that has been emphasized in work with adolescents for some time (e.g., Sprinthall, 1984). Though psychologists can immediately provide such communication skills directly to the adolescents with whom they work, their efforts will be maximized through the training of the individuals with whom adolescents spend a majority of their time (parents and teachers).

Past research has noted that empathy training has been used as an intervention to improve problematic relationships between students and teachers (Black, 1984). The impetus for this study was students’ feelings of not being heard and being misunderstood

by their teachers and by the school system. The empirical validation of this program is provided by Black and Phillips (1982), in which a significant improvement was noted in group participants' communication of empathy. Thus, there is evidence that using a psychoeducational training program for teachers can improve the quality and quantity of empathic communication between teachers and students.

Training teachers to use more effective communication skills is an important factor in helping them develop better relationships to their teachers and can also be an important aid in helping teachers become more effective in promoting learning (Rice & Smith, 1993). Using what has been learned in the counseling and psychology literature concerning effective communication not only improves communication patterns between teachers and their students, but this training also has a real impact on the learning of the student. Effective interpersonal training programs have been developed for use with teachers of students with significant developmental disabilities, such as Autism (Dyer, Williams, & Luce, 1991). These programs emphasize the importance of providing training for teachers that help improve their communication skills in the natural environments of the students in which they work. In this sense, the communication training affects changes that impact the everyday life of students. In a similar vein, programs that are developed to improve communication between correctional officers and correctional residents could have the ability to affect change in everyday life for the residents. The environment becomes an important factor in the improvement of behavior and the encouragement of rehabilitation, in the same way that training teachers in

interpersonal and empathy skills helps to create an environment more conducive to learning.

Similar to the training of teachers, programs have been developed to increase the interpersonal skills of parents in their relationships with children. Including empathy training as a key aspect of parent training programs is not a new concept. Historically, research that has included empathy training as key component of parent training programs has noted lasting changes in the participating parents' ability to respond empathically to their child (Therrien, 1979). Programs such as Troubled Families (Fleischman, Horne, & Arthur, 1983) and STEP (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1976) have several chapters devoted to the development of helpful communication between parents and children. These programs (though from different theoretical orientations) place an emphasis on the importance of parent-child communication training in their parent education programs.

Further, empathy is regarded as an important prerequisite of effective parenting and empathy training has been suggested as an important component of the prevention and of parental child abuse and an important factor for treatment of abusive parents (Wiehe, 1997). More specifically, parental problems with empathic responding have been found to contribute to child abuse (Acton & During, 1992). Just as the 'influence that parents have on children is undisputed' (Therrien, 1979), the importance of the role of the correctional officer in the lives of residents is undisputed (Hemmens & Stohr, 2000).

Correctional officers function as a caregiver to residents while these residents are in the care of the correctional facility. They take many roles in the lives of the residents who they supervise. The literature that focuses on communication and empathy training with parents and teachers is relevant to the caretaker role in which correctional officers function. In that regard, as well as in regard to the importance of the role of correctional officer in the establishing of an atmosphere of rehabilitation, there is a need for interpersonal skill and empathy training with correctional officers.

Introducing the Six Sessions of the LEADERS group

There is a need for providing training opportunities for prison personnel in the area of communication and interpersonal skills. Further, there are few empirical studies that delineate either a group protocol for this training or a way of measuring the effectiveness of this training. A major component of the current study is the development of an actual group protocol that can be used with juvenile correctional officers. The empirical evaluation of this group protocol is an important scientific piece to the current study. However, it should be noted that the scientist-practitioner model heavily influences the entirety of this study, including the development of the protocol. The combination of this didactic group protocol combined with an emphasis of attending to the process of the group and the leadership of the group provides a balance of group protocol and groupwork skills. Nevertheless, delineating the influences of the material that is included in the LEADERS groups is an important aspect of this study. What follows in this section is a detailed explication of the six sessions that comprise the LEADERS group.

Why a group format?

Moving away from the individual approach that dominated the infancy of psychological and therapeutic theory, systems theory shifts the focus from the individual in isolation and to the individual in terms of their relationship within various systems. The impetus for this increased interest in systems in psychology was influenced by the fields of the 'hard' sciences (e.g., biology and physics). Prochaska and Norcross (1999) define a system as "a set of units or elements that stand in some consistent relationship with one another" (p. 359). A change in one part of the system will inevitably affect other parts of the system, because of the "consistent relationship" of the parts that comprise the system. For example, if we look at the field of ecology, there are many ecosystems and organisms that live in constant relationship to one another in a rain forest. An impact on one part of the ecosystem, or a disease in a certain species, can have direct and indirect impact on the rest of the system.

As applied directly to psychology, an individual does not exist outside the confines of their relationships with others (if systems theory is taken to the extreme). Our behavior affects others, which affects our behavior, and so on. If we place people in a circle and have them hold hands and then pull one part of the circle, the entire circle will be affected. Our behaviors do not occur in isolation, they occur in a family system, a cultural system, etc. This approach moves us beyond even describing the individual in their context and shifts the focus to the system, a Gestalt that is more than the sum of its parts.

The impact of systems theory to the field of group work could be most clearly seen in combination with the rise of systems theory in general. For example, Lewin's field theory, emphasizing the importance of human relationships, arose in the 1940s and 1950s. The systemic approach began to encourage psychologists to look beyond individual group members and to focus on the entire group and the dynamics of the group (as opposed to an amalgam of individual dynamics). In this sense, the group can have a personality of its own and can be more than the members that comprise the group. The systems impact in group work allowed psychologists to begin to focus on how group member's behavior affects group process, group participation, etc. A systemic approach allows group therapists to shift from giving individual treatment to multiple individuals to using the dynamics that are present in the group as a therapeutic tool in itself. The impact of group members on other group members and the impact of group members on the personality or demeanor of the group must be a focus of a group intervention as a result of the impact of systems theory. Not only are groups an opportunity to learn and practice new behaviors, or ways of repeating family of origin structure and issues, but also groups become therapeutic because they are systems. Yalom (1995) writes about the importance of interpersonal learning in groups and part of this learning occurs in the context of the group system. Group members' behaviors do not occur in isolation, their behaviors occur in the system of the group. This subsystem became an avenue for therapeutic exploration and intervention as a result of the impact of systems theory.

Similar to the impact of systems theory in group work, the field of family therapy was also affected this theoretical approach. The impact in this field is most obvious, as

systemic theory and approaches are inextricably linked to family work. In the opening page of her 1964 text, Virginia Satir stated “when one person in a family (the patient) has pain which shows up in symptoms, all family members are feeling this pain in some way” (p. 1). Further Minuchin in his 1974 text emphasizes the importance of joining the family system “and then us[ing] himself to transform it [t he system]” (p. 14). Individuals are no longer seen in isolation from the behaviors and attitudes that occur in their family, but systems theory argues that there is circular causality in families. An ‘identified patient’s’ behavior serves some purpose i n the family and is somehow maintained by the family structure, or family’s reaction, etc. To understand the individual, we must understand the system in which the individual lives, or operates. The impact on family therapy is to assess the system and the role of the system in creating or maintaining targeted behaviors. The locus of change will then become the system as a whole; change the system in which the behavior occurs, or the relationships contained in the family system, and the targeted behavior will change. This systems model (though applied to families in the above references) is at the heart of group work. The group work model allows for a unique training opportunity in allowing both for the provision of didactic material in a group format and for the inclusion of the process variables in the group to provide practice, learning, and growth opportunities.

Groups allow for the inclusion of interpersonal dynamics between group members and between group members and the group leader to be used to provide movement within various types of groups. Gazda, Ginter, and Horne (2001) cite the importance of group work in that this form of intervention, “makes a direct attempt to modify attitudes and

behaviors by emphasizing extensive interpersonal involvement” among the group members (p. 5). Core aspects of a group intervention have been established by Yalom (1995), and are referred to as the therapeutic factors of group work. These factors are as follows: instillation of hope, universality, imparting information, altruism, the corrective recapitulation of the primary family group, development of socializing techniques, imitative behavior, interpersonal learning, group cohesiveness, catharsis, and existential factors. These factors serve as the fuel for the interpersonal learning that can occur in a group context. In addition to these therapeutic factors that lead to growth and change in group work, there is an additional notion of the group dynamics that led to growth and change within the group. These dynamics provide the forces that ultimately affect the outcome of the group itself (Dagley, Gazda, & Pistole, 1986). Thus, there is a need for the group leader to work at not only providing content areas and structure within the group, but there remains a need for the leader to continuously attend and remark on the process that occurs within the group context (Dagley, 1999). This emphasis on interpersonal process as well as interpersonal learning (and more traditional learning) is a central benefit of utilizing a group approach.

The emphasis of the current study is not in a therapeutic or counseling group. In fact, the best description of the intervention that is central to this study is a psychoeducational group. Though this group can be best described as a psychoeducational group experience, the role of group dynamics, group process, and the general tenets of group work remain quintessential to the design of the sessions themselves. Furr (2000) cites the importance of providing structure in a

psychoeducational group, in terms of content, group activities, and the evaluative process of the group itself. However, this researcher also notes the importance of the ‘delicate balance...between using group process skills to respond to group dynamics and maintaining the structure of the group’ (p. 29). Only with a combination of content and process will the goals of the group be achieved. Researchers have noted that only with the inclusion of process skills in group work can ‘psychoeducation be fully personalized and fully assimilated...’ (Ettinger, Vaughan, Fiedler, 1987). To that end, the role of the group leader in facilitating a group that possesses both content and process skills is quintessential to the growth and change that takes place as a result of groupwork. The role of processing is centrally a leader function that must be included in the conceptual framework of the group (Stockton, Moran, & Nitza, 2000). In part, a group format was chosen for the LEADERS group because of the combination of content and process that this format allows. Groups allow for the teaching of didactic information, while at the same time providing an opportunity to use group processing skills and group dynamics to spur growth in the members of the group. Even in groups that are traditionally thought of as ‘teaching’ groups (e.g., psychoeducational groups), the role of the group process has been noted and appreciated in the literature base.

Beyond the overall characteristics of systems theory and group work that influences the provision of the LEADERS program in a group format, there are specific aspects of correctional workers that call for this type of approach. As noted by (Hemmings & Stohr, 2000) there are separate approaches to correctional work that reside in modern corrections. These approaches often express themselves as “competing

cultures” within prisons and the prison system itself (Appelbaum, Hickey, Packer, 2001). There is a culture of treatment and rehabilitation and a culture of punishment within the same system (and often within the same individual within that system). It has long been noted that “before prison reform and rehabilitation can occur, attitudes on the parts of guards must change” (Wittmer, Lanier, & Parker, 1976). Specifically in relation to juvenile correctional officers there is a growing realization that this group often has a reduced chance of being conceptualized as part of the treatment team, per se (Holt, 2001), possibly leaving this group to conceptualize their position as one of only security. Thus, their role conflict within the position of being a correctional officer, but there is more support for the security aspect of this conflict, as opposed to the more treatment focused orientation. To change the attitude of the correctional officer is a complex process that is replete with role conflict, history, and systemic views of the role of a correctional officer. In addition to the role conflict, the role of the correctional officer is often one that is fraught with conflict and occasional danger with the residents they are intended to both control (from a security standpoint) and provide a venue for rehabilitation (from a treatment standpoint). Further, the organizational climate in many prisons that contributes to the use of force over other methods of working with correctional residents (Griffin, 1999). Certainly the correctional environment is one in which correctional officers feel a high level of stress (Finn, 1998), and possibly as a result of that stress, there is view in the literature of a subculture that is present among correctional officers (Lombardo, 1989). The current study attempted to bring together this subculture of correctional officers in a group format. This format is appropriate not only because of the

general principles of group work, but also because of the notion of a ‘band of brothers and sisters’ that make up the front lines of our correctional institutions. If group dynamics contribute to the subculture that develops among guards and if this subculture seems to be geared to punishment over treatment, an effective way to address this dynamic is with a group approach.

Thus, the present study was designed to be delivered in a group format. In this format, the qualities of the leader are important. Further, as important as the content that is being delivered in this group is the process that takes place between group members and group members and between group members and the group leader. Having addressed the question, why a group format for this program, what follows is a description of the six sessions along with the literature that influenced the creation of these sessions. The development of the LEADERS program was meant to be steeped in basic psychological principles as well as influenced by research areas such as developmental psychology, social learning, Adlerian psychology, communication training, counselor training, and psychological groupwork. Each of these influences can be seen in the literature that is presented below.

Session 1

The first group is an introduction to this series of group sessions that provide a focus on interpersonal skill training and empathy training. The purpose for this session is to introduce the ideas that will be discussed as a part of the intervention as well as providing a forum for the JCOs to discuss the stress and difficulties they experience in working with an offender population. The emphasis in this session is the importance of

the role of the correctional guard in the lives of the residents. The relationships that the correctional officers have with the residents are quintessential in the operation of the detention facility. Without cooperation between the officers and the residents, little can take place. An initial goal of this first session is to begin to provide a forum for JCOs to discuss their work environment and the difficulties of working with a juvenile offender population. One intention of this first session is to afford the JCOs an opportunity to think about the importance of their role in the lives of the residents.

The LEADERS group emphasizes the importance of good communication between resident and JCO. This session begins to set the tone for the overarching purpose of the LEADERS program by helping the JCOs process their role in the RYDC and their role in the lives of the residents. To this end, the first session will be an introduction of the concepts contained in the group; however, the majority of the first session is spent processing the professional role of the JCO and processing the importance of their relationship with the residents. The role of the group facilitator is to provide an open forum for the discussion of the stresses that are encountered by the JCOs. Further, the group facilitator will take a leadership position in the discussion of the importance of the JCOs' role in the RYDC. Research presented earlier in this chapter was highlighted in order to stress the importance of the JCOs' role in the lives of the residents. Further, the Hack and Human Service orientation of correctional officers (Hemmens & Stohr, 2000) will be explained and discussed with the group. In addition, the concepts of discernment (when to use what skills), interpersonal skills, and empathy will be discussed in detail with the JCOs. The goal for this discussion is to insure their

academic understanding of the primary concepts that the LEADERS program is intending to address. In essence, this didactic aspect of the first session helps to generate a common language which the group will use as the sessions continue.

At the conclusion of the first group, the group facilitator will invite the group members to discuss their “real world” experiences of communication in a correctional environment. The topic of discussion will be introduced as, “What is it like to work here?” Specifically, this group discussion is intended to provide a forum for the JCOs to discuss the difficulties in working with an often oppositional resident. It is important to stress to the correctional officers in this initial meeting that the intent of these series of groups is to add to their repertoire of skills from which they draw in working with a difficult population. The stress of their work is well noted in the literature, symbolizing the difficulty of the correctional officers occupation. However, with the skills being taught in this group, it is hoped that the correctional officers will be able to interact with the residents in a manner that is more conducive to their change and more conducive to preventing behavioral problems before they occur. JCOs will be asked to discuss their expectations for the group at the end of the first session; time will be allotted for a brief discussion of these expectations as a way to close the first session.

Session 2

The following sections provide a review of the literature relating to topics that will be presented to correctional officers in the LEADERS program. As indicated above, there is a need for new programs to be developed and implemented with correctional officers that directly address interpersonal skill and empathy training. Before discussing

specific aspects of interpersonal skill and empathy training with correctional officers, models of adolescent development and models of the development of delinquency will be presented in the LEADERS groups. It is important to provide an appropriate psychological backdrop for the developmental issues that adolescents face. In addition to providing a developmental perspective of “normal” adolescent development, it is also important to address specific developmental issues that contribute to adolescent antisocial behavior. Thus, it is important to provide a review of the literature that influenced the inclusion and the subsequent conceptualization of developmental concepts that will be included in the LEADERS program.

The overarching purpose for the second session of the LEADERS program is three-fold. The first purpose is to present the JCOs with an overview of normal adolescent development. The presentation of this developmental stage is to provide the JCOs with an idea of what can be expected in normal adolescent development, in order to provide a template for behaviors that can be commonly expected for this age group. The second purpose of this group is to present a model of the influences on and the etiology of delinquent behavior (Calhoun, Glaser, & Bartolomucci, 2001). Again, the introduction of this material to the JCOs is to provide them with information about specific issues that affect the development of delinquent behavior. Finally, the third purpose of this group is to introduce the Adlerian concept of the teleology, or purposiveness of behavior. In particular, the goals of children’s behavior (Dreikurs, 1964) are presented in this group. The purpose of introducing a teleological view is to provide the JCOs with an active

mechanism with which they can begin to conceptualize the behaviors of the correctional residents.

Santrock (1999) described adolescence as a “time of decision making and commitment, rather than a time of crisis and pathology” (p. 352). What is essential to convey in this portion of Session 2 is the developmental nature of adolescence as these individuals make decisions that will have major implications in their life (especially those who are being incarcerated for criminal activity). Erikson (1968) provides a backdrop for this discussion in his emphasis on the conflict between identity and identity confusion during adolescence. Beyond introducing Erikson in a didactic fashion, this discussion should emphasize the importance of adolescents struggling to find their identity, especially the difficulty of finding their identity during the crisis of being incarcerated.

The idea of crisis as an important engine in the development of adolescents is expounded by Marcia (1980), who discusses the importance of crisis and commitment in adolescent development. Through crisis and commitment, adolescents choose what is most meaningful and important to them and they begin to show an investment in their decisions. Marcia has noted that “exploration refers to the extent to which one has genuinely looked at and experimented with alternative directions and beliefs” while “commitment refers to the choice of one among several alternative paths...” (Marcia, 1994b, p. 73). Specifically, Marcia discusses four separate combinations of crisis and commitment: identity diffusion, identity foreclosure, identity moratorium, and identity achievement. This model of adolescent development, and these four phases of development will be explicated during this session. More than Marcia’s notion of the

importance of exploration and experience in the development of adolescent identity is his notion of the process of development itself. He noted ‘psychosocial development theory suggests that values that derive not from some structure of ethics superimposed on life, but which arise naturally within the expectable component of human development...’ (Marcia, 1994a, p. 44). Thus, development does not occur in a vacuum and is not predetermined to move along a specified path. Rather development is a combination of person and environment and is a continuing dance throughout life. This factor is crucial in terms of attempting to change the attributions of correctional officers. The fundamental attribution error (Ross, 1977) notes that we are more likely to make internal attributions for others’ negative behaviors. Certainly this may be true for correctional officer when they think about the lives of their residents. The challenge is to help the correctional officers entertain a more contextual understanding of the development of adolescent antisocial behavior.

What is emphasized to the JCOs is the opportunity for identity development that can be afforded during the crisis of being incarcerated. Further, being that the JCOs have an opportunity to influence the residents (just by the sheer time they spend with the residents), their role in aiding in the residents’ development is emphasized.

With the support of the JCOs, residents can be offered a chance to think through the crisis in a way that allows for commitment or connection to prosocial values. In addition, the section on adolescent development includes discussions of the following: Holmbeck’s (1998) notion that conflict with parents (and other authority figures) can be expected in this phase of development; the notion that this conflict actually has positive

consequences as adolescents are beginning to forge their own sense of identity and autonomy; the fact that some conflict can be expected as the residents' autonomy is being directly affronted by being incarcerated; and Elkind's (1978) concept of adolescent egocentrism (especially in relationship to how this concept can foster an adolescents indignation to authority figures and perceived injustices). The overarching message from this section of Session 2 is that the relationship with authority figures and the structure given by authority figures is essential. However, it is also to be expected that these relationships (those with individuals of authority) will be directly challenged by adolescents. If this challenge can be expected, ways of responding (other than arguing or escalating) can be chosen by the JCOs.

The presentation of antisocial behavior will pull from the etiological component of the JCAP model of adolescent delinquency (Calhoun et al., 2001). This model cites three major variables that influence the development and maintenance of delinquent behavior. These three variables are as follows: characteristics of the child, ecological variables, and interactions among these variables. Specific research will be presented to explicate the characteristics of the child that are thought to influence delinquent behavior. The four components of the ecological variables (Family, Peer, School, and Neighborhood) are presented in the form of the JCAP model (p. 133) as a method to discuss the various sources of ecological influences on a child's life. The main goal of the discussion of these variables is to allow a discussion of the positive and negative influences on these resident's lives. Following the presentation of this material, the direction of the discussion is returned to how the JCOs can be helpful given the myriad of

influences on the residents' lives. Further, it is hoped that this discussion will provide an inroad for an empathic discussion about the difficulties some of these children face. The JCAP model provides a coherent synthesis of the current literature base in the area of antisocial adolescent behavior. Further, this model readily lends itself to helping the correctional officers have a better understanding of the influences on the behavior of antisocial adolescents. In addition to the JCAP model, family processes in the families of antisocial adolescents will be mentioned (Patterson, Ramsey, & DeBaryshe, 1989); cognitive processes, such as decision making ability will be considered (Kazdin, 2000); and psychological correlates of antisocial adolescent behavior will be explored, such as impulsivity and hyperactivity comorbidity with antisocial behavior (Loeber, Farrington, Stouthamer-Loeber, Moffitt, & Caspi, 2001).

Finally, the Adlerian concept of the goals of misbehavior will be presented to the JCOs in this group. As important as the specific conceptualization of the behavior itself, the act of thinking about the motivations and actions of the residents will offer the JCOs an opportunity to avoid personalizing or making an internal, stable attribution about the resident's behavior. In other words, as they begin to think through the problem, they will avoid responding primarily from their own personal reactions. Driekurs (1964) summarizes these goals as the following: attention getting, struggle for power or superiority, desire to retaliate or get even, and the display of inadequacy of assumed disability. Further, Dinkmeyer, Dinkmeyer, and Sperry (1987) indicate that one advantage of thinking about behavior in such a way helps in "checking our own spontaneous reactions to such behavior..." (p. 15). This framework of thinking about

behavior in such a fashion has been used in parent training groups such as STEP (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1976) as a way to help parents ‘look at the results of the misbehavior, rather than just at the misbehavior’ (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1976, p. 9). In a similar vein, JCOs will be asked to look at motivating factors of resident’s behavior, rather than the behavior itself, in hopes that this analytical look at behavior will allow the JCOs to better equip themselves to counter or think about the behavior itself.

Following the presentation of these three content areas, the group leader should lead the participants in a discussion of how to apply the tenets presented in this session. Examples and role plays will be used in order have the JCOs think about developmental issues, specific issues related to the development of antisocial behavior, and the purpose of residents behavior. This session, ultimately, aims to provide three separate ways of thinking about adolescent behavior and then to help the JCOs apply what they have learned through role-plays.

Session 3

This group session begins to target the heart of the LEADERS program. The LEADERS group is intended to introduce basic tenets of interpersonal skill training, while also providing a forum for the correctional officers to practice implementing the interpersonal skills they are being taught. The initial aspect of this session is designed to define interpersonal skills for the JCOs, and to facilitate a conversation among the JCOs about how communication occurs in the RYDC (both from the JCOs to the residents, and from the residents to the JCOs). Finally, the introduction should emphasize that good

communication skills will help de-escalate difficult situations in the RYDC and help to make the JCOs more effective in their verbal communication with the residents.

Following the introduction of this session, there are two major teaching components to address in this session: (1) the SOLER model of communication (Egan, 1998) and (2) the introduction of Allred's Communication Map (Allred, 1992). The acronym SOLER represents behaviors that are considered nonverbal microskills in relating to another individual. The acronym stands for 'Squarely, Openly, Lean, Eye Contact, and Relaxed.' Egan (1998) discusses the importance of actively listening to individuals with whom we are interacting, both nonverbally (e.g., SOLER) and verbally. What is emphasized in this section is both the SOLER model of nonverbal behavior, and to emphasize the attention that should be given to the verbal and nonverbal messages of residents. Egan (1998) discusses four tiers of understanding communication: understanding verbal messages, understanding nonverbal behavior, understanding context of messages, and listening to parts of communication that can be challenged. Following the presentation of this material, the group participants will be given opportunities to practice the SOLER and interpersonal skills they have learned in this group in a role-play exercise with a partner. Specifically, group members will be asked to take turns in listening to their partner talk about his or her experiences at work (e.g., a difficult work situation, his or her best day at work, etc.). The group facilitator will monitor the conversations in order to insure that the participants are using the SOLER skills.

Following the completion of the SOLER role-play exercises, Allred's (1992) model of communication, which he entitled the Allred's Communication Map, will be

presented to the group members. Specifically, Allred indicates that his communication model, “provides a common model for strengthening communication” (p. 183). Having such a model enables people to talk among themselves about their communication, using concepts and language they can understand” (p. 183). Thus, this model allows for a discussion of meta-communication in a group format, and lends itself well for the purposes of the LEADERS group. More specifically, Allred’s model of communication separates communication patterns into “vertical communication” (which “may be necessary in specific situations,” but are often “destructive” to communication) and “level communication” (which is often “spoken with warmth, sincerity, empathy, and respect”) (p. 185 -188). Specific examples of vertical and horizontal communication are presented in Appendix B. Following the presentation of this material, a video segment will be shown in which a police officer is attempting to give an irate individual a citation for speeding. Though the individual who is receiving the citation becomes increasingly irate, the police officer remains calm and continues to “request” rather than “boss.” This videotape will be used discussed in order to provide an example of how to remain calm in an increasingly uncomfortable interpersonal interaction. Further, a discussion will be facilitated about discerning when to use vertical communication (e.g., when two residents are fighting) and when to use horizontal communication (e.g., when a resident will not make his bed).

What should be emphasized (from a group leader perspective) is that the more “academic,” or teaching, portions of this session are followed by experiential opportunities to further understand and practice the skills being taught in the group. The

intent of these experiential components is to use the group format as an opportunity to better understand the concepts being taught, to discuss the “real-world” implementation of the skills being taught, and to afford group participants an opportunity to practice the skills that they are being taught. Thus, the final activity of this session is to take part in one or two role-plays that give the JCOs an opportunity to practice their skills in a controlled environment.

Session 4

The overarching purpose of the fourth session is to further explore the concept of empathy and empathic communication. Following the exploration and further understanding of the components of empathy and empathic communication, this session is designed to give the group participants an opportunity to practice empathic communication in role-play situations that are designed to simulate situations which may be experienced in a RYDC setting. In essence, this group is designed to didactically present the components of empathic communication, to present ways to communicate empathy, and to then given an opportunity to practice these skills in a group context. The structure of this session is influenced by a social learning perspective of empathy training. This approach (which has been dubbed a “experiential didactic” training method (Goldstein & Michaels, 1985) offers an opportunity for group members to be presented with a didactic presentation and discussion of the components of empathic communication and then allows an opportunity for the group members to experiment with these skills in a group context (Egan, 1976). Egan (1976) referred to these aspects of empathy training as “exploration” and “experimentation.” Both of these components are

essential to the current session; skills must be presented, but there also must be a time to actively practice what is being didactically presented.

Thus, the first section of Session 4 provides an opportunity to didactically present material to better understand the general concept of empathy. One way of organizing the material to be presented on empathy is to discuss the cognitive and the affective components of empathy. Feshbach (1997) cites the importance of cognitive and affective components in the development of empathy in children. The cognitive components include the ability to discern the emotional state of another and the ability to take the perspective of another, while the affective component includes the ability to experience the emotions of another. Though her model was designed to help better explicate the behaviors of aggressive children, the split of cognitive and affective components of empathy serve as an important distinction to make in this session. A further division of the concept of empathy can be seen in Davis' (1980) multidimensional model of empathic communication. This model further divides affective aspects of empathy (into personal distress and empathic concern) and the cognitive aspects of empathy (fantasy and perspective taking), to provide a four-factor model of empathy. This model (introduced in Session 1) will be further explicated and discussed in this session. This section is meant to provide a schematic for Session 4 of the LEADERS group, a more complete discussion of empathy is presented earlier in Chapter 2. Following the discussion of the nature and the components of empathy, two to four (depending on time) video segments should be shown from The Shawshank Redemption (Marvin & Darabont, 1994) and The Green Mile (Valdes & Darabont, 1999) which present various types of

communication and levels of empathy expressed between guards and inmates at correctional institutions.

Following the presentation of the video segments, a second discussion will be facilitated that provides a focus on communicating empathy to others (a skills discussion). As a guide for this aspect of Session 4, Egan's (1998) discussion of communicating basic empathy was used. Specifically, the "three dimensions of responding" (p. 81) should be discussed with the group. These aspects include perceptiveness (or the ability to accurately perceive the emotional reaction of another), know-how (or the ability to deliver an empathic response), and assertiveness (the actual implementation of an empathic response). In essence, this discussion will distinguish the ability to have an empathic insight from the motivation and ability to communicate empathically. The ability to link a resident's feelings to their actions (Egan, 1998) and the ability to use that link in communicating with that resident are separate. Further, the emphasis is in the ability to communicate concisely and effectively to residents who may be in distress over various issues. Following the presentation of this material, group members will be asked to engage in two to three (again, depending on time) role-plays in which a connection can be made between a child's emotional reaction and their behavior. The challenge to the group will be to communicate this connection to the child in a manner that deescalates a situation. (The role plays are presented in Appendix D, under Session 4 Summary).

This session relies on both the presentation of material (through didactic presentation and media presentation) and the opportunity for group members to practice

the use of the concepts being presented. A central purpose and goal of the formation of the LEADERS group is to improve the interpersonal communication from JCOs to residents. One way of meeting this goal is through the ability to make an empathic connection with the residents. However, what should not be lost in this session is what it is like to be a JCO. Thus, the modeling of empathy from the group facilitator to the group members is an important processual intervention to include.

Session 5

The impetus for Session 4 was the didactic presentation and experiential practice of empathic communication. The goal of Session 5 moves from this session in providing two avenues for furthering the discussion of empathy. The first is the role of discerning when to use an empathic response and when another type of response may be more appropriate. The second is the applicability of empathy in a correctional setting. While Session 4 relied primarily on presentation and discussion of material related to the construct of empathy; this session provides a forum for the discussion for the practicality of the use of empathic communication in a correctional facility. This session is structured to facilitate a discussion about how to implement effective communication strategies with youthful offenders. In addition to the discussion that is the center of this session, a large portion of this session will afford an opportunity for role-plays that emphasize the skill of discerning when and how to use empathy in a volatile situation.

The role of the correctional officer is a stressful one and one that is fraught with the difficulty of maintaining security in an environment with individuals who often do not value the structure that a correctional facility affords. Thus, the role of the

correctional officer is often concerned with discerning and deciding appropriate responses within this correctional setting. Carkhuff (1969) discussed the importance of discriminating the appropriateness of an empathic response. This decision-making precludes the communication of empathy itself, as this decision either leads to the initiation of a caring response, the initiation of another response, or no response at all. Thus, this discussion extends from the didactic and experiential aspects of Session 4 in providing a continued discussion that centers on the prudence of an empathic response in correctional situations. The importance of this session is to provide a forum to discuss the reality (as the group members perceive the reality) of implementing empathic communication in a correctional setting. Information should be presented that gives the correctional officers ideas about behaviors that could be signs of trouble (e.g., ‘Signs of Trouble,’ American Correctional Association, 1992a). However, the importance of this group is to distinguish when an appropriate response would be interpersonal and empathic in nature, and when an appropriate response would be a response more consistent with the role of a security officer. The process of this decision-making is of central importance.

The role of the discerningly empathic correctional officer is certainly antithetical to the ‘Hack’ (Hemmens & Stohr, 2000) view of correctional work. However, it is central to the message of the LEADERS program. The role of the correctional officer is often in conflict, as ‘correctional officers today must find a balance between the security role and their responsibility to use relationships with inmates to change their behavior constructively’ (Josi & Sechrest, 1998, p. 127). Josi and Sechrest (1998) further their

discussion between the punitive orientation that is connoted by the word guard and the balance of the modern correctional officer that must be aware of the importance of their relationships with inmates, but at the same time oriented to the realities of working in an environment for which they are the main providers of security. Discussions of the difference between ‘guards’ and ‘correctional officers’ are facilitated in this group as well as discussions about the perceptions of becoming more empathic in communication patterns toward residents. These discussions are designed to help address possible resistance that may arise from group members who de-value the importance or the applicability of an interpersonal orientation to their work as a correctional officer. The emphasis here echoes that of the American Correctional Association (1992b, p. 13), when they state (about the role of the correctional officer), “you cannot do a good job if you do not care about what you do...”

Finally, as in other sessions, there is a need for role-plays in this session. Four role-plays (generated by the author) will be given to group members to enact. The role-plays (seen in Appendix D) afford opportunities to respond to situations in which a security oriented response may be the preferred first method of responding, but also one in which an empathic response following the security oriented response may be facilitative.

Session 6

The goals of Session 6 are threefold: to provide a framework for reviewing the content of the first five sessions, to introduce and discuss the concepts of burnout and Compassion Fatigue (Figley, 1999), and to provide a termination experience for the

group process. More than just a review session or a termination session, the content portion of this session provides an impetus to discuss two processes that can greatly affect a correctional officer's ability to be empathic and to use interpersonal skills with residents. However, this session must also take into consideration the fact that the LEADERS group relies heavily on group process (and is not merely a psychoeducational group). Thus, providing an opportunity for termination for the group members is essential to include in this session. There are many goals for this session that will serve as a mechanism for formally concluding this group experience.

The concept of burnout is one that is general to many professions; further, the notion of stress and burnout in a profession is one that has seen much attention in the literature. For example, Maslach and Leiter (1997) noted the increasing rate of burnout in modern societies in all professions. Some consider the notion of burnout to be a stress related phenomenon that occurs in many professions, but especially in the helping professions (Zunker, 1998). Certainly the work of the correctional officer is one that is replete with stress. Researchers have noted that stress among correctional officers is a problem and further noted the following sequelae of correctional office stress: "staff turnover rate, sick leave use, absenteeism and tardiness, inmate grievances and complaints, disciplinary actions against officers, disability claims, and premature retirements or disability pensions" (Finn, 1998, p. 72). Stress and burnout have serious effects both on the worker and on the workplace. Magnuson (1990) has noted the following consequences to job-related stress: low self-esteem, low motivation to work, poor concentration on work tasks, poor work relationships with peers and supervisors,

poor communications with others on the job site, feelings of inadequacy and resentment, depression, and excessive tardiness and absenteeism. These consequences are important to consider in a correctional environment that is both full of stress, and requires much of its workers in terms of both security and treatment. Recent studies have called for more direct attention to be given to the role of job satisfaction and concepts such as burn out among correctional officers (e.g., Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2002). Not only will this attention contribute to lowering the turnover rate in the correctional officer profession, ameliorating the effects of stress in the correctional officers' lives is important to improving their performance. An officer that is experiencing burnout is both a security risk for the institution and a risk to the rehabilitative component of the institution. Thus, Morgan, Van Haveren, and Pearson (2002) cite the need for training programs for correctional officers 'with a specific focus on the sources and symptoms of stress and burnout, as well as stress management techniques: (p. 157). Though the LEADERS program was not designed as a stress management group, discussing the role of stress and burnout in the stressful correctional environment is called for in the present literature base. Thus, these topics are introduced in the final session in a manner that allows for the discussion of burnout, but that also encourages continued interactions among the officers to help each other through stressful times.

In addition to the role of stress and possible burnout that is faced in a correctional setting, there is an increased risk for a particular type of stress and burnout in the work of a correctional officer. This particular type of stress and risk in a correctional setting is seen in the notion of compassion fatigue. In general, compassion fatigue is a type of

secondary stress in which providers of services to those in crisis begin to feel overwhelmed and pressured in their work environments (Rainer, 2000). This secondary stress is one possible price of working in a stressful environment in which one may have compassion for the individuals with whom they work. With counselors, it has been noted, “empathic engagement with trauma survivors is necessary for effective psychotherapeutic intervention. However, empathic engagement also makes therapists vulnerable to the detrimental effects of vicarious trauma, with consequent negative effects on individual counselor effectiveness and organizational dynamics in the workplace.” (Sexton, 1999, p. 393). Thus, the very nature of having an empathic connection someone who is experiencing or has experienced trauma (e.g., in a prison setting) can lead to detrimental effects on that individual. Compassion fatigue has been dubbed “the cost of caring” in the literature, and it has been recommended that interventions be developed for those on the front lines of stressful work in order to reduce the effects of this particular type of distress (Figley, 1995, p. 3).

The concept of compassion fatigue is one that is not well researched in the current literature base, but, as can be seen above, it is a topic that has received some attention in the recent literature. More specifically, this is a topic that has received recent attention in relationship to the role this process may play in police work. For example, Figley (1999) noted that police officers, because of the nature of their profession, often suffer from what he dubbed “Police Compassion Fatigue.” The stress ful nature of the work of a police officer may lead to this specific type of stress. In a similar vein, and as noted above, the work of a correctional officer is also one that is stressful. The role of the JCO

is often fraught with role confusion and role conflict (treatment vs. punishment). Further, these individuals are working in a stressful environment, with individuals who often have difficult life stories, who can be oppositional, and who can be aggressive. There are costs to empathy in this stressful environment. Figley (1999) suggests that though empathy is important in law enforcement, empathic reactions can lead to residual stress when dealing with traumatic situations. In relationship to the LEADERS group sessions, the previous groups have mentioned the importance of empathic communication in a correctional environment. Yet, this empathy does come with the possible cost of compassion fatigue. Thus, this topic is included in Session 6, in order to both prepare the correctional officers for this risk and to also encourage the members to continue to encourage and support each other after the groups have ended. Further, in jobs that have a high rate of stress and emotional content, researchers have noted that a combination of education strategies and debriefing experiences can reduce the onset of compassion fatigue (Kinzel & Nanson, 2000). The notion of compassion fatigue is crucial to entertain in this last session.

Thus, the importance of the discussion of burnout in general, and compassion fatigue in particular, is essential in this last session. Noting that there is a price for empathy and a gain from responding in a non-empathic way is important. However, the group leader should direct the group to continue to note the benefits for the residents if they maintain an empathic response (while also devising plans to help support each other through difficult situations). Though the price of empathy in a correctional setting may be compassion fatigue, there remain benefits of thinking empathically, and ways to help

minimize the effects of burnout and compassion fatigue. This topic is essential for the last session.

The last stage of the group process is to provide a termination forum and experience for the group members. The overall focus of the LEADERS program is both didactic and process oriented. However, the processual aspect of the LEADERS program is essential to the identification of issues that are relevant to the JCOs and the identification of ways to implement empathic communication. A beneficial aspect of meeting in a group format (beyond the learning that is designed to take place) is the common support of the JCOs for each other. Reflecting on the process of the group and explicitly discussing how JCOs can continue to support each other is important in this last session

Just as terminating the process of the LEADERS program is important, so is providing a review of the didactic information that is presented in the LEADERS program. The last session includes a review of the content of the first five session and allows for a brief discussion of the integrating of the topics presented in relation to how the didactic information will affect the group members work as a JCO. Finally, completion certificates should be given, officially demarking the end of the program, and the post-test should be administered.

Conclusion: Purpose of the Study

One of the new calls for psychologists in correctional settings is to move more into providing training experiences for the staff of these facilities (Byrne, Byrne, & Howells, 2001). To that end, counseling psychologists are trained not only in the

psychological theory that can help teach prison personnel, but equally important, counseling psychologists possess crucial skills in the area of group work. There is a call for applying human relations training to prison personnel in order to affect thinking patterns about the residents of correctional facilities and the relationships correctional workers have with these individuals (Myers, 2000). Further, studies have found that male inmates in particular are unwilling to approach correctional officers for support or to approach them with problems they are experiencing (Hobbs & Dear, 2000). This chapter has highlighted both the quintessential importance of the role of correctional officers and the inherent difficulties and stress that this position entails. The success of a correctional facility, in many ways, hinges on the role of the correctional officer.

This study is an attempt to make a difference in the professional lives of correctional officers. The six-session group, entitled LEADERS, is an attempt to both educate correctional officers in the areas of interpersonal skills, empathy, and development and to provide a group forum to allow the correctional officers to learn from each other and vent the problems they encounter in their profession. An aspect of this study is the development of the LEADERS (Listening Empathically and Discerning Empathic Relationship Skills) group protocol and philosophy, which was established in this chapter. The remaining portion of this study is an attempt to validate the LEADERS program with a group of Juvenile Correctional Officers at a Southeastern Regional Youth Detention Center. The theory and research that was presented above was intended to help justify the need for this type of program, while also providing a firm base from which the various aspects of this approach were drawn.

Chapter 3

METHOD

Participants

This study was conducted in conjunction with the Department of Juvenile Justice in Northeast Georgia. Juvenile Correctional Officers were recruited to participate in a workshop for training in interpersonal skills and empathy skills. Their participation in the research component of this study was voluntary. In total, there were 37 correctional officers who completed the questionnaires in order to participate in this study. However, the final N-size for the evaluative component of this study was lower than this number as 6 correctional officers originally included in this study either left their position at the Youth Detention Center before their post-test data could be collected, or left the facility for mandatory training as part of the hiring process. Thus, the final sample size (in terms of the useable data for the analysis of the effectiveness of the LEADERS group itself) was 31. Of this number, 25 were male and 6 were female. Further, 27 were African-American and 4 were Caucasian. As can be seen from the demographic numbers, the participants in this study were predominantly African-American men. The average age of the sample was 31.28 years (SD = 8.45) and the average years of experience of the sample was 3.88 years (SD = 6.08). There was wide variability of both age and experience in this study; the range of age was 51 years at the upper limit and 19 years at

the lower limit and the range of experience of 28 years of service at the upper limit and less than 1 month of experience at the lower limit.

Method

The focus of this study was the investigation of a six-session intervention that was designed to improve the interpersonal orientation and skills of juvenile correctional officers (JCOs). As such, it is important to include a replicable template for the six group sessions that comprise the LEADERS program. The theoretical and empirical justification for the development of each session was included in Chapter 2. In addition, there is a summary table included in Appendix C that provides an overview of the goals for each session and provides a timeline for each goal/activity in the group. Further, Appendix D contains a detailed outline of the topics to be addressed in each group session, and Appendix E contains the handouts that were given to the JCOs in conjunction with the group sessions.

Design

Because of the applied nature of the present study (this research was conducted as a training in a working Youth Detention Center), the ultimate design of the study is considered to be quasi-experimental. The hallmark of a true experimental design is randomization, which was not possible in the present study. The manipulation and randomization that would be necessary was not within the scope of the design of the present study. More specifically, an adaptation of a nonrandomized control-group pretest-posttest design (Campbell & Stanley, 1966) was utilized for the purposes of this study (see Appendix F). In this design, each prospective group participant was given the

instruments that they were asked to complete prior to their participation in the group (again, their participation in the research component of the LEADERS group was voluntary). Following the completion of the instruments, some group members immediately began their LEADERS groups and some were considered to be on a wait list control group. Following the completion of the first series of six groups, each participant (along with each member of the wait list control group) was given the instruments a second time. This administration schedule allowed for comparisons between correctional officers who completed the group and those who did not. Further, this administration schedule allows for a comparison to be made between the pre- and post-tests of the group participants. Following this second administration, the correctional guards who had not participated in the group completed their six-session rotation in the LEADERS program. After their completion, all group participants of the first and the second groups were asked to complete the instruments one final time. This last administration allowed for a comparison between pre- and post- tests for the group members completing the second LEADERS group. Further, it allowed for a comparison for the first group members to see if the effects of the group maintained for a six-week follow-up period.

Limitations

The major threats to internal validity for the research design used for the purposes of this study as arising from interactions between selection and maturation, selection and history, and selection and testing (Isaac & Michael, 1995). Because of the lack of randomization (the JCOs were assigned to groups by the assistant superintendent of the facility), controlling for selection is not possible. Specifically, Isaac and Michael (1995)

state, “In the absence of randomization, the possibility always exists that some critical difference, not reflected in the pretest, is operating to contaminate the posttest data” (p. 77). Since this research was conducted within the parameters set by the YDC, environmental constraints leading to possible concerns with selection could not be avoided, and are a limitation to the present study. Further, Isaac and Michael (1995) note that a threat to external validity may result from the “reactive effects of experimental procedures” (p. 77). In essence, this threat is one that cites the problem with participants knowing they are part of an experiment, which may affect the outcome of the experiment. Since their participation in the group is the goal of this study, reducing this threat is impossible. Finally, possible problems with history have been reduced by conducting multiple (3) trials of the LEADERS groups. The pretests for Groups 2 and 3 are used as checks of history effects for Groups 1 and 2, respectively.

In addition to the limitations from the experimental design itself, there are a few additional limitations that warrant mentioning. The sample size that was used in this study is somewhat small. This small sample size limited the power for the statistical analyses used in the present study, thus reducing the likelihood of finding statistical significance. In order to help account for the small sample size, effect sizes were calculated, where possible. Secondly, the present study used one group leader to conduct each of the three rotations of the LEADERS group. Thus, effects (or the lack thereof) may be attributable to the group leadership style of the group leader, separate from the LEADERS group protocol itself. Third, there was no measure given to ascertain the knowledge that was gained as a result of being a part of the groups. This type of

educational measure should be explored in additional studies. The instruments used in the present study were utilized to see if there were differences in more dispositional measures (as opposed to merely the ascertainment of knowledge). In sum, there are a few limitations to the present study that could be addressed with additional participants and additional resources to conduct the groups themselves.

Analyses

Research Question #1: Will an interpersonal skill training group improve the interpersonal orientation of correctional officers?

H₁: An Interpersonal skill training group improves the interpersonal orientation of correctional officers.

Research Question #2: Will an interpersonal skill training group increase the level of empathy that correctional guards have for residents?

H₂: An Interpersonal skill training group improves the level of empathy that correctional officers have for residents.

These questions are at the heart of the present study. In essence, these questions ask if there is a difference that occurs in the group members as a result of their completion of the LEADERS program. Because of the importance of these questions, two separate statistical techniques are used to answer slightly different questions. The inferential statistics that are used test within-subject differences as well as between-subjects differences and are described below. (1) A within-subjects design will be used to assess differences in the entire experimental sample when comparing the pre-test score to the pos-test scores. In addition, each of the three separate groups will be analyzed

separately in order to assess differences in each group, separately. The within-subjects t-tests answer the question, are there any differences in the group participants from pre-test scores to post-test scores. (2) In addition to the within-subjects design, an ANCOVA will be utilized to measure between subject differences. (A MANCOVA was used for Research Question 2, as there were four factors that comprise the operational definition of Empathy for the purposes of this study). These statistical techniques allow for the comparison of two or more groups and use the pre-test scores as a covariate to statistically control for initial differences in groups. By using the pre-test measure to statistically control for initial differences, this statistical procedure is made more powerful by reducing the error variance. The groups will be decided by whether a group has received the LEADERS treatment or not. Thus, one comparison was made between Group 1 (experimental) and Groups 2 and 3 (control) and one was made between Group 2 (experimental) and Group 3 (control). In addition, Groups 1 and 2 can be combined (after Group 2 completion of LEADERS) as having had the intervention, and Group 3 can be considered a control. Group 3 does not have a control group to which it can be prepared, and thus is not included as an experimental group in the between subjects analysis.

Research Question #3: Does an interpersonal skill training lead to decreases in disruptive resident behavior?

H₃: Increased interpersonal skill among guards leads to decreased disruptive resident behavior?

Research Question #4: Does increased interpersonal skill training lead to fewer counselor requests?

H₄: Interpersonal skill training groups leads to fewer counselor requests.

Research Question #5: Does increased interpersonal skill training lead to fewer nurse visits among residents?

H₅: Interpersonal skill training groups leads to fewer nurse visits among residents.

These questions attempt to assess the effect of the LEADERS intervention on the RYDC environment. In some regard, these questions make the assumption that there was some change or benefit that resulted from the LEADERS group (which is assessed with Research Questions 1 and 2). While at the RYDC, center data were gathered to monitor any changes that occurred in the number of incident reports, the number of counselor requests/grievances, and the number of nurse visits. The data were entered daily by administrative staff at the RYDC as well as the census for that day. In order to control for the number of residents in the center, the number of incidents, counselor requests/grievances, or nurse requests were divided by the number of individuals in the facility. Trends will be plotted descriptively and graphically and a non-parametric (chi-square) analysis was used to assess the bi-weekly average number of incidents, counselor requests/grievances, and nurse requests. Even with a statistically significant change, there are a myriad of other explanations for changes in these data. Nevertheless, the data were collected while at the facility as a thermometer of the climate of the RYDC.

Research Question #6: Are juvenile correctional officers less empathic than the sample used to norm an empathy measure.

H₆: Juvenile Correctional Officers are less empathic than the sample used to norm an empathy measure.

None of the studies in the literature (Carey, Fox, & Spraggins, 1988; Cliffordson, 2001; Hatcher, Nadeau, Walsh, & Reynolds, 1994; Johnson, Cheek, & Smither, 1983; Long, Angera, Carter, Nakomoto, & Kalso, 1999) provide both a mean score and a standard deviation for the four scales that comprise the Interpersonal Reactivity Index, which was used as the measure of empathy for the purpose of this study. Thus, any inferential statistical comparison will not be able to be made. However, means from the normative sample are descriptively compared to the data that were derived from this study.

Research Question #7: Is Social Interest related to empathy among correctional officers?

H₇: Social Interest is positively related to empathy among correctional officers.

Research Question #8: Is Social Interest related to a human service approach to correctional officers' work?

H₈: Social Interest is positively related to a human service approach to correctional officers' work.

These two research questions involve comparisons of data as opposed to testing differences in the data. Thus, correlations and regression equations will be used to answer these questions. Both questions involve the relationship between Social Interest (as measured by the Personal Trait Value Scale) and other measures used in this study.

To answer Research Question #8, a Pearson correlation was made between the Personal Trait Value Scale score and the Correctional Role Index score to make comparisons.

For Research Question #7, there are four operational components of empathy in this study, thus a Pearson Correlation is not sufficient to answer this question. Thus, a regression analysis was employed to see the relationship of the four empathy components to social interest. Though Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated along the way, the ultimate purpose of the regression analysis is to see the combined relationship between the variables. Finally, all possible regressions were computed in order to select the best set of empathy predictors of social interest (Montgomery, Peck, & Vining, 2001). There are four empathy predictors of social interest; thus there are 15 possible regression equations. Each of these 15 analyses was conducted and the one with the highest Adjusted R^2 was considered to be the best set of predictors (Montgomery et al., 2001). There are numerous problems with variable selection using stepwise or other methods, and the all possible regressions is considered to be the 'best' method of variable selection (Montgomery et al., 2001). Pre-test data were used to answer Questions 7 and 8, as these questions have very little relationship to the LEADERS intervention and are more interested in better understanding the relationship of social interest, empathy, and correctional roles in juvenile correctional officers.

Non-Data Analysis

In addition to the data driven analyses and instruments, a non-data instrument was used in this study. As described below, the Critical Incidents Inventory is a five-item questionnaire with the purpose of providing a measure of important group events and

process events that occurred in the LEADERS group sessions. These responses will be narratively described in Chapter 4 as an anecdotal description of the group members' experience of the group process. Though no qualitative techniques were used for these data, the anecdotal findings from this instrument will allow for the discussion of the group process, as well as the discussion of Yalom's therapeutic factors.

Instruments

Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI)

The intervention that is the foundation of the study is an attempt to train correctional officers in interpersonal and empathy skills in relationship to their work in a correctional facility. Thus, it is important to include a measure of empathy as a part of the assessment of the effectiveness of this intervention. Further, it was considered important to note pre-intervention levels of empathy and how these initial levels compare to empathy levels found in previous studies. Thus, the IRI was used as a measure of empathy in the group participants. This instrument is a 'multidimensional individual difference measure of empathy' that was both theoretically and statistically developed to assess both cognitive and affective domains of empathy. The initial psychometric development of this instrument (Davis, 1980) provided three different versions of the IRI, with the final version having the best psychometric characteristics. Of the forty-five items (15 per scale) that were derived from factor analytic techniques, only the twenty-eight (7 per scale) that loaded highest into the four factors were maintained for the final version. The Cronbach Alphas for each of the four scales are as follows: Fantasy (.78 for males and .79 for females), Perspective Taking (.71 for males and .75 for females),

Empathic Concern (.68 for males and .73 for females) and Personal Distress (.77 for males and .75 for females). Subsequent confirmatory factor analysis confirmed the four factors and had similar alphas to those presented above. The test-test reliability coefficients are as follows: Fantasy (.79 for males and .81 for females), Perspective Taking (.61 for males and .62 for females), Empathic Concern (.72 for males and .70 for females), and Personal Distress (.68 for males and .76 for females). Thus, the final version consisted of four subscales, each comprised of seven items. This version demonstrated a stable factor structure, satisfactory internal reliability, and adequate test-retest reliability.

Further, the final version of the IRI was confirmed and normed on a sample of 1161 undergraduate students (579 male, 583 female) and separate means were provided for females and males (with females scoring significantly higher than males on all four scales. The means are as follows: Fantasy (female = 18.75, male = 15.73), Perspective Taking (female = 17.96, male = 16.78); Empathic Concern (female = 21.67, male = 19.04); Personal Distress (female = 12.28, male = 9.46). Unfortunately, no standard deviations of the scale means were reported in this study. Further, after reviewing the literature that utilized the IRI, no studies were found that included both means and standard deviations (Carey, Fox, & Spraggins, 1988; Cliffordson, 2001; Hatcher, Nadeau, Walsh, & Reynolds, 1994; Johnson, Cheek, & Smither, 1983; Long, Angera, Carter, Nakomoto, & Kalso, 1999). Thus, means comparisons (between a normative sample and the sample used for this study) were only able to be made in terms of descriptive

statistics. Without standard deviations from a previous study (and without a comparison sample) no inferential means testing can be completed.

The four scales on this instrument are as follows (adapted from Davis, 1983):

1. **Perspective Taking**-Measures the tendency to adopt the point of view other people in everyday life.
2. **Fantasy**-Measures the tendency to transpose oneself into the feelings and actions of fictitious characters in books, movies, and plays
3. **Empathic Concern**-Measures the tendency to experience feelings of warmth, compassion, and concern for other people.
4. **Personal Distress**-Measures feelings of personal unease and discomfort in reaction to the emotions of others.

Each item is rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (Does not describe me well) to 4 (Describes me very well). The items are totaled, and four scale scores are derived.

The IRI has been used in various types of research. For example, a recent study used the IRI in order to measure agreement between parents and adolescents on adolescent empathy (Cliffordson, 2001). Further, the IRI seems to be an instrument of choice for assessing the effects of empathy training programs. This instrument has been used in research that assessed the effectiveness of empathy training on romantic couples relationships (Long, Angera, Carter, Nakomoto, & Kalso, 1999). Additionally, the IRI has been used to measure the effectiveness of empathy training with high school and college students (Hatcher, Nadeau, Walsh, & Reynolds, 1994). Though a review of each

study that utilized the IRI is beyond the scope of this section, several additional studies exist that utilize the IRI as a measure of empathy (e.g., Carey, Fox, & Spraggins, 1988; Johnson, Cheek, & Smither, 1983). Despite that fact that this instrument was developed more than twenty years ago, the IRI remains a pertinent instrument in research that involves the assessment of empathy and empathy training.

The Correctional Role Index (CRI)

There are few instruments in the literature that specifically address issues pertinent to the different professional roles of correctional officers. One such instrument that was found in a review of the literature holds importance for the proposed study. The CRI is an attempt to assess two roles that correctional officers have been found to take in a correctional setting. Based on literature concerning the role conflict that is inherent in the work of correctional officers, this instrument attempts to assess the professional orientation of correctional officers in terms of assessing the agreement with items that are consistent with the traditional, punitive, “hack” approach to correctional work and items that are consistent with an approach that is oriented to the provision of human services to correctional residents.

Some of the psychometric properties of the CRI are unknown. For example, Hemmens and Stohr (2000) did not report Cronbach alphas for the factor-analyzed instrument (separate internal reliability estimates for the two derived scales are missing); the lack of a clear delineation of which items should be included on the proposed scales; and the inclusion of items in the factor-analyzed instrument that warranted exclusion because of loading equally on both scales. Despite these statistical difficulties, there is a

face validity of the items used on this assessment that is important to consider in regard to the present study. The initial intent of the researchers was to develop an instrument that helped differentiate between the “hack” role and the “human services” role, in which a higher score on the instrument was consistent with human services role and a lower score was consistent with the “hack” approach. Despite the psychometric difficulties in terms of the factor analysis of the items, the original intent of the instrument seemed to be validate in a single factor structure. This single factor structure displayed satisfactory internal consistency (Cronbach Alpha = .80 for the entire instrument). Because the intent of this instrument was consistent with the proposed study, and because the single factor instrument displayed internal consistency, this questionnaire was included in the present study.

For the purposes of this study, some modifications were made to the initial instrument. First, there were three items that were deleted from the instrument, following the recommendations of the authors (in order to increase the internal consistency). In the initial study, removing these items improved the instrument’s internal reliability (from a Cronbach Alpha of .80 for the 34-item instrument to a Cronbach Alpha of .84 once the three items were removed). Second, two additional items were deleted because the subject matter of these questions dealt with topics more salient for adult correctional facilities, as opposed to youth detention facilities. (The questions were as follows: Inmates should have limited access to law libraries; Helping inmates to find a suitable work situation is a responsibility of correctional staff). It should be noted that if these items had been excluded from the initial validation of this instrument, the internal validity

would not have changed significantly (if either had been removed, the Cronbach Alpha would have been .84 and .83, respectively). The authors of this instrument did not present test-retest reliabilities. For the purposes of this study, the resulting instrument consists of 29-items which are rated on a 7-point Likert scale (ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree).

Because some alterations were made to the original instrument, psychometric tests were conducted as a part of this study. Specifically, a Cronbach Alpha was calculated to demonstrate internal reliability. In the present study, the Cronbach Alpha for this instrument was found to be .79 for the entire instrument. According to criteria set by DeVellis (1991), an Cronbach Alpha in this range is considered respectable. However, even if this instrument had displayed poor psychometric properties, the face validity of this instrument helps make it important to consider in regard to the purpose and intent of this study.

Personal Trait Value Scale (PTVS)

Because it is hypothesized that the Adlerian concept of Social Interest is conceptually related to the success or failure of these proposed groups, a measure of Social Interest is important to consider for this study. If Social Interest is an antecedent to being capable or motivated to learn more effective social skills (Nicoll, 1994), this construct should be related to pre-group levels of empathy and related to an approach of correctional work that is more oriented to human service provision. Further, Social Interest may moderate the effectiveness of this group intervention. Thus, this instrument is proposed as a measure to include as a part of this study.

The PTVS is a 24-item assessment that purports to measure the Adlerian concept of Social Interest as Ansbacher (1968) described as an interest in the interests of mankind. These 24-items consist of 24 word pairs in which correctional officers are asked to make a choice to “which trait you value more highly.” As Crandall (1981) noted, item analysis on this instrument resulted in a 15-item scale (9 items on the scale are “buffer” items, which are not scored). The scoring on this instrument ranges from 0 - 15, each of these 15-items (which are considered to comprise the Personal Value Scale) result in a score of 1 or 0, depending on if the respondent responded in a manner that is consistent with Crandall’s conceptualization of Social Interest or not. Good internal reliability has been reported (Kuder-Richardson = .71) and sufficient test-retest reliability has been cited for this instrument (five weeks $r=.82$; fourteen months $r=.65$) (Crandall, 1981). Crandall (1981) suggests that this instrument possesses sufficient reliability and validity to be used as a research instrument. Specifically, he states that the PTVS,

has been validated against a number of measures of relevant aspects of behavior, values, feelings, etc, and has shown significant relations to measures of overt criminality, cooperation, and altruism...Tests of discriminant validity show the relative invulnerability of the scale to faking and its lack of relationship to desire for acceptance, extraversion, and intelligence.

Further, and especially relevant to this study, this instrument has been shown to be correlated to an Adlerian oriented measure of empathy ($r = .40$, $p<.005$) (Crandall & Harris, 1976). Finally, it should be noted that the PTVS has been found to measure a

“relatively independent aspect of personality” (Forman & Crandal I, 1991, p. 141). Means for the instrument were generated using a sample of university student and were as follows: males: mean = 7.72, standard deviation = 3.33; females: mean = 8.62, standard deviation = 3.25; combined: mean = 8.17, standard deviation = 3.32.

Critical Incidents Inventory (CII)

In order to provide a more qualitative assessment of the group member’s perceptions and responses to the LEADERS intervention, the Critical Incidents Inventory was given at the end of each group session. This questionnaire is comprised of five questions, which can be seen in Appendix G, and was viewed as essential to evaluating the members’ experiences while they were a part of the LEADERS program. The CII was heavily influenced by the work of Kivlighan(e.g., Doxsee & Kivlighan, 1994; Kivlighan & Goldfine, 1991; Kivlighan & Mullison, 1988; Shaughnessy & Kivlighan, 1995), and since there is no current literature on the instrument itself, the theoretical backdrop that contributed to the development of this assessment tool is reviewed below. In essence, questions were derived for this instrument that would specifically address the JCOs’ perceptions of the group itself, as well as their perceptions of their role in the group. As has been identified in the literature review in Chapter 2, the LEADERS group is intended to attend directly to the process as well as the content of the group sessions. This instrument allows for an assessment of the process of the LEADERS group work, from the first session until termination.

This type of questionnaire has been used in the assessment of group work for some time. Specifically, the Critical Incidents Inventory is derived from the work of

(Bloch, Reibstein, Crouch, Holroyd, & Themen, 1979). These researchers used the “Most Important Event Questionnaire” as a manner of assessing Yalom’s therapeutic factors as they operate in a group context. The clients who participated in their study were asked to respond to the following question: “Of the events which occurred in the last three meetings, which one do you feel was most important to you personally? Describe the event: what actually took place, the group members involved and your own reaction. Why was it so important for you?” (Bloch et al., 1979, p. 258). Further research reported that this type of assessment instrument for group work is relatively unbiased when compared to other group process instruments, because of the open structure of the questionnaire itself (Bloch & Reibstein, 1980). Bloch and his colleagues, as well as other researchers (e.g., Shaughnessy & Kivlighan, 1995) have used this assessment tool to determine the various therapeutic factors that are salient for group members. These researchers have used an open-ended questionnaire such as the “Most Important Events Questionnaire” to have judges code responses to determine the salient operational factors at work in groups (Critical Incidents Questionnaire; Kivlighan & Goldfine, 1991). In essence, this questionnaire has been found to be an effective tool in assessing what is helpful in group therapy or other forms of group work (Bloch & Reibstein, 1980). Most recently, Kivlighan and his colleagues have extensively used this type of instrument in assessing the process aspect of group work (e.g., Doxsee & Kivlighan, 1994; Kivlighan & Mullison, 1988; Shaughnessy & Kivlighan, 1995).

Dagley’s work in developing the Critical Incidents Inventory was heavily influenced by the work of Kivlighan and his colleagues. The questions used for the

purpose of the present study can be seen in Appendix G. The influence of the ‘Most Important Event Questionnaire’ is evident on questions 1 and 2, and the other questions help to assess participants’ perceptions of the group process. Though there are no statistical means to assess the validity of this instrument, Bloch and his colleagues (1979) have cited the following benefits of this approach to assessing group work: face validity of the instrument, provides an assessment of the client’s perception of what is helpful in a group, this instrument is relatively unobtrusive, and the administration time is relatively short (which is important for repeated administrations). Further, in her review of the literature concerning measuring the effectiveness of group work, Delucia-Waack (1997) stated that instruments such as the Critical Incidents Questionnaire (Kivlighan & Goldfine, 1991) are ‘useful in understanding the effect of the group from each member’s perspective, as well as for assessing how specific therapeutic factors influence group effectiveness’ (p. 284). Further, Delucia-Waack (1997) noted that this type of instrument can provide ‘insight into what made a particular eventful session helpful for group members’ (p. 248). Thus, the Critical Incidents Inventory, developed by Dagley influenced by the work of Kivlighan and others (e.g., Doxsee & Kivlighan, 1994, Kivlighan & Mullison, 1988; Shaughnessy & Kivlighan, 1995), provides a non-data manner to better understand the participants’ experiences in the LEADERS group session. Further, this instrument can provide some insight into the therapeutic factors that operated during the group sessions. As stated in Chapter 2, the benefits from this type of group work were expected to occur not only from the didactic material that was

presented, but also from the process of the groups themselves. This instrument provides a manner of looking into this process.

Summary

The purpose of the present study was to develop, and then evaluate, a training group for Juvenile Correctional Officers. Thirty-one JCOs completed the LEADERS group and four separate instruments were given to this sample in order to evaluate the LEADERS program: an empathy measure (the IRI), a correctional role measure (the CRI), a measure of social interest (the PTVS), and a group process measure (the CII). Participants completed the LEADERS program in three separate groups, which were created by the assistant superintendent of the YDC that participated in this study. The design utilized for this study is quasi-experimental in nature, since randomization of participants was not possible. However, this design allows for comparisons both between groups comparisons (LEADERS participants compared to a wait-list control group) and within group comparisons (pre-test compared to post-test). Thus, the data were analyzed through both between-subjects analyses (MANCOVAs, ANCOVAs, and t-tests) and within-subjects analyses (paired-samples t-tests). Further, the collection of the data allowed for statistical exploration of the sample of correctional officers through means comparisons and correlation/regression analyses.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

There are several Research Questions that comprise the analysis of the LEADERS program. In addition, for some of the questions, multiple types of analyses were possible and were conducted as a part of this study. In order to present the results in a parsimonious and organized manner, each question is presented separately in this chapter. The format for this chapter was to repeat each of the eight research questions, along with the research hypothesis, and then follow this presentation with the relevant findings. Toward the end of this chapter, non-data findings are also presented in order to better contextualize the statistical results. These ancillary findings do not directly relate to any of the research hypotheses, but were viewed as relevant to the overall findings for the present study.

Research Question #1: Will an interpersonal skill training group improve the interpersonal orientation of correctional officers?

H₁: An Interpersonal skill training group improves the interpersonal orientation of correctional officers.

This question is answered in various ways in the section below. First, the results for the three individual groups are presented separately. For Groups 1 and 2, an ANCOVA analysis precedes the within-subjects testing. An ANCOVA analysis was not

possible for Group 3, as there were no other ‘control’ participants to use as a comparison sample. By the time Group 3 completed the LEADERS group, all juvenile correctional officers (JCOs) at the RYDC

used in this study had completed the LEADERS program. Thus, the Group 3 section only contains the within-subjects analyses. Following the individual group analyses, the summary data for all the participants are presented in a within-subjects paradigm, which compares each participant’s pre -test score to his or her post-test score. The within-subjects analyses answer the question: ‘did the participants score higher on the correctional role orientation measure following the LEADERS program as compared to before the intervention?’ The ANCOVA analyses answer the question: controlling for the scores on the correctional role pre-test measure, did groups who completed the LEADERS program score higher as compared to control groups (comprised of individuals waiting to complete the LEADERS group)? Because of the directionality of the hypotheses, one-tailed analyses were conducted.

Group 1

An ANCOVA analysis was conducted in order to statistically determine if Group 1 was different from the control group (Groups 2 and 3) in terms of their correctional role measure scores (CRI subscale scores). In this analysis, the pre-test means for CRI were used as a covariate. The dependent variable was the same CRI scale that was given again after Group 1 had completed their rotation in the LEADERS program (post-test scores). In other words, this analysis controls for initial differences on the CRI and statistically

tests to see if there are differences between the experimental group and the control group on this measure.

Prior to conducting the analyses presented below, statistical tests were employed to help control for history effects. Specifically, analyses were employed to test for statistically significant differences in the control group between the pre-test and the post-test. This testing was conducted in order to insure that the control group could be used as a true baseline (to insure no significant fluctuation that could affect the statistical testing of interest presented below). A within-subjects t-test was conducted to test the pre-test and post-test differences for the control group; this test was not statistically significant ($t(8) = -.607, p = .560$), indicating no statistical difference between the control group from pre-test to post-test.

The means and standard deviations for these two groups (LEADERS and Non-LEADERS control group) are as presented in Table 4.1 and graphically presented in Figure 4.1. The estimated marginal means are as follows: LEADERS sample: $X = 154.70$; CONTROL sample: $X = 151.59$. The estimated marginal means are estimates of the post-test scale scores (the dependent variable), after making a correction for initial differences in the pre-test means (the covariates). The sample size for this analysis was $N = 24$ ($n_{\text{LEADERS}} = 8, n_{\text{NON-LEADERS}} = 16$). The ANCOVA result for this analysis was not statistically significant ($F(1,21) = .39, p = .27, \eta^2 = .02$) indicating no statistically significant difference between the LEADERS group and the control group in terms of their CRI scores. However, the effect size associated with this F-test is a small effect size according to Cohen's (1969) standards (a small effect size is one at or above $\eta^2 = .01$).

Table 4.1 Means and Standard Deviations for the LEADERS (Group 1) and Control Group (Groups 2 and 3)

	LEADERS		Control	
	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>
Pre-test	151.00	14.98	148.25	17.18
Post-test	156.00	13.95	152.47	15.45

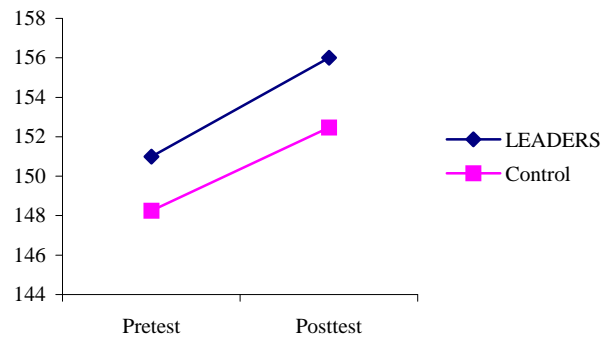


Figure 4.1 Graphic depiction of the means for the LEADERS (Group 1) and Control Group (Groups 2 and 3)

In addition to comparing the individuals who completed the LEADERS program to those who were on a wait-list control group, statistical testing was conducted to test the differences between the LEADERS group members from pre-test to post-test. This within-subjects analysis helps to answer Research Question #1 by seeing if statistical difference occurred in the participants who completed the LEADERS program. The pre-

test and post-test means for Group 1 can be seen in Table 4.1, which was presented above. The within-subjects t-test was not statistically significant ($t(7) = -.76, p = .24$). Thus, the descriptive increase in the mean CRI score from pre-test to post-test (an increase of 5.00) is not statistically significant. The sample size for this analysis is very small ($N = 8$); this small sample size may have affected lack of significance in this statistical test.

Following their completion of the LEADERS program and their completion of the first post-test, Group 1 took the post-test two additional times (Appendix F). This administration schedule allowed for monitoring for continued changes in this group (as compared to their original pre-test scores). These two post-tests are referred to as POST-TEST 2 and POST-TEST 3 for the purposes of this study. The results for these comparisons are as follows: **(1) PRE-TEST vs. POST-TEST 2:** $t(6) = -.16, p = .44$ **(2) PRE-TEST vs. POST-TEST 2:** $t(6) = -1.09, p = .16$. As can be seen from these analyses, some of the sample dropped out of the study. The results indicate that none of the within-subjects t-tests reached significance.

Group 2

An ANCOVA analysis was conducted in order to statistically determine if Group 2 was different from the control group (Group 3) in terms of their correctional role measure scores (CRI subscale scores). In this analysis, the pre-test means for the CRI was used as a covariate. The dependent variable was the same CRI scale that was given again after Group 2 had completed their rotation in the LEADERS program (post-test scores). In other words, this analysis controls for initial differences on the CRI and

statistically tests to see if there are differences between the experimental group and the control group on this measure.

Prior to conducting the analyses presented below, statistical tests were employed to help control for history effects. Specifically, analyses were employed to test for statistically significant differences in the control group between the pre-test and the post-test. This testing was conducted in order to insure that the control group could be used as a true baseline (to insure no significant fluctuation that could effect the statistical testing of interest presented below). A within-subjects t-test was conducted to test the pre-test and post-test differences for the control group; this test was not statistically significant ($t(8) = 1.59, p = .16$), indicating no statistical difference between the control group from pre-test to post-test.

The means and standard deviations for these two groups (LEADERS and Non-LEADERS control group) are presented in Table 4.2 and graphically in Figure 4.2. The estimated marginal means are as follows: LEADERS sample: $X = 158.00$; CONTROL sample: $X = 142.38$. The sample size for this analysis was $N = 18$ ($n_{\text{LEADERS}} = 10, n_{\text{NON-LEADERS}} = 8$). The ANCOVA result for this analysis was statistically significant ($F(1,15) = 4.20, p = .03, \eta^2 = .22$). The associated effect size with this analysis was found to be in the large range according to Cohen's (1969) standards. A large effect size according to this reference is any η^2 that is equal or above .14.

Table 4.2 Means and Standard Deviations for the LEADERS (Group 2) and Control Group (Group 3)

	LEADERS		Control	
	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>
Pre-test	153.60	11.22	148.13	20.10
Post-test	158.90	13.16	143.54	17.77

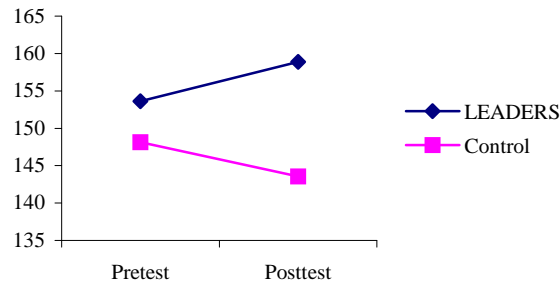


Figure 4.2 Graphic depiction of means for the LEADERS (Group 2) and Control Group (Group 3)

In addition to comparing the individuals who completed the LEADERS program to those who were on a wait-list control group, statistical testing was conducted to test the differences between the LEADERS group members from pre-test to post-test. This within-subjects analysis helps to answer Research Question #1 by seeing if statistical difference occurred in the participants who completed the LEADERS program. The pre-test and post-test means for Group 2 can be seen in Table 4.2, which was presented above. The within-subjects t-test was not statistically significant ($t(9) = -1.54, p = .08$).

Thus, the descriptive increase in the mean CRI score from pre-test to post-test (an increase of 5.30) is not statistically significant. The sample size for this analysis is very small ($N = 10$); this small sample size may have affected lack of significance in this statistical test.

Following their completion of the LEADERS program and their completion of the first post-test, Group 2 took the post-test one additional time (Appendix F). This administration schedule allowed for monitoring for continued changes in this group (as compared to their original pre-test scores). These two post-tests are referred to as POST-TEST 2 for the purposes of this study. The results for these comparisons are as follows: (1) PRE-TEST vs. POST-TEST 2: $t(8) = .86, p = .21$. As can be seen from this analysis, this within-subjects t-test did not reach significance.

Group 3

A MANCOVA analysis was not possible for this group, as there were no JCOs available to use as a new control group. Thus, the only statistical testing that was possible for this group was the within-subjects paradigm that was used for the previous groups presented above. The pre-test and post-test means and standard deviations for the CRI are as follows ($N = 13$): PRE-TEST (Mean = 143.55, Standard Deviation = 18.06) and POST-TEST (Mean = 140.42, Standard Deviation = 17.89). The inferential statistical analysis revealed no significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test on the CRI for Group 3 ($t(12) = .56, p = .29$).

Summary of Findings

Following the separate group analyses, the data were collapsed into one database containing pre-test scores and post-test scores for each individual. The pre-test scores were considered to be the scores for the individual immediately prior to her or his completion of the LEADERS program; the post-test scores were considered to be the scores for the individual immediately following their rotation in the LEADERS program. The Means and Standard Deviations for these data are as follows (N = 31): PRE-TEST (Mean = 148.839, Standard Deviation = 15.36) and POST-TEST (Mean = 150.40, Standard Deviation = 18.14). Only within-subjects statistical testing was possible for these data. The inferential statistical analysis revealed no significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test on the CRI for Group 3 ($t(30) = -.52, p = .30$).

Overall, several statistical methods were employed to answer research question 1. Only one of the statistical procedures was found to be statistically significant. The ANCOVA for Group 2 was significant ($p = .03$) and had a large effect size ($\eta^2 = .22$). The small sample size made it difficult to find statistical significance for the analyses presented above. Further, the small effect size found for Group 1 and the large effect size for Group 2 are of interest.

Research Question #2: Will an interpersonal skill training group increase the level of empathy that correctional guards have for residents?

H₂: An Interpersonal skill training group improves the level of empathy that correctional officers have for residents.

This question is answered in various ways in the section below. First, the results for the three individual groups are presented individually. For Groups 1 and 2, a MANCOVA analysis precedes the within-subjects testing. A MANCOVA analysis was not possible for Group 3, as there were no other ‘control’ participants to use as a comparison sample. By the time Group 3 completed the LEADERS group, all JCOs at the RYDC used in this study had completed the LEADERS program. Thus, the Group 3 section only contains the within-subjects analyses. Following the individual group analyses, the summary data for all the participants are presented in a within-subjects paradigm, which compares each participants pre-test score to his or her post-test score. The within-subjects analyses answer the question: ‘did the participants score higher on the empathy measure following the LEADERS program as compared to before the intervention?’ The MANCOVA analyses answer the question: ‘controlling for the scores on the empathy pre-test measure, did groups who completed the LEADERS program score significantly higher than the control groups (comprised of individuals waiting to complete the LEADERS group)?’ Because of the directionality of the hypotheses, probability levels were calculated for one-tailed tests.

Group 1

A MANCOVA analysis was conducted in order to statistically determine if Group 1 was different from the control group (Groups 2 and 3) in terms of their empathy measure scores (IRI subscale scores). In this analysis, the pre-test means for the four scales of the IRI were used as covariates. The dependent variables were the same four IRI scales that were given again after Group 1 had completed their rotation in the

LEADERS program (post-test scores). In other words, this analysis controls for initial differences on the IRI and statistically tests to see if there are differences between the experimental group and the control group on this measure.

Prior to conducting the analyses presented below, statistical tests were employed to help control for history effects. Specifically, tests were employed to test for statistically significant differences in the control group between the pre-test and the post-test. This testing was conducted in order to insure that the control group could be used as a true baseline (to insure no significant fluctuation that could effect the statistical testing of interest presented below). Four separate within-subjects t-tests were conducted to test the pre-test and post-test differences for the control group; none of these tests reached statistical significance (FANTASY: $t(15) = 1.15$, $p = .27$; PERSPECTIVE TAKING: $t(15) = 1.83$, $p = .09$; EMPATHIC CONCERN $t(15) = -.31$, $p = .77$; PERSONAL DISCMOFORT: $t(15) = -.70$, $p = .50$).

The means and standard deviations for these two groups (LEADERS and Non-LEADERS control group) are presented in Table 4.3. In addition, the corrected, estimated marginal means are presented in Table 4.4 and graphically presented in Figure 4.3. The estimated means are estimates of the post-test scale scores (the dependent variable), after making a correction for initial differences in the pre-test means (the covariates). The sample size for this analysis was $N = 24$ ($n_{\text{LEADERS}} = 8$, $n_{\text{NON-LEADERS}} = 16$). The MANCOVA result for this analysis was statistically significant (Wilks' $\Lambda = .54$, $df = 1$, $p = .02$, $\eta^2 = .46$). In essence, this analysis demonstrates a significant difference in the two groups in terms of the multidimensional construct of empathy. Further, the effect size

found in this multivariate analysis was large according to Cohen's (1969) standards. A large effect size according to this reference is any η^2 that is equal or above .14.

Table 4.3 Means and Standard Deviations for the LEADERS (Group 1) and Control Group (Groups 2 and 3) (FANT = Fantasy; PERSP = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; PERDIS = Personal Discomfort)

	<u>LEADERS</u>			
	<u>PRE-TEST</u>		<u>POST-TEST</u>	
	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>
FANT	10.88	4.64	11.63	2.88
PERSP	17.25	4.40	19.75	4.83
EMPCONC	20.25	3.62	21.25	4.03
PERDIS	7.75	3.62	10.63	3.67

	<u>Non-LEADERS</u>			
	<u>PRE-TEST</u>		<u>POST-TEST</u>	
	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>
FANT	12.70	5.81	11.63	5.92
PERSP	19.70	5.52	19.50	4.18
EMPCONC	20.70	4.92	20.66	5.18
PERDIS	7.15	4.33	7.06	4.56

Table 4.4 Estimated marginal means for the LEADERS (Group 1) and Control Group (Groups 2 and 3) (FANT = Fantasy; PERSP = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort)

	LEADERS	Non-LEADERS
FANT	12.78	11.05
PERSP	21.34	18.71
EMPCONC	22.08	20.25
PERDIS	9.97	7.39

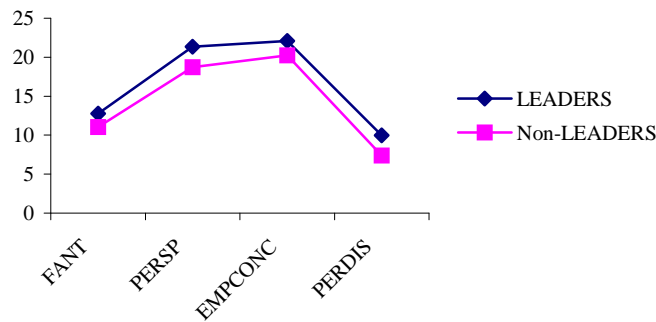


Figure 4.3 Graphic depiction of means for the LEADERS (Group 1) and Control Group (Groups 2 and 3) (FANT = Fantasy; PERSP = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort)

In order to better understand this difference, univariate analyses were conducted on the four separate subscales to determine, which, if any, of these four subscales were statistically different from each other. The results of these four univariate ANCOVAS are as follows: FANTASY ($F(1,21) = .45, p = .25, \eta^2 = .02$; PERSPECTIVE TAKING

($F(1,21) = 4.84$, $p = .02$, $\eta^2 = .19$; EMPATHIC CONCERN ($F(1,21) = .26$, $p = .31$, $\eta^2 = .01$, PERSONAL DISCOMFORT ($F(1,21) = 8.85$, $p = .004$, $\eta^2 = .30$). Two of the four ANCOVA analyses reached significance, indicating that (controlling for initial differences) there was a difference between the LEADERS group and the control group on the univariate constructs of Perspective Taking and Personal Discomfort. Further, these statistically significant differences were found to be of a large effect size according to Cohen's standards (1969).

In addition to comparing the individuals who completed the LEADERS program to those who were on a wait-list control group, statistical testing was conducted to test the differences between the LEADERS group members from pre-test to post-test. This within-subjects analysis helps to answer Research Question #2 by seeing if statistical difference occurred in the participants who completed the LEADERS program. The pre-test and post-test means for Group 1 can be seen in Table 4.3, which was presented above. Graphically, these means can be seen in Figure 4.4. The inferential statistical analysis revealed the following findings: FANTASY ($t(7) = -.38$, $p = .36$); PERSPECTIVE TAKING ($t(7) = -1.80$, $p = .06$); EMPATHIC CONCERN ($t(7) = -.68$, $p = .26$); PERSONAL DISTRESS ($t(7) = -5.24$, $p = .001$). A Bonferonni correction was made to control the family-wise error rate at $p = .05$. With this correction, the Personal Distress subscale remained significantly higher in the post-test (as compared to the pre-test). None of the other paired-samples t-test results were statistically significant. Thus, Group 1 scored significantly higher on the Personal Distress subscale when comparing pre-test scores to post-test scores.

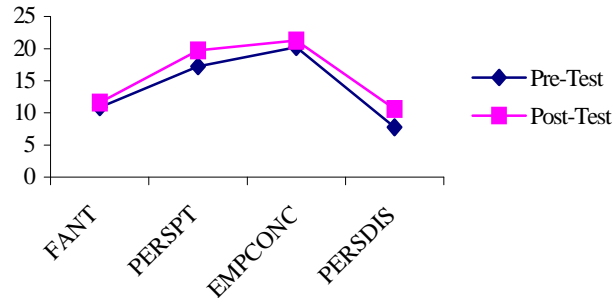


Figure 4.4 Graphic depiction of pre-test and post-test scores for Group 1 (before and after completion of the LEADERS program) (FANT = Fantasy; PERSPT = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort)

In addition to the immediate post-test, Group 1 took the post-test two additional times (Appendix F). This administration schedule allowed for monitoring for continued changes in this group (as compared to their original pre-test scores). These two post-tests are referred to as POST-TEST 2 and POST-TEST 3 for the purposes of this study. The results for these comparisons are as follows: **(1) PRE-TEST vs. POST-TEST 2:**

FANTASY ($t(5) = .79$, $p = .28$); PERSPECTIVE TAKING ($t(5) = -1.32$, $p = .12$);

EMPATHIC CONCERN ($t(5) = -.26$, $p = .40$); PERSONAL DISTRESS ($t(5) = -2.45$, $p = .03$); **(2) PRE-TEST vs. POST-TEST 2:** FANTASY ($t(6) = .24$, $p = .41$);

PERSPECTIVE TAKING ($t(6) = -.16$, $p = .44$); EMPATHIC CONCERN ($t(6) = .59$, $p =$

.30); PERSONAL DISTRESS ($t(6) = -5.24, p = .03$). As can be seen from these analyses, some of the sample dropped out of the study. The results indicate that none of the four within-subjects t-tests reached significance (after correcting for the number of comparisons, with the Bonferroni correction). However, the Personal Distress subscale approached significance.

Group 2

A MANCOVA analysis was conducted in order to statistically determine if Group 2 was different from the control group (Group 3) in terms of their empathy measure scores (IRI subscale scores). In this analysis, the pre-test means for the four scales of the IRI were used as covariates. The dependent variables were the same four IRI scales that were given again after Group 2 had completed their rotation in the LEADERS program (post-test scores). In other words, this analysis controls for initial differences on the IRI and statistically tests to see if there are differences between the experimental group and the control group on this measure.

Prior to conducting the analyses presented below, statistical tests were employed to help control for history effects. Specifically, tests were employed to test for statistically significant differences in the control group between the pre-test and the post-test. This testing was conducted in order to insure that the control group could be used as a true baseline (to insure no significant fluctuation that could effect the statistical testing of interest presented below). Four separate within-subjects t-tests were conducted to test the pre-test and post-test differences for the control group; none of these tests reached statistical significance (FANTASY: $t(7) = 2.15, p = .07$; PERSPECTIVE TAKING: $t(7)$

= .63, $p = .55$; EMPATHIC CONCERN $t(7) = 1.70$, $p = .13$; PERSONAL DISCMOFORT: $t(7) = -.43$, $p = .68$). Though none of the statistical analyses reached statistical significance at the $\alpha = .05$ level, one of the tests approached significance. The Fantasy scale rose from 9.75 at the pre-test level to 11.88 at the post-test. This difference can be attributed to (in part) the fact that the pre-test score was very low, and the post-test scores may have regressed to the mean for this control sample.

The means and standard deviations for these two groups (LEADERS and Non-LEADERS control group) are presented in Table 4.5. In addition, the corrected, estimated marginal means are presented in Table 4.6 and graphically presented in Figure 4.6. The sample size for this analysis was $N = 18$ ($n_{\text{LEADERS}} = 10$, $n_{\text{NON-LEADERS}} = 8$). The MANCOVA result for this analysis was not statistically significant (Wilks' $\Lambda = .94$, $df = 1$, $p = .48$, $\eta^2 = .06$). In essence, this analysis was unable to demonstrate a significant difference between the two groups in terms of the multidimensional construct of empathy. However, the associated effect size with this analysis was found to be in the moderate range according to Cohen's (1969) standards. A medium effect size according to this reference is any η^2 that is equal or above .06. It is possible that the small sample size contributed to the lack of statistical significance; however, the associated effect size warrants some attention.

Table 4.5 Means and Standard Deviations for the LEADERS (Group 2) and Control Group (Group 3) (FANT = Fantasy; PERSP = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort)

	<u>LEADERS</u>			
	<u>PRE-TEST</u>		<u>POST-TEST</u>	
	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>
FANT	12.50	2.88	14.30	6.68
PERSP	19.91	4.83	20.40	5.52
EMPCONC	20.00	4.03	19.80	4.96
PERDIS	5.60	3.66	5.10	5.09

	<u>Non-LEADERS</u>			
	<u>PRE-TEST</u>		<u>POST-TEST</u>	
	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>
FANT	9.75	5.01	11.88	5.84
PERSP	16.13	4.67	15.50	5.48
EMPCONC	19.95	4.88	17.63	6.09
PERDIS	8.86	3.50	9.25	5.18

Table 4.6 Estimated marginal means for the LEADERS (Group 2) and Control Group (Group 3) (FANT = Fantasy; PERSP = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort)

	<u>LEADERS</u>	<u>Non-LEADERS</u>
FANT	13.08	13.40
PERSP	18.81	17.49
EMPCONC	19.02	18.60
PERDIS	6.58	7.40

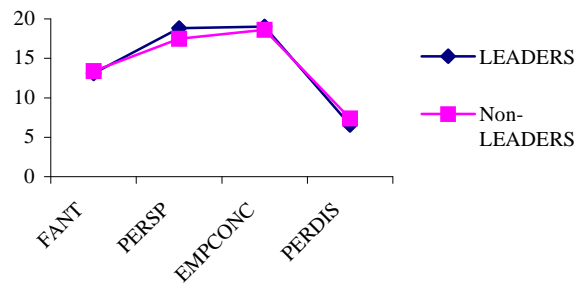


Figure 4.5 Graphic depiction of means for the LEADERS (Group 2) and Control Group (Group 3) (FANT = Fantasy; PERSP = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort)

In order to better understand this difference, univariate analyses were conducted on the four separate subscales to determine, which, if any, of these four subscales were statistically different from each other. The results of these four univariate ANCOVAS are as follows: FANTASY ($F(1,15) = .16, p = .35, \eta^2 = .01$; PERSPECTIVE TAKING ($F(1,15) = 4.84, p = .23, \eta^2 = .03$; EMPATHIC CONCERN ($F(1,15) = 2.31, p = .08, \eta^2 = .13$, PERSONAL DISCOMFORT ($F(1,15) = .50, p = .25, \eta^2 = .03$. None of these four analyses reached statistical significance. However, there is a very small N-size for these analyses ($N = 18$). If the measures of effect size are evaluated, three of the four ANCOVA analyses reach the status of a small effect size according to Cohen (1969) (Fantasy, Perspective Taking, and Personal Discomfort). Further, the Perspective Taking ANCOVA analysis was just under a large effect size (which is an η^2 of .14 according to Cohen). Thus, though these analyses did not reach statistical significance, there is some evidence of an effect of the LEADERS group on the group that completed the group

versus a control group. The lack of statistical significance may be an artifact of the low sample size that was available for these comparisons.

In addition to comparing the individuals who completed the LEADERS program to those who were on a wait-list control group, statistical testing was conducted to test the differences between the LEADERS group members from pre-test to post-test. This within-subjects analysis helps to answer Research Question #2 by seeing if statistical difference occurred in the participants who completed the LEADERS program. The pre-test and post-test means for Group 2 can be seen in Table 4.5, which was presented above. Graphically, these means can be seen in Figure 4.6. The inferential statistical analysis revealed the following findings: FANTASY ($t(9) = -1.34, p = .11$); PERSPECTIVE TAKING ($t(9) = -.32, p = .38$); EMPATHIC CONCERN ($t(9) = .38, p = .36$); PERSONAL DISTRESS ($t(9) = .92, p = .19$). As can be seen from these analyses, none of the four subscales of the IRI reached significance when tested in a within-subjects paradigm.

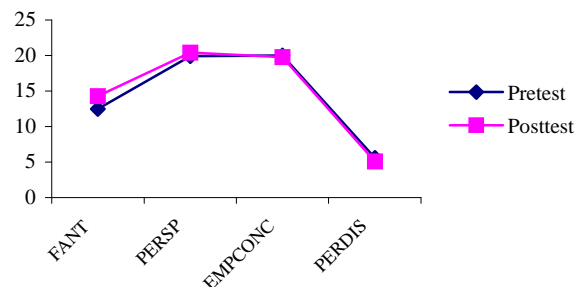


Figure 4.6 Graphic depiction of pre-test and post-test scores for Group 2 (before and after completion of the LEADERS program)

In addition to the immediate post-test, Group 2 took the post-test one additional time (Appendix F). This administration schedule allowed for monitoring for continued changes in this group (as compared to their original pre-test scores). This additional post-test is to as POST-TEST 2 for the purposes of this study. The results for these comparisons are as follows: **(1) PRE-TEST vs. POST-TEST 2:** FANTASY ($t(6) = .24$, $p = .41$); PERSPECTIVE TAKING ($t(6) = -.16$, $p = .44$); EMPATHIC CONCERN ($t(6) = .56$, $p = .28$); PERSONAL DISTRESS ($t(5) = -2.23$, $p = .04$). As can be seen from these analyses, some of the sample dropped out of the study. The results indicate that none of the four within-subjects t-tests reached significance (after making a Bonferroni correction). However, the Personal Distress subscale approached significance.

Overall, none of the statistical testing for Group 2 was statistically significant. However, the MANCOVA and ANCOVA analyses did reveal effect size worth noting. The sample size for these analyses was small ($N = 19$) and the lack of significance may have been, at least in part, attributable to this small sample size.

Group 3

A MANCOVA analysis was not possible for this group, as there were no JCOs available to use as a new control group. Thus, the only statistical testing that was possible for this group was the within-subjects paradigm that was used for the previous groups presented above. The pre-test and post-test means and standard deviations are presented in Table 4.7 and graphically in Figure 4.7. The inferential statistical analysis revealed the following findings: FANTASY ($t(12) = -1.15$, $p = .14$); PERSPECTIVE TAKING ($t(12) = -.39$, $p = .35$); EMPATHIC CONCERN ($t(9) = -3.93$, $p = .001$);

PERSONAL DISTRESS ($t(12) = .72, p = .24$). When setting the familywise error rate at $\alpha = .05$ (Bonferroni correction), the Empathic Concern difference remains statistically significant. All of the other comparisons failed to reach statistical significance.

Table 4.7 Pre-test and post-test means and standard deviations for the LEADERS group (Group 3) (FANT = Fantasy; PERSP = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort)

	<u>LEADERS</u>			
	<u>PRE-TEST</u>		<u>POST-TEST</u>	
	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>
FANT	12.85	4.16	14.31	6.25
PERSP	17.69	5.14	18.08	4.99
EMPCONC	17.69	4.64	20.54	4.63
PERDIS	9.54	3.58	8.85	3.58

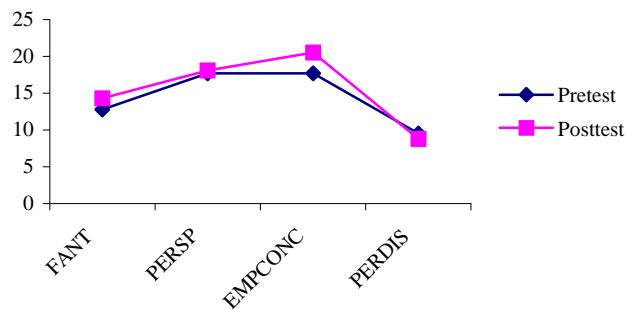


Figure 4.7 Graphic depiction of pre-test and post-test means the LEADERS group (Group 3) (FANT = Fantasy; PERSP = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort)

Overall Findings

Following the separate group analyses, the data were collapsed into one database containing pre-test scores and post-test scores for each individual. The pre-test scores were considered to be the scores for the individual immediately prior to her or his completion of the LEADERS program; the post-test scores were considered to be the scores for the individual immediately following their rotation in the LEADERS program. The Means and Standard Deviations for these data are presented in Table 4.8 and graphically in Figure 4.8. The sample size for these analyses was $N = 31$. Only within-subjects statistical testing was possible for these data and the results were as follows: FANTASY ($t(30) = -1.67$, $p = .06$, $\eta^2 = .08$); PERSPECTIVE TAKING ($t(30) = -1.32$, $p = .01$, $\eta^2 = .05$); EMPATHIC CONCERN ($t(30) = -2.51$, $p = .009$, $\eta^2 = .17$); PERSONAL DISTRESS ($t(30) = -.55$, $p = .27$, $\eta^2 = .01$). The probability levels were corrected for a one-tailed test, since an a-priori hypothesis was made (the groups were expected to improve). When setting the familywise error rate at $\alpha = .05$ (Bonferroni correction), one of the comparisons reached statistical significance and had a large effect size (Empathic Concern). However, both the Fantasy and Perspective Taking subscales demonstrated moderate effect sizes, though not reaching statistical significance.

Table 4.8 Pre-test and post-test means and standard deviations for all participants in the LEADERS groups (FANT = Fantasy; PERSP = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; *PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort*)

	<u>LEADERS</u>			
	<u>PRE-TEST</u>		<u>POST-TEST</u>	
	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>
FANT	12.23	4.19	13.61	5.69
PERSP	18.29	4.51	19.26	5.07
EMPCONC	19.10	4.47	20.48	4.48
PERDIS	7.81	4.72	8.10	4.58

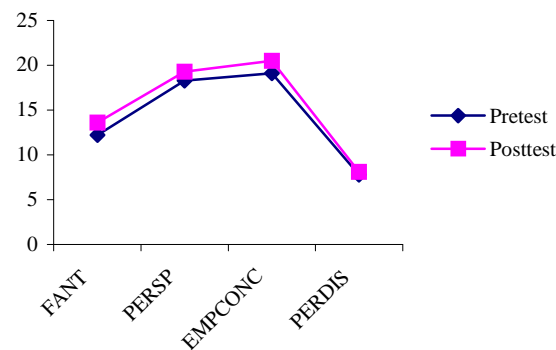


Figure 4.8 Graphic depiction of Pre-test and post-test means and standard deviations for all participants in the LEADERS groups(FANT = Fantasy; PERSP = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; *PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort*)

Summary of Findings for Research Question 2

Overall, several statistical methods were employed to answer Research Question 2. Unfortunately, few of the statistical procedures were found to be statistically significant. However, there were some significant findings and other findings that were of interest (though significance was not reached). The small sample size made it difficult to find statistical significance for the analyses presented above. Small and moderate effect sizes may not have been statistically detected because of the small sample size. Nevertheless, a summary table is presented in Table 4.9 to collectively present the results of interest for Research Question 2.

Table 4.9 Summary of findings for research question 2

Group 1 (n=8)	Group 2 (n = 10)	Group 3 (n = 13)
Significant MANCOVA (Large Effect Size)	Non-Significant MANCOVA (Moderate Effect Size)	No MANCOVA possible
Significant ANCOVA for Perspective Taking and Personal Discomfort (Large Effect Size for both)	Non-Significant ANCOVAs (Moderate to Large Effect Size for Perspective Taking/ Small Effect size for Fantasy, Empathic Concern, and Personal Discomfort)	No ANCOVAs possible
Non-significance for Univariate tests of Empathic Concern and Fantasy (Small to Moderate Effect Sizes)	Non-significant Within- Subjects t-tests	Significant Within-Subjects t- test for Empathic Concern
Total N = 31: Only Within-Subjects testing possible; After Bonferroni correction, Empathic Concern was significantly higher at post-test as compared to pre-test scores		

Research Question #3: Does increased interpersonal skill among guards lead to decreases in disruptive resident behavior?

H₃: Increased interpersonal skill among guards leads to decreased disruptive resident behavior?

As one environmental measure of the effect of the LEADERS group, the number of daily incident reports was recorded by the personnel of the RYDC that participated in this study. This particular RYDC utilizes a behavior modification system that gives points for good behavior, and removes points for negative behavior (violation of center rules). The vast majority of these incident reports were written by JCOs at the center. Basically, an incident report is a violation of center policy that results in the removal of points from the behavioral modification card system. The number of incident reports was kept in a summary form (for each day) and was given to the experimenter at the end of each month. It was hypothesized that if the JCOs became more empathic toward the residents, the number of incident reports would decline as a side-effect of the JCOs' experience in the LEADERS group. Thus, these data were collected to see if the JCOs' participation in the LEADERS group would affect the number of incident reports they completed.

One problem with keeping these data is that the Center census fluctuated during the period of the LEADERS intervention (from a low of 9 residents to a high of 23 residents). In order to correct for this fluctuation, the number of incident reports was divided by the end of the day census at the facility, creating an average number of incident reports for a resident at the facility that particular day. This average was then

added over a two-week period to create a more reliable time schedule of reporting. There were nine two-week periods over the course of the LEADERS intervention. However, there was a substantial amount of missing data from the last time period; thus these data were discarded and only eight time periods are reported. The calculated amount for each of these eight periods is as follows: 6.46, 9.12, 6.55, 6.25, 5.98, 5.85, 6.12, and 6.36 (these data are summarized in Figure 4.9). These data were considered frequency counts; thus the appropriate statistical paradigm to test for significance is a non-parametric paradigm. A chi-square analysis was used to test the trend of number of frequency reports for the facility. The results of this analysis were as follows: $\chi^2 = 1.17$, $df = 7$, $p = .99$. Thus, there was no significant difference detected in terms of the trend of Incident reports over the course of the LEADERS program.

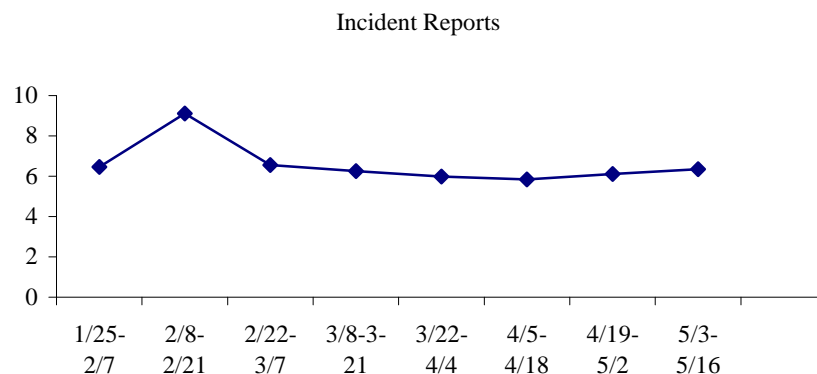


Figure 4.9 Graphic depiction of the number of incident reports reported during the course of the LEADERS program

Research Question #4: Does increased interpersonal skill among guards lead to fewer counselor requests?

H₄: Interpersonal skill training groups leads to fewer counselor requests.

As a second environmental measure of the effect of the LEADERS group, the number of counselor requests submitted by the residents was recorded by the counseling personnel of the RYDC that participated in this study. Residents submit counselor requests for two main reasons: (1) if they have a grievance against the facility or a staff at the facility and (2) if they would like to discuss some concern with a counselor. The number of counselor requests was kept in a summary form (for each day) and was given to the experimenter at the end of each month. It was hypothesized that if the staff became more attentive to their communication with the residents (and demonstrated more empathy toward the residents), this number would drop. Thus, these data were collected as a part of the present study.

One problem with keeping these data is that the center census fluctuated during the period of the LEADERS intervention (from a low of 9 residents to a high of 23 residents). In order to correct for this fluctuation, the number of counselor requests was divided by the end of the day census at the facility, creating an average number of counselor requests for a resident at the facility that particular day. This average was then added over a two-week period to create a more reliable time schedule of reporting. There were nine two-week periods over the course of the LEADERS intervention. However, there was a substantial amount of missing data from the last time period; thus these data were discarded and only eight time periods are reported. The calculated amount for each

of these eight periods is as follows: 1.32, 2.08, 1.02, .96, .44, 1.06, .86, and 1.52. (these data are summarized in Figure 4.10). These data were considered frequency counts; thus the appropriate statistical paradigm to test for significance is a non-parametric paradigm. The results of this analysis were as follows: $\chi^2 = 1.44$, $df = 7$, $p = .98$. Thus, there was no significant difference detected in terms of the trend of Counselor Requests over the course of the LEADERS program.

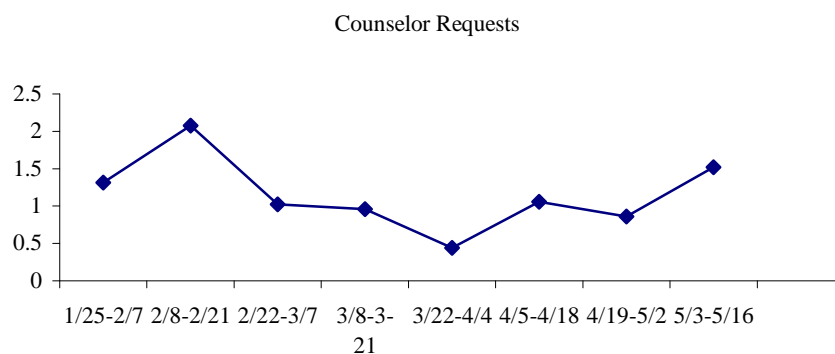


Figure 4.10 Graphic depiction of the number of counselor requests reported during the course of the LEADERS program

Research Question #5: Does increased interpersonal skill among guards lead to fewer nurse visits among residents?

H₅: Interpersonal skill training groups leads to fewer nurse visits among residents.

As a third environmental measure of the effect of the LEADERS group, the number of nurse visit requests submitted by the residents was recorded by the medical personnel of the RYDC that participated in this study. Residents submit nurse visit

requests if they desire to see a medical staff member for any type of medical problem (from a headache to a sprained ankle). The number of nurse visit requests was kept in a summary form (for each day) and was given to the experimenter at the end of each month. It was hypothesized that if the staff became more attentive to their communication with the residents (and demonstrated more empathy toward the residents), the number of nurse visits may decline, as residents might display fewer psychosomatic complaints. Though the number of true medical conditions would not be affected by the LEADERS group, it was thought to be possible that the psychosomatic complaints could be affected.

One problem with keeping these data is that the center census fluctuated during the period of the LEADERS intervention (from a low of 9 residents to a high of 23 residents). In order to correct for this fluctuation, the number of nurse visit requests was divided by the end of the day census at the facility, creating an average number of nurse visit requests for a resident at the facility that particular day. This average was then added over a two-week period to create a more reliable time schedule of reporting. There were nine two-week periods over the course of the LEADERS intervention. However, there was a substantial amount of missing data from the last time period; thus these data were discarded and only eight time periods are reported. The calculated amount for each of these eight periods is as follows: .77, 1.00, .32, .63, .63, .94, .36, and .89. (these data are summarized in Figure 4.11). These data were considered frequency counts; thus the appropriate statistical paradigm to test for significance is a non-parametric paradigm. The results of this analysis were as follows: $\chi^2 = .67$, $df = 7$, $p = 1.00$. Thus, there was no

significant difference detected in terms of the trend of Nurse Visit Requests over the course of the LEADERS program.

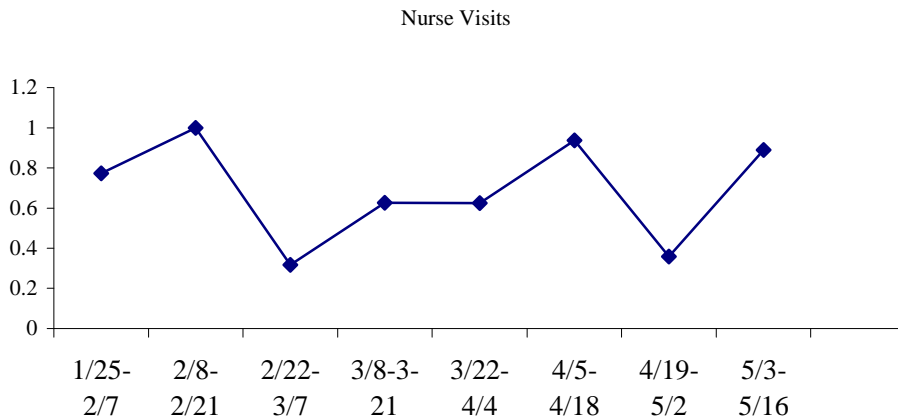


Figure 4.11 Graphic depiction of the number of nurse visits reported during the course of the LEADERS program

Research Question #6: Are juvenile correctional officers less empathic than the sample used to norm an empathy measure.

H₆: Juvenile Correctional Officers are less empathic than the sample used to norm an empathy measure.

No inferential statistics could be calculated to answer this question, as there were no previous studies that utilized the IRI (which is the Empathy measure for this study) and contained both means and standard deviations for the sample used for the study. A vast majority of the studies that utilize this instrument are correlational in nature, and do not provide complete descriptive statistics. A control sample of non-correctional officers

was not obtained as a part of this study, and thus this question can only be answered with a descriptive analysis of the means in this study and the means that were found in the study that initially validated this instrument. Pre-test data were used to answer Research Question 6, as this question has very little relationship to the LEADERS intervention itself and was more cross-sectional in nature.

The mean for the normative sample ($n = 576$) and the means and standard deviations for the LEADERS participants ($n=37$) are presented in Table 4.10 and Figure 4.12. The table and figure demonstrate that the LEADERS group scored slightly higher on the Perspective Taking subscale and the Empathic Concern subscale, and slightly lower on the Fantasy subscale and the Personal Discomfort subscale. Since inferential statistics were not possible, there was no way to determine if these differences were statistically significant.

Table 4.10 Descriptive comparison between the normative sample (Davis, 1980) and the *LEADERS sample derived for the purposes of this study*

	Normative	LEADERS	<u>SD</u>
FANT	15.73	12.35	4.97
PERSPT	16.78	18.60	4.93
EMPCONC	19.04	20.22	4.24
PERSDIS	9.46	7.70	4.12

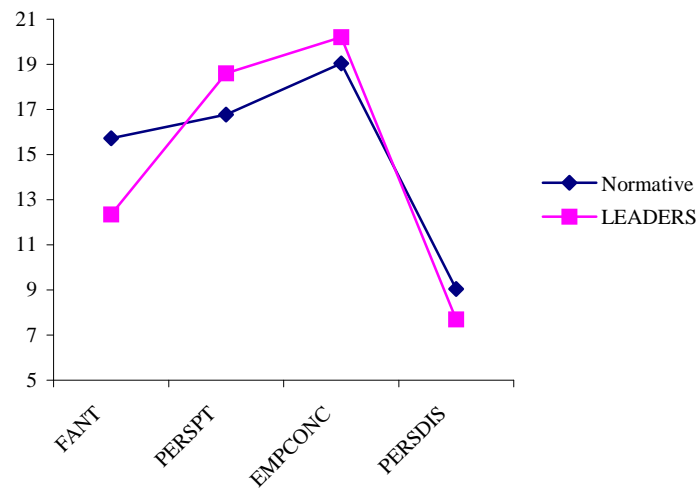


Figure 4.12 Graphic depiction of the descriptive comparison between the normative sample (Davis, 1980) and the LEADERS sample derived for the purposes of this study

Research Question #7: Is Social Interest related to empathy among correctional officers?

H₇: Social Interest is positively related to empathy among correctional officers.

In order to answer this question, correlation and regression techniques were utilized. In essence, this question deals with the relationship between empathy (as measured by the IRI) and social interest (as measured by the PTVS). Another way to conceptualize this question is to think of the four subscales of the IRI as predictors of the PTVS score, which can be analyzed through a regression analysis. Before the regression analysis was conducted, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated for each of the four subscales of the IRI and the social interest score from the PTVS. These four separate correlations are simple correlations, meaning that these statistics were calculated independent of the effects of the other IRI variables (the correlations were not part or

partial correlations). Since this research question deals with a positive relationship between empathy and social interest, a one-tailed test of significance was utilized. The results of the Pearson's correlational analysis were as follows ($n = 37$): Fantasy/Social Interest ($r = .13$, $p = .22$); Perspective Taking/Social Interest ($r = .41$, $p = .006$); Empathic Concern/Social Interest ($r = .09$, $p = .29$); Personal Discomfort/Social Interest ($r = -.08$, $p = .31$). Thus, the only significant correlation between the four components of empathy and social interest was between Perspective Taking and Social Interest. None of the other predictors approached significance in this simple correlational analysis.

After this correlational analysis, a separate regression analysis was conducted in order to determine the 'best' set of predictors of social interest from the four empathy subscales used in this study. This regression analysis was necessary because the measure of empathy used for this study was comprised of four separate components of empathy, as opposed to a single factor. In essence, this analysis asks, which combination of the four components of empathy (Fantasy, Perspective Taking, Empathic Concern, and Personal Discomfort) best predicts the social interest score on the PTVS.

The ultimate purpose of the regression analysis is to see the combined relationship between the variables. All possible regressions (Montgomery et al., 2001) were calculated in order to select the best set of empathy predictors of social interest. There are four empathy predictors of social interest; thus there are 15 possible regression equations. Each of these 15 analyses was conducted and the one with the highest Adjusted R^2 was considered to be the best set of predictors (Montgomery et al., 2001). There are numerous problems with variable selection using stepwise or other methods,

and the all possible regressions is considered to be the ‘best’ method of variable selection (Montgomery et al., 2001). Pre-test data were used to answer Research Question 7, as this question has very little relationship to the LEADERS intervention itself and was more cross-sectional in nature. The results of the 15 separate regression analyses are reported in Table 4.11.

As can be seen from Table 4.11, the only predictor or set of predictors to reach significance was the regression equation that entered a single term (Perspective Taking) to predict Social Interest. In addition to being the only regression model to reach significance, the model that contained only Perspective Taking as the single regressor has the highest Adjusted R^2 . The Adjusted R^2 is a statistic that makes statistical corrections for the number of predictors that are used in a regression. Thus, this statistic is not influenced by adding more predictors, as R^2 is. However, R^2 provides a measure of effect size for the purposes of this regression. As can be seen from Table 4.1, the R^2 for the regression equation, which only includes Perspective Taking, is .17; thus 17% of the variance in the Social Interest variable can be explained by the Perspective Taking variable. According to Cohen (1969), an effect size of $R^2 = .168$ lies between a moderate effect size for the behavioral sciences ($R^2 = .09$) and a large effect size ($R^2 = .25$). Thus, the finding for Research Question 7 is that there is a statistically significant, positive, relationship between an aspect of Empathy (Perspective Taking) and Social Interest. Above and beyond the amount of variance explained by other aspects of Empathy (as operationally defined for the purposes of the present study), Perspective Taking is the only significant predictor of Social Interest.

Table 4.11 Results from all-possible regressions, predicting social interest (DV) from components of empathy (DV)* $p < .05$; FANT = Fantasy; PERSPT = Perspective Taking; EMPCONC = Empathic Concern; PERSDIS = Personal Discomfort

Number of Regressors	Regressors in Model	Standardized Beta Weights	R2	Adjusted R2	F Value
1	FANT	.13	.02	-.01	.44
1	PERSPT	.41*	.17	.14	7.06 *
1	EMPCONC	.09	.01	-.02	.31
1	PERSDIS	-.08	.02	-.02	.25
2	FANT + PERSPT	.02 + .40	.41	.12	3.44*
2	FANT + EMPCONC	.11 + -.05	.02	-.04	.34
2	FANT + PERSDIS	.17 + -.13	.03	-.02	.60
2	PERSPT + EMPCONC	.42* + -.04	.17	.12	3.46*
2	PERSPT + PERSDIS	.44* + .08	.17	.13	3.57*
2	EMPCONC + PERSDIS	.11 + -.10	.02	-.04	.32
3	FANT + PERSPT + EMPCONC	.04 + .42* + -.05	.17	.10	2.25
3	FANT + PERSPT + PERSDIS	-.02 + .45* + .09	.17	.10	2.31
3	FANT + EMPCONC + PERSDIS	.15 + -.05 + -.14	.04	-.05	.42
3	PERSPT + EMPCONC + PERSDIS	.47* + -.06 + .10	.18	.10	2.37
4	FANT + PERSPT + EMPCONC + PERSDIS	-.01 + .47* + -.06 + .10	.18	.07	1.72

Research Question #8: Is Social Interest related to a human service approach to correctional officers' work?

H₈: Social Interest is positively related to a human service approach to correctional officers' work.

As there was only a single measure of the approach to correctional work and a single measure of social interest, this question was answered with a Pearson correlation. Research Question 8 was designed to measure the relationship between the CRI, which provides a measure of the approach to correctional work (on a continuous scale of the Hack Approach to the Human Service Approach), and the PTVS, which is a measure of social interest. The result of the Pearson's correlational analysis was not significant. Specifically, the relationship between these two variables was $r = .05$, $p = .81$ ($n = 29$). Thus, there was no statistically significant relationship found between Social Interest and the approach to correctional work as measured by the CRI.

Ancillary Findings

In order to provide a more qualitative assessment of the group member's perceptions and responses to the LEADERS intervention, the Critical Incidents Inventory (CII) was given at the end of each group session. This questionnaire is comprised of five questions, which can be seen in Appendix G, and was viewed as essential to evaluating the members' experiences while they were a part of the LEADERS program. This unpublished instrument is described more completely in Chapter 3.

The benefit of using this type of instrument in the present study is that it allows for a narrative description of the group members' perception of the group. Each group

member was asked to complete a CII after each session; thus providing six CIIs for each group member that spans their membership in the LEADERS groups. The CIIs were not separated by group, as group differences were not of interest to the present study. Rather the CIIs were read to provide a better understanding of the therapeutic factors that were salient during the LEADERS program and to provide a barometer of the perceptions of the LEADERS group throughout the six sessions.

Session 1

The comments for this opening session of the LEADERS program overwhelmingly referred to the importance of *universality and group cohesiveness* to group members. A vast majority of the participants' comments emphasized the coming together of JCOs in a new forum as a new and beneficial aspect of the LEADERS groups. Examples of such comments are as follows: "share some of my experience with other staff;" "everyone thinks their hands are tied;" expressing frustration about "knowing how to do your job and not being able to do it;" and "express your feelings to people who are going to listen." The comments that were written after this first session noted that the group was forming and much of the attention of the group members was geared to the group process as opposed to the content of the first session. However, the therapeutic factor of *imparting information* also began to emerge in many of the comments. Group members began to entertain that "maybe there are other ways to handle the way you come across to the students..." Comments demonstrated that the first session allowed for attention to be given to the importance of the role of the JCOs to the residents.

Most of the comments expressed that the group members felt that they were given little to ‘help better define their role as a JCO;’ however, there was also an expectation by many of the group members that this aspect of the group would be present in the future. For example, one participant who noted that he or she was not able to better define her or his role as a JCO also noted, “I hope in the weeks that come I will learn more about being a JCO.” Another noted that there was, “not enough time to get deeper into the class...” Finally, referring back to universality factors, one participant noted that the first session was a “good starting point getting to know other JCOs and listening to other’s points...” In sum, the participants noted that they felt more a part of the group following Session 1, but they did not think that their role was better clarified through this first session.

Session 2

Similar to Session 1, participants continued to note the importance of *universality* in their responses. However, the emphasis of the overall comments changed in comparison to the comments from the first session. Participants noted, “everyone goes through the same thing when you work here,” however, they also began to extend their comments to include the material that was presented in the group. Though the process of the group was not precluded by their comments on the content of the group (e.g., the importance of “the difference ideas that staff have that work with the students...”), there was a definitive increase in comments relating to the material that was presented. Thus, the overall therapeutic factor that seemed to conjoin with *universality* became *imparting information* in the second session. This session centered on presenting various models

of adolescent development, and that emphasis was echoed in the group members' comments. Many of the comments presented were about learning various didactic aspects presented: "commitment and crisis;" "adolescents are at a crossroads in life;" "kids may just act out for attention or may disobey you just to see you react...it helps me to not overreact;" "knowing a little more about the youth and his background can help you in dealing with the youth." What was interesting in this session was the number of comments that related to the importance of establishing empathic connections to the group members' experiences when they were adolescents. In a way, many comments seemed to tap into family of origin or current family issues as well as *interpersonal learning*. For example, group members felt, "more a part of the group because I was a kid once..." and many commented on the importance of this session allowing them an opportunity to "remember my adolescent days" as a vehicle to connect to the youth which whom they work. Comments such as "thinking about my experiences and family" and "comparing when I grew up to the kids now days" were common.

The overall theme of the comments for Session 2 centered on learning about adolescent development and applying that learning (and empathic connection to their experience as an adolescent) to their current profession. Group members felt more a part of the group and commented on the connections they made between the group and their work: "we as JCOs have to be more understanding to the students who are in the center..." Though the process of the group was still evident, there was a shift from Session 1 in that more comments were written about the content of this session.

Session 3

Session 3 continued from Session 2 in terms of the increased emphasis on the content of the group sessions in the comments on the CII. This session dealt with communication issues, and this topic matter was evident from the comments made by the group members. Comments about the presentation of the SOLER method of communication dominated many of the group participants' comments. In addition the following comments were representative of the CIIs completed for Session 3: the importance of "level communication," discussions about "how to communicate," "keep[ing] a level head when talking to the youth," finding a "better way to communicate," and "how to deal with kids who have problems." These comments emphasize the importance of *imparting information* that was evident in this session. Additionally, group members seemed interested in exploring and identifying their responsibility as a "role model" in the lives of the residents. This responsibility was evidenced by such comments as "I learned how helpful I can be to the kids..." and "how I can talk much nicer to the youth..." Some group members referred to themselves as role models when discussing this session.

Session 4

Session 4 also continued the emphasis on *imparting information* in the comments of the group members. This session focused on the didactic presentation of empathy in the group session. Many of the comments that were given by the group members demonstrated this emphasis on empathy. A common theme of the comments was, "the whole group or lesson plan helped me because it defined empathy and gave me steps on

how to respond that way...” Participants commented on the importance of “perspective taking” as a component of empathy and noted that they were able to get a better understanding of the concept of empathy through this session. For example, one participant commented that he or she “did not understand it [empathy] at first, but now I have a better understanding” of the construct. Role playing was also a key component of this session and many of the participants commented on this aspect of Session 4. One commented that the role plays allowed her or him to “prepare to perform the job better...” Again, throughout the middle sessions of the LEADERS group, the comments seemed to be focused on the *imparting information* therapeutic factor.

Session 5

This session is an extension of the previous session in that the concept of empathy is expanded into a discussion of the application of empathy (and discernment) to the corrections environment. Thus, as could be expected, many of the comments about this session parallel this previous session’s comments. Participants continued to enjoy and comment on the benefits of the role plays as a component of the group. One participant stated that the role play (and this session in general) was helpful in “helping me to understand your way is not always the best way...[and the importance of] listen[ing] to everyone’s side or opinion...” Another commented on the importance of not being “so quick to come to judgment about the kids because you don’t know where they come from...” However, as empathy *and* discernment were important to this session, group members commented on the importance of not only learning “how to reach to youth feelings and needs” but also to be better prepared to be “aware of what’s going on around

you” and to “be on point” while at work. The comments for this session again emphasize the role of *imparting information* as a crucial aspect of the LEADERS sessions.

Session 6

This final session of the LEADERS program served three main purposes: to summarize the group, to introduce the concepts of burnout and compassion fatigue, and to provide a terminating experience for the group. These three purposes were echoed in the comments on the CII. Interestingly, many of the comments shifted from *imparting information* back to *universality*. A common theme for the comments for Session 6 was the “togetherness” of the group and the benefits of “finding out what some of the guys feel.” Further, there seemed to be a call for continued togetherness in some of the comments (e.g., “ways first shift can come together as a team..” In addition to these comments emphasizing *universality* several participants commented on more *existential factors*. For example, one individual commented that the group spurred him “to ask myself what did I come to work for – to help the kids or to help myself? And the answer is to help the kids.” Many commented on the importance of thinking about their attitude toward work and to continue to think about “how to be a better JCO...”

Though most of the comments shifted focus, there were some individuals who provided focus on the content of this session (*imparting information*). Several commented on the review that was presented in this session and the importance of the discussion on burnout and compassion fatigue that framed the closing of the LEADERS sessions.

Final Comments

The CII provided a narrative measure of the therapeutic factors operating in the LEADERS sessions, while also providing a barometer of the sessions themselves. The trend in this instrument seems to have been moving from universality to imparting information, followed by a return to universality. In addition, there is an importance of both the content of the group sessions and the manner in which the sessions were conducted (the group process itself). Though the sessions were conducted as psychoeducational groups, there remained a heavy emphasis on group process as well as content.

Summary of Results

The evaluation of the LEADERS program yielded few significant results. However, the three separate groups that took part in this study did demonstrate or closely approach statistical significance on either the empathy measure or the correctional role measure used in this study. Further, additional, non-significant statistical testing, resulted in effect sizes that are worth further exploration. Moderate and large effect sizes were demonstrated on some of the statistical testing for Research Questions 1 and 2, and several small effect sizes were found. Further, the one-tailed within-subjects t-test for the entire sample showed statistically significant improvement from pre-test to post-test on the Empathic Concern scale of the IRI. The small sample size that was available for this study (overall N = 31, Group 1 N = 8, Group 2 N = 10, Group 3 N = 13) made it difficult to find statistical significance in the present study. However, the effect sizes

discovered in this study warrant further attention and continued study with a larger sample.

None of the environmental measures (incident reports, counselor requests, and nurse visit requests) showed significant changes as a result of the intervention. The main purpose of this study was to measure the effects of the LEADERS group on the JCOs themselves. However, it was hypothesized that changes in the JCOs would generalize to systemic changes that could be measured in the facility itself. Yet, there are a myriad of factors that affect these environmental numbers. Thus, because of the multiple effects on the environmental measures, these measures may have been insensitive to any environmental changes that did take place as a result of the LEADERS intervention.

In exploring the JCOs responses on the experimental instruments a couple of interesting findings were made. Though inferential statistical testing was not possible with a normative sample, descriptive differences showed that JCOs scored higher on the Perspective Taking and Empathic Concern aspects of Empathy and lower on Fantasy and Personal Discomfort aspects of empathy. An additional finding was that Social Interest could be best predicted by the Perspective Taking component of empathy (as measured by the IRI). Finally, Social Interest was not found to be related to the scores on the CRI.

The final aspect of this study was the narrative interpretation of the Critical Incident Inventories that were given to each participant following each session. The intended inclusion of group process (as opposed to simply the teaching of information) was evident in the responses). In addition there seemed to be a trend in the therapeutic

factors that were operating: universality (Session 1) → imparting information (Sessions 2-5) → universality (Session 6).

The small sample size in this study greatly limited the power of the inferential testing that was used to evaluate the group itself. However, additional work in the area of groupwork with correctional officers is encouraged through the results of this study. Specifically, the combination of moderate and large effect sizes (and several more small effect sizes), as well as with the results from the Critical Incidents Inventory (and group members verbally reporting benefits from the group), is an impetus for further study.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

Summary of the Study

The present study investigated a psychoeducational group for Juvenile Correctional Officers entitled LEADERS (Listening Empathically And Discerning Empathic Relationship Skills). To that end, a group protocol was developed and then implemented in a Southeastern Regional Youth Detention Center. Thirty-one Juvenile Correctional Officers completed the LEADERS group, in three separate LEADERS cycles. Subsequently, empirical methods examine the effectiveness of the group outcome were employed. The theoretical and practical significance of the results of the study, as well as areas for further research are discussed in this chapter.

Correctional Officers are certainly at a crossroads of the interplay of corrections and confinement (or rehabilitation and security) in their occupation (Bazemore, Dicker, & Al-Gadheeb, 1994). However, there are calls for the development of groups to help work with and train correctional staff (e.g., Camp 1991; Myers 2000). The lack of these types of groups in a review of the literature, and the call for this type of work with Correctional Personnel are incongruent. Thus, correctional officers are left feeling unprepared and untrained to perform the job that they are asked to perform. Training methods are addressed to the basic security and administrative roles these individuals are being asked to perform (Pogrebin, 1987), but they are left wanting in the area of

interpersonal communication training (OJJDP, 1996). In essence, Correctional Officers are being asked to perform two separate sets of tasks (security officer and rehabilitation agent), and are only being trained in one of these tasks (security). The LEADERS group was designed to help address the current paucity in the literature regarding of this type of groupwork with Correctional Officers.

This incongruence in training combined with the increasing call for Correctional Officers to keep their primary role of security (American Correctional Association, 1992b), while also creating an atmosphere of rehabilitation and growth, led to the development and evaluation of the LEADERS program. This group was designed to add to the training of correctional officers, while also offering a new perspective of the importance of communication in correctional environments. In order to create the LEADERS program, a thorough review of the literature was employed to create six sessions from a scientist-practitioner paradigm. The sessions were created after this review of the literature and were informed by established psychological principles of groupwork. The sessions were presented in depth in Chapter 2 and the goals of these sessions are presented in Appendix C.

After designing the actual group sessions to be implemented with the sample of correctional officers, a modified time-series design (presented in Appendix F) was utilized in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the LEADERS program. This design allowed for between-subjects analyses (through MANCOVA analyses and ANCOVA analyses) and within-subjects analyses (paired-samples t-testing from pre-test to post-test). In addition, this design allowed for the control of history effects and allowed for

follow-up analyses on some of the research sample. Furthermore, the initial testing of the participants allowed for statistical analyses of the relationship between variables of interest and a descriptive comparison of the juvenile correctional officers (JCOs) participating in the present study and normative samples. Specifically, eight research questions were included in the present study. In order to integrate the results, the discussion is organized into three main content areas: (1) evaluation of the program (Research Questions 1-5), (2) analysis of the juvenile correctional officer sample (Research Questions 6-8), (3) and a narrative (non-data driven) evaluation of the LEADERS groups themselves. In the section below, the results of the research questions are reviewed and some conclusions are discussed relevant to the empirical findings. Many of the empirical results did not reach statistical significance. Possible reasons for this lack of overwhelming significance are also discussed in the next session.

Beyond the eight research questions, one instrument (the Critical Incidents Inventory (Dagley, n.d.) allowed for a narrative exploration of the participants' experience in the LEADERS sessions. These ancillary findings enrich the empirical findings in the present study by providing a more qualitative understanding of the experiences of the participants.

Conclusions and Implications

Evaluation of the Program (Research Questions 1-5)

These questions were at the heart of evaluating the LEADERS program. In essence, evaluating these research questions was the main purpose of this study. The ultimate goal of these five questions was to assess whether any differences occurred in

the JCOs or in the institution itself as a result of participating in the LEADERS sessions.

A summary of the findings for these five questions is presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Summary of findings for research questions 1-5

RQ #1	RQ#2	RQ#3	RQ#4	RQ#5
Correctional Role	Empathy	Incident Reports	Counselor Requests	Nurse Requests
Group 1— Significant MANCOVA, Group 1-No significant findings (small effect size on ANCOVA)	Group 1— Significant MANCOVA, ANCOVA, and within-subjects results (Small to large effect sizes)			
Group 2- ANCOVA reached significance (p = .058) (large effect size)	Group 2—No Significant Results (Small to Large Effect Sizes)			
Group 3-No significant findings	Group 3-No significant results			
	Overall— Empathic Concern subscale			
Overall-No significant findings	approached significance	No Significant Change	No Significant Change	No Significant Change

Research Question #1: Will an interpersonal skill training group improve the interpersonal orientation of correctional officers?

H₁: An Interpersonal skill training group improves the interpersonal orientation of correctional officers.

This Research Question utilized the Correctional Role Index (Hemmens & Stohr, 2000) to assess if there was any difference in the correctional role (measured on a continuum between Human Service Orientation and Hack Approach) that could be attributed to the LEADERS program. The only finding that reached significance was in Group 2, which demonstrated a statistically significant improvement in their CRI score. Further, the overall within-subjects testing for this question did not reach statistical significance.

Thus, this study found that participation in the LEADERS program significantly affected the correctional role of one of the groups in the present study, but not in the others (and not in the overall sample). There are a few explanations for these findings that are discussed below:

- (1) The LEADERS program was not sufficient to affect a change on the correctional role orientation of the participants in this study. Though the correctional role was addressed in this group, the attention afforded to this construct may have been inadequate to affect a statistically significant change in this construct.
- (2) The means for the pre-test scores ranged between 140 and 150. The maximum score on the CRI is 203 (29 items X 7 point Likert-scale).

Thus, the pre-test means were elevated significantly from the midpoint of the instrument (which would be 101.5). There may have been a ceiling effect that affected the results of the post-test. In other words, the pre-test scores may have been too elevated to see any significant increase in the post-test scoring.

- (3) The sample size for the 3 individual group analyses and for the overall group analyses was small. The total sample size for this study was 31, and the group analyses had sample sizes that were even smaller (8, 10, and 13, respectively). Thus, to reach statistical significance, a large effect size would have had to have been found. Small to moderate effect sizes would not be statistically significant at this sample size.
- (4) Finally, there were several statistical problems that were mentioned for this instrument in Chapter 3. However, since there were no other instruments of this type available, it was included in the present study. It is possible that the CRI may need further revisions to be useful to analyze the effects of this type of groupwork.

An aspect of the present study was to examine the effect of the LEADERS program on the correctional role of the participants. The only group that demonstrated a significant improvement on their correctional role was Group 2; the other two groups did not demonstrate a significant improvement. Thus, the finding for this research question is that there is a failure to reject the null hypothesis (for all groups except Group 2). The LEADERS intervention may have been insufficient to further influence the correctional

role of the JCOs. In addition, the role of the correctional officer is fraught with conflict (Josi & Sechrest, 1998). There are times when a Hack approach (or a more power driven approach) may be not only necessary, but also mandated by administration (e.g., to break up a fight, to subdue an attacking resident, to restrain a resident). Thus, maintaining a balance of the Hack and Human Service approach may be the ultimate goal of the effective correctional officer. If the ultimate goal of a correctional officer is security (American Correctional Association, 1992b), aspects of the Hack approach are beneficial and necessary to perform the tasks required of correctional officers. The true conflict comes in performing more power oriented (or Hack) tasks, when one has a natural orientation to the Human Service approach, or vice versa. Thus, these two roles are indeed in conflict (Hemmens & Stohr, 2000). However, the LEADERS program was not adequate at affecting a change with this variable in the present study.

Research Question #2: Will an interpersonal skill training group increase the level of empathy that correctional guards have for residents?

H₂: An Interpersonal skill training group improves the level of empathy that correctional officers have for residents.

This Research Question utilized the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Davis, 1980) to assess if there were any differences in the construct of empathy that could be attributed to the LEADERS program. Group 1 demonstrated statistically significant differences (as compared to the wait-list control group) with the MANCOVA analysis. Further, they demonstrated significant univariate differences on the subscales of Perspective Taking and Personal Discomfort. Group 1 also demonstrated within-subjects differences on the

subscale of Personal Discomfort. Group 2 and Group 3 did not demonstrate significant differences. However, Group 2 did demonstrate small to large effect sizes. Finally, the overall sample testing revealed that there was a significant increase (large effect size) for the construct of Empathic Concern when comparing pre-test scores to post-tests scores through a paired-samples t-test. Further, there were non-significant differences with moderate effect sizes for the Perspective Taking and Fantasy subscales. These results are seen as promising because of the small sample size and the moderate to large effect sizes.

Thus, for this hypothesis, which was central to the evaluation of the LEADERS group, the present study found mixed results. The IRI scores were clearly affected in Group 1, but scores for Groups 2 and 3 were not significantly changed. However, the effect sizes found for both Groups 1 and 2 indicated that the LEADERS program had an effect on both of these groups. Further, the overall finding of the Empathic Concern score reaching significance with a one-tailed within-subjects t-test warrants some attention. The possible reasons for the lack of additional significant findings are as follows.

- (1) The focus of the IRI is empathy as it relates to the individual who completes the questionnaire. It is a questionnaire that asks about the individual's life and relationships in general, not just in the workplace. The design of the LEADERS program was to address the role of empathy in relationship to the JCOs work with correctional residents. There may have been changes in how the group participants view empathy in relationship to their work with the residents, but the instrument did not measure these changes because of the

general design of the instrument itself. Thus, by using an instrument that asks about empathy in multiple domains of the participants' lives, but creating an intervention that is specific to the work the participants conduct with residents, there may have been a mismatch between the type of group created and the type of instrument utilized.

- (2) As in Research Question 1, it is possible that the design of the LEADERS group itself was insufficient to affect a change in the variable of empathy. Empathy is a robust and complex variable that may difficult to change in a six-week psychoeducational group. Previous studies measuring changes in empathy have taken a more behavioral approach to assessing empathy. For example, Lewis (1984) assessed empathy through the development of skills rather than the measuring of empathy as a personality variable.
- (3) Some research suggests that the "early stages of empathy training in structured groups may be characterized by losses in empathic orientation, perhaps as a result of increases in listening skills" (Zucker, Worthington, & Forsyth, 1985). Thus, the lack of overwhelming statistical significance may be attributed to ending the groups before more complex and advanced levels of empathy were reached.
- (4) There were descriptive mean changes in all three groups (and in the overall means) in the correct direction (increase in empathic orientation). The one exception to this descriptive finding was in the Personal Discomfort subscale for Group 3. However, these means differences were not found to be

statistically significant. The lack of statistical significance may be the result of small sample sizes in the comparisons made in this study.

Empathy is an important part of communication that can help facilitate an understanding of another's point of view or experiences; even when inaccurate, empathy can provide a starting point for communication between two individuals (Egan, 1998). From a security standpoint, having a better understanding of the residents with who correctional officers work is a practical benefit that can help JCOs in their work environment. On a separate level, providing an appropriate empathic entry point into conversation may provide an environment that is more conducive to change for the correctional resident. The competing cultures of punishment and rehabilitation (Applebaum, Hickey, Packer, 2001) may always be a part of the correctional system as the prison system is replete with individuals who have committed serious and violent offenses. However, if the change to a more rehabilitative model is to occur the correctional officer will have to become a part of the treatment team, which is currently not the case (Holt, 2001). Further, if correctional officers are to be included as part of the treatment team, improvement in communication skills is important. Providing an impetus for empathy and empathic communication skills is an entry point in to improving communication between correctional officer and resident.

The present study found an overall increase in the Empathic Concern aspect of empathy. Empathic Concern is defined as "the tendency to experience feelings of warmth, compassion, and concern for other people" (Davis, 1980, p. 9). These are not traits that are associated with correctional officers in relationship to their work with

correctional residents (Bazemore, Dicker, & Al-Gadheeb, 1994). In addition to the overall difference in Empathic Concern, individual groups demonstrated some statistically significant differences, as well as non-significant differences that demonstrated good effect sizes. Empathy is associated with higher rates of helping behavior (Betancourt, 1990) and is also linked to the attributional process and can affect the types of attributions we make about other's behaviors (Hoffman, 1990). Certainly in an environment where the attributions of the correctional officers and the empathic response of these officers is crucial in increasing their engagement in helping behaviors, the role of empathic communication in a correctional environment is an important construct to address.

The findings of the present study suggest that an intervention that attempts to improve empathy in correctional officers does have promise. With the advantages of empathy in communication established and with the role of the correctional officer increasingly becoming both the role of a security officer and a rehabilitation agent, additional training in empathy and communication skills is warranted.

Research Question #3: Does increased interpersonal skill among guards lead to decreases in disruptive resident behavior?

H₃: Increased interpersonal skill among guards leads to decreased disruptive resident behavior?

Research Question #4: Does increased interpersonal skill among guards lead to fewer counselor requests?

H₄: Interpersonal skill training groups leads to fewer counselor requests.

Research Question #5: Does increased interpersonal skill among guards lead to fewer nurse visits among residents?

H₅: Interpersonal skill training groups leads to fewer nurse visits among residents.

Research Questions 3-5 are linked together because of two reasons. (1) Each of these three Research Questions was considered to be a systemic, or environmental measure of the effectiveness of the LEADERS program. In other words, assuming there was an effect in the JCOs as a result of the LEADERS program, these questions assessed the changes that were expected to occur at the facility level. (2) The findings of each of these three Research Questions (and the explanation of these findings) are identical. In summary, there were no significant differences found for these three Research Questions. The possible reasons for this failure to reject the null hypothesis for these three Research Questions are presented below.

- (1) Though it was hypothesized that an effect on the correctional officer staff would have a systemic affect on the facility, there are a myriad of factors that affect each of these three questions. Thus, even though there were some effects noted in the present study, many confounding variables could have affected the number of incident reports, counselor requests, and nurse visit requests over the period being assessed.
- (2) The global measures used in the present study were not refined for the type of incident reports, the reason for grievance or counselor request, and the reason for a nurse visit request. Thus, certain types of incident reports (e.g., being disrespectful to staff), types of grievances (e.g., grievances toward the JCOs,

and the types of nurse visit requests (e.g., headaches or stomachaches without a physical cause) may be affected by this type of groupwork. The global measures may not have been sensitive enough to changes in subcategories of these three research questions to detect a difference.

Though the null hypotheses for these three Research Questions could not be rejected, there is still reason to measure these types of variable when implementing a program such as the LEADERS program. The benefits of this type of groupwork are intended to benefit the JCOs directly and to benefit the facility in which the JCOs work indirectly. Because of the sheer time that correctional officers spend with correctional residents, changing the nature of their relationship with each other should result in changes that can be measured in the system as a whole.

Analysis of the Juvenile Correctional Officer Sample (Research Questions 6-8)

Research Question #6: Are juvenile correctional officers less empathic than the sample used to norm an empathy measure.

H₆: Juvenile Correctional Officers are less empathic than the sample used to norm an empathy measure.

Because no studies were found that included both the means and the standard deviations for the four scales of the IRI, and because collecting a comparative sample was beyond the scope of the present study, no inferential statistics were calculated to answer this Research Question. However, the descriptive comparison of the means showed that the LEADERS group scored slightly higher on the Perspective Taking subscale and the Empathic Concern subscale, and slightly lower on the Fantasy subscale

and the Personal Discomfort subscale (Table 4.10). Significance levels were not possible to calculate because of the inability to use inferential statistical procedures.

Despite the inability to test these differences, it is obvious that JCOs did not score lower on all of the IRI subscales. In fact, their higher scores on two aspects of empathy (compared to the normative sample, which was comprised of college students) is an interesting finding. Further, explaining the higher scores on the Perspective Taking subscale and the Empathic Concern subscale is important. Perspective Taking is defined as “the tendency to adopt the point of view other people in everyday life”; Empathic Concern is defined “the tendency to experience feelings of warmth, compassion, and concern for other people” (Davis, 1980, p. 9). Both of these constructs have been found to be important predictors of voluntarism and helping behaviors (Unger & Thummuluri, 1997). Further, when these two constructs are in combination, they are associated with more complicated, divergent thinking about others, or an increased ability to think about multiple causes for other’s behaviors (Karinol & Shomroni, 1999). Individually, perspective taking has been found to be very important in helping behaviors or prosocial behaviors (Magnuson, Bachman, & Theunissen, 1996). Additionally, perspective taking has been found to be very important for individuals who work with youth in a residential facility (Kerem, Fishman, & Josselson, 2001) and has been found to moderate the distressing emotional effects of volunteering (Eisenberg & Okun, 1996). Empathic concern has been noted as the “apex” of empathy, which involves both cognitive and emotional processes (Cliffordson, 2002, p. 49). Further, empathic concern has been found to increase feelings of “oneness” with others (Cialdini, Brown, Lewis, & Luce,

1997), thus increasing one's ability to be empathic towards others. Though these findings are interesting, it is again noted that the statistical significance of these differences was not obtained. However, it is apparent that the elevation of these two constructs would be beneficial in helping JCOs perform the human relations portion of their job (assuming they have the communication skills to act on their empathic thoughts). What is interesting about this association is that (anecdotally) many of the JCOs who participated in this study noted that they chose this profession in order to make a difference in the lives of the residents who were detained in the facility.

In addition to the two relatively higher scores on the Perspective Taking and Empathic Concern subscales, the JCOs that participated in this study demonstrated relatively lower scores on the Fantasy and Personal Discomfort subscales. The Fantasy subscale is defined as "the tendency to transpose oneself into the feelings and actions of fictitious characters in books, movies, and plays"; and the Personal Distress subscale is defined as "feelings of personal unease and discomfort in reaction to the emotions of others" (Davis, 1980, p. 9-10). In general, these two factors have been found to be unrelated to social interest, as defined by Adlerian theory (Watkins & St. John, 1994). Further, fantasy has been found to be unrelated to voluntarism (Unger & Thumuluri, 1997). Personal distress is a more emotional aspect of empathy that can provide an impetus for helping behaviors. For example, individuals who score high in personal distress also score high in measures of emotionality (Gurthrie, Eisenberg, Fabes, Murphy, Holmgren, Mazsk, & Suh, 1997). This emotional aspect of empathy can serve a positive, motivating cause. In fact, along with perspective taking and empathic concern, personal

distress is associated with increased volunteering behavior (Unger & Thumulari, 1997). However, when in a stressful situational work (e.g., working in a correctional setting), personal distress can also have a deleterious effect of causing higher levels of emotional stress and even burnout (Day & Chambers, 1991). Thus, it may serve a protective function in a correctional setting to have lower scores on some of the aspects of empathy, such as personal distress.

Despite the inability to make statistical comparisons to answer Research Question 6, the descriptive differences found in this study are important. In light of the importance of empathy to the conceptualization of the LEADERS group in general, this comparison allowed for a analysis of the starting point of the sample of JCOs used in the present study.

Research Question #7: Is Social Interest related to empathy among correctional officers?

H₇: Social Interest is positively related to empathy among correctional officers.

The analyses conducted for this Research Question included both Pearson correlations and regression equations. The findings of both types of analysis support the relationship of only one aspect of empathy to social interest, Perspective Taking. This subscale of the IRI was the only one to significantly correlate with the score of the Personal Trait Value Scale, which is a measure of the Adlerian construct of social interest. In addition, when all possible regressions were calculated, the regression equation that was selected as the ‘best’ set of predictors was the one that only entered Perspective Taking as a regressor.

These analyses were conducted to better understand the relationship between social interest and empathy in the sample used for this study. Social Interest has been defined as “the willingness to participate in the give and take of life and to cooperate with others and be concerned about their welfare” (Dinkmeyer, Dinkmeyer, & Sperry, 1987). This construct is a measure of mental health to Adlerians and is at the heart of Adlerian theory. Thus, the relationship between social interest and empathy was of theoretical importance to this study. Though it is understood that empathy is a separate construct from the more robust construct of social interest (Stasio & Capron, 1998), it seemed likely that the two would be related.

To be able to be involved in the lives of others and to be concerned about them, one would have to be able to take their perspective. Further, being able to relate to another and take her or his perspective can allow for closer relationships. These closer relationships can allow for the transformation of social identities and the increase of social skills (Karcher, 1997). Aspects of empathy, such as Perspective Taking as measured by the IRI, have been found to be related to social interest in the past (e.g., Watkins & St. John, 1994). Further, these same researchers found that Fantasy and Personal Distress were not related to social interest, a finding that is consistent with the findings of the present study. However, it would be expected that other aspects of empathy would be important to social interest. Empathic concern, for example seems to be a core component of social interest. To “become involved in helping others and to look outward instead of inward” (Dinkmeyer, Dinkmeyer, & Sperry, 1987, p. 64), one would benefit from a genuine concern for others. Interestingly, the combination of

Empathic Concern and Perspective Taking had the second highest Adjusted R^2 in the regression equations calculated for this study. However, even when entering Empathic Concern as a regressor, Perspective Taking still accounted for an overwhelming amount of the variance.

Thus, the present study found that, of the four components of empathy, perspective taking is the most important predictor of social interest in a sample of JCOs. In many ways, social interest can be a motivator to take another's perspective. In other ways, perspective taking can help people to demonstrate higher levels of social interest. The correlation and regression equation does not demonstrate the directionality of the relationship, only that the relationship exists. Social interest has been found to be related to volunteerism (Hettman & Jenkins, 1990), as has perspective taking (Eisenberg & Okun, 1996). Both are at the heart of investing in others, which was an overarching message of the LEADERS program (to invest in those individuals that are being confined and served by the correctional facility). Further exploration to the relationship between these variables, especially in relation to work in a correctional setting would be beneficial to understanding these two constructs.

Research Question #8: Is Social Interest related to a human service approach to correctional officers' work?

H₈: Social Interest is positively related to a human service approach to correctional officers' work.

The correlation employed to answer this Research Question was not significant. In fact, the correlation was very close to zero, indicating no relationship between the

score on the CRI (correctional role) and the social interest measure used in this study.

This finding is somewhat surprising since the human service orientation of the CRI seems conceptually similar to the approach to correctional that would be taken by someone with high levels of social interest. However, some possible explanations for the lack of statistical significance for this correlation are listed below.

- (1) Again, there are statistical problems with the CRI itself, which may call into question the validity of this instrument. However, this was the only instrument of its kind that was found in the literature base. Further, the construct measured by this instrument seemed relevant to the present study and, thus, was included. However, the statistical difficulties with the instrument itself may have affected the correlation used to answer this question.
- (2) There was a slight constriction of range problem with the data utilized to answer this question. The range for 26 of the 29 completed CRIs used for this analysis was 135-174. though this is a spread of 40, the possible responses for this instrument are between 0 and 206. Further, 19 of 29 scores on the Personal Trait Value Scale (the measure of social interest) were between 9 and 11. When the range and variability of one of the variables is constricted, it is more difficult to find a significant correlation. In the present case, both variables were somewhat constricted in their range, which affected the calculation of the correlation coefficient.

(3) An additional possibility is that these two constructs are not related. The CRI asks questions that specifically relate to correctional work, while the Personal Trait Value Scale is a more general measure of social interest. It is possible that the respondent's perceptions of their social interest are conceptually unrelated to their view of correctional work.

Currently there exists no literature on the relationship between social interest and correctional work. However, this construct is important to explore in relation to the work of correctional officers. By its definition, the Hack approach seems antithetical to the concept of social interest. Further, even though there is a recent understanding of the difficulty of correctional work, the literature cautions that correctional officers are more likely to support incarceration over rehabilitation as a reason for confinement (Cullen, Lutze, Link, & Wolfe, 1989). Correctional officers have a reputation of being punitive and power driven (Bazemore, Dicker, & Al-Gadheeb, 1994). Even in the artificial prison paradigm designed by Zimbardo (1973) prison guards developed what could be referred to as a Hack approach with the experimental inmates. Increasing social interest in relation to correctional officers' work with residents would seem to be associated with an orientation that is related more closely to the Human Service Approach, as opposed to the more traditional Hack approach.

In order to better design a group intervention for JCOs, we must gain a better understanding of various aspects of JCOs and their environment. The preceding section provides a start at better understanding of the constructs of empathy, correctional role

orientation, and social interest, while providing an inroad to understanding these variables specifically as they relate to correctional work.

Ancillary Findings

Just as important as understanding variables that affect correctional work such as empathy, correctional role orientation, and social interest, the process of the LEADERS groups is important to explore. The Critical Incidents Inventory (Dagley, n.d.) was used as a narrative barometer of the LEADERS sessions. The overall findings for this instrument were that universality and imparting information dominated as the therapeutic factors that affected the group. The opening and terminating sessions of the LEADERS group seemed to be heavily influenced by universality, while the middle sessions seemed to be more influenced by imparting information. Certainly the LEADERS group contains didactic information and teaching that is a major component of the intervention. Thus, imparting information, which is defined as “didactic instruction...advice, suggestions, or direct guidance from either the therapist or other patients” (Yalom, 1995, p. 8) is an important therapeutic factor for group participants to perceive as important.

However, this group was not intended to merely be a workshop where group participants passively receive information. Group process is central to this group. Thus, it is encouraging that group members cited universality as a salient or critical aspect to the LEADERS intervention. Yalom (1995, p. 6) notes the following about universality, “In the therapy group, especially in the early stages, the disconfirmation of a patient’s feelings of uniqueness is a powerful source of relief.” Universality allowed the JCOs to realize that their frustrations, struggles, perceptions, and successes were shared by others.

Anecdotally, almost all of the group participants commented on the process of the group (even if they did not remember aspects of the content). Meeting together as a group was a powerful intervention itself as group members from each shift began to interact with each other in a manner in which they were not accustomed. Promoting the universality of individuals' experiences has been noted as key in groupwork, especially with men (Brooks, 1998), which comprised a majority of the sample for the present study. Certainly universality is of crucial importance when inviting change in a group format (Hoge & McLoughlin, 1991). This construct was also validated as an important factor in the LEADERS groups.

The process of the LEADERS groups was often slow. Many of the JCOs sat through the group experience as minimally willing participants and did not engage the material at first. However, by employing group process techniques and 'hooking them' with their own perceptions of their universal struggles in the youth detention facility, the group was able to take flight. Even in a psychoeducational group structure, group process is key (Furr, 2000). Further, only through group process and factors (such as universality) will the ultimate goals of the psychoeducational group be realized (Ettin, Vaughn, & Fiedler, 1987). Thus the process of the LEADERS sessions (as evidenced by the participants noting the importance of universality) and the content of the sessions (as noted by the importance of imparting information) were central to importance of the LEADERS sessions from the participants' perceptions.

Gender and ethnicity may have also affected both the group process and the results of the present study. The three LEADERS groups were predominantly comprised

of African American men; while the group leader was a white male. Further, the group members were aware that the group leader was not a member of their staff or administration. The impact of such variables on the present study is unknown. Gender or cultural expectations or biases on the part of the group members (or the group leader) could have greatly affected the process of the groups themselves. Additionally, the Center at which the present study was conducted was an adolescent male correctional facility with mostly African American residents. It would be interesting to note how these groups would have been different for an adult facility, a female facility, or a facility with a different ethnic makeup of residents.

In light of a limited sample size and logistic constraints, these sociocultural variables were not controlled or examined in the present study; however, it would be naïve to ignore the possible presence of the effects of gender and ethnic differences in the group. Further, replication of this type of group should address these concerns by varying the gender and ethnicity of the group leader. In addition a co-leader (who may be a correctional officer) could be included in order to provide multiple perspectives from the leadership of the group itself. The training of a counseling psychologist encourages not only awareness of these issues, but for providing a forum to discuss and integrate these issues within a group paradigm.

Recommendations for Future Research

Several ideas for future research were generated through the process of the present study. The recommendations are presented below. However, what should be noted first is the need to replicate this study with more JCOs and to continue to evaluate

the effectiveness of the structure of this group. A major weakness of the present study is the small sample size that was obtained for the present study. The data were difficult to obtain, but there seems to be a desire and need for this type of work in the correctional system. In addition to replicating this study with additional participants, there is a need to use multiple group leaders in order to evaluate the group itself. Because of logistic constraints, each of the three LEADERS groups in the present study was conducted by the author of this study. Further research could correct for this confound by recruiting new group leaders to conduct the LEADERS groups. Further, an oversight in the present study was not to include a measure to insure that the material that was being presented, was being learned. A test of the knowledge that was acquired as a function of group membership will be important to include in further study. Further study could also include a measure that has more face validity to the day-to-day relationships and functions of correctional officers. In addition to these overall recommendations, several additional ideas were generated through this study.

1. Future study could also implement the LEADERS program with adult correctional personnel. If this study were conducted, the content of Session 2 would need to be changed to make the group protocol relevant to an adult population.
2. There is myriad of new research projects being conducted to address the role of female correctional officers (e.g., Gross, Urban, Zupan, & Larson, 1994; Walters, 1993). Few women participate in the present study, but it would be interesting

to see if there were differential effects on men and women who participated in the LEADERS groups.

3. In addition to addressing the role of male and female correctional officers, future research could address the role of a LEADERS group protocol in male and female correctional centers. Further, the development of a male correctional facility and a female correctional facility version of the LEADERS program would add to the research base.
4. A majority of the participants and the correctional residents in the current study were African-American. Further, the leader for the LEADERS groups for this study was White. The multicultural implications of the development of the LEADERS program and the evaluation of the LEADERS program would be an important addition to the literature. Specifically, the effects of variables such as the ethnic makeup of the group itself, and the ethnicity of the group leader would be important to explore.
5. Once the LEADERS program has been evaluated with additional participants, the length of the LEADERS sessions could be manipulated to see if there are differential effects of fewer or additional sessions. Further, a booster session (or sessions) could be added to the group protocol to see if such as session had an effect.
6. Additional process measures and qualitative methods could be explored in future studies to better understand the group process at work with this type of intervention with a sample of correctional officers.

7. The concept of empathy is central to the LEADERS program, but some literature suggests that empathy can, in fact, be detrimental to individuals working in stressful environments (Figley, 1999). Additional research should continue to explore the benefits and cautions of empathy in correctional work. In light of the high level of stress and burnout that is present in the correctional officer population, not being empathic may serve a protective function for the correctional officers.
8. In addition to the previous recommendation, additional exploration into the construct of compassion fatigue (Figley, 1999) as it relates to correctional work will be important to explore. It is possible that this construct could help to explain the high levels of burnout associated with correctional work.
9. Further exploration of the role and correlates of social interest to the work of correctional officers should be included in future research.
10. Finally, it will be important to further explore the correlates of success in correctional officer work and the correlates of stress and burnout with correctional officers.

The correctional officer is an individual whose importance in the correctional system is paramount. Yet, though this importance is seen, adequate attention is not being given to these individuals in the research base. If the importance of these individuals has been noted in the literature for some time (e.g., Reid, 1976), then providing an empirical understanding of this occupation, the stresses faced by those in this occupation, the personality variables associated with individuals in this occupation, etc., are needed.

Future research can provide not only a better understanding of this population, but also how to be effective in providing better human relations training to this population.

Summary

The goal for the present study was to create and validate a new psychoeducational group for juvenile correctional officers. This group, entitled Listening Empathically And Discerning Empathic Relationship Skills (LEADERS), was derived from a combination of a review of the literature, clinical experience, and the needs defined by correctional personnel. The six sessions of the LEADERS program dealt with the following constructs: correctional roles, adolescent development, communication skills, understanding the concept of empathy, discerning empathic responses, and stress/burnout from working in a correctional facility.

Overall, the LEADERS group protocol was received well by both administrators and group participants. Though hesitant to engage in the group at first, the JCOs who participated in this study increasingly engaged in the group process, and many commented that they enjoyed the group. Despite their engagement, few significant differences were found when evaluating this program. However, interestingly, each group made at least one change that was statistically significant (Group 1 = MANCOVA, ANCOVA [Personal Distress and Perspective Taking], paired samples t-test [Personal Distress]; Group 2 = correctional role differences in comparison to the control group; Group 3 = Empathic Concern differences from pre-test to post-test). Further when all of the participants were included in one group for pre-test/post-test analysis, the Empathic Concern subscale of the IRI was found to be statistically higher at the post-test

administration. In addition to these findings from the LEADERS program, exploration was completed on the sample of JCOs who participated in this study. They were found to have responded descriptively higher on some aspects of empathy (Perspective Taking and Empathic Concern) and lower on others (Fantasy and Personal Distress). Further, Perspective Taking was found to be the best predictor of Social Interest in this sample. No relationship between correctional role and social interest was found in this study. Finally, the therapeutic factors of universality and imparting information were found to be salient in the group sessions that comprised the LEADERS program.

The sample size for the present study was small. Finding JCOs who were willing to both participate in the LEADERS program and complete the measures for the empirical exploration of LEADERS was difficult. The small sample size made it difficult to find statistical significance. Yet, many of the effect sizes found in the present study were in the moderate to large range (and many more were in the small range). As stated throughout this study, the call for this type of work with correctional personnel is present in the literature base, and it is needed as correctional facilities become increasingly interested in rehabilitation.

Though security is job one for correctional officers, the modern correctional officer is much more than a security officer. Further correctional officers often deal with individuals who are disinterested or unmotivated to receive rehabilitative efforts. The job of a correctional officer is, at times, uncertain, dangerous, and frustrating. Further, there is a sentiment among correctional officers that the upper echelons of administration do not value their opinions. Nonetheless, these individuals are on the front lines of our

correctional facilities. They are trained in security methods, takedowns, restraints, and “verbal judo.” Their training in psychological principles (development, communication training, purposiveness of behavior, etc.), that could be helpful in their work, is suspect. Further, little attention is given to the stress and fatigue that are commonplace in this profession. Because of each of these factors, continued work in these areas is necessary. There needs to be a better understanding of the work of correctional officers and there needs to be additional work to attempt to better train the front line of our correctional facilities.

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APPENDIX A

Conceptual Overview of LEADERS Model

Conceptual Overview of the LEADERS Model

Introduction Hack VS. Human Service Approach Forming the Group

Adolescent Development

1. Normal Adolescent Development
2. Etiology of Antisocial Adolescent Behavior
3. Teleological Approach to Behavior

Communication Skills

1. Interpersonal Skill in a Correctional Environment
2. SOLER Model of Communication
3. Allred's Communication Map

Empathy Training

1. Understanding Empathy
 - a. Multidimensional Empathy
 - b. Understanding and Communicating Empathy
2. Discerning Empathic Responses
 - a. Empathy in a correctional environment
 - b. Guard vs. Correctional Officer
 - c. Discernment
3. Role Plays

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Burnout Compassion Fatigue Termination

APPENDIX B

Allred's Communication Map

Vertical Communication

Generally non-constructive and harmful to relationships

Soliciting Attention (e.g., bragging, monopolizing)

Bossing

Punishing (e.g. finding fault, sarcasm)

Distancing

Surrendering

Level Communication

Depending on warmth, sincerity, empathy, and respect; these types of communication are generally helpful and facilitate communication

Disclosing thoughts

Seeking to Understand

Collaborating

Committing

Encouraging

Disclosing Feelings

Teaching

As presented by Allred (1992)

APPENDIX C

Goals for the LEADERS Program

Goals for the L.E.A.D.E.R.S. (Listening Empathically and Discerning Empathic Relationship Skills) Group: A Series of Psychoeducational Group Sessions for Juvenile Correctional Officers (Time allotted for each goal/activity is included in parentheses)					
Session #1	Session #2	Session #3	Session #4	Session #5	Session #6
Introduction: Why are we here? What is my role?	Understanding Teens: The Role of the Correctional Officer	Making a Case for Communication Skills	Empathy 101	Expanding your toolbox	Communication Boosters: Planning for Future Success
<p>(1) To introduce the purpose/overview of the group (10 Min.)</p> <p>(2) To discuss the difficulties of correctional work (15 Min.)</p> <p>(3) To better understand the importance of the JCOs' role in the rehabilitation component of the YDC (15 Min.)</p> <p>(4) To understand the various approaches to corrections (Hack vs. Human Service Orientation) (10 Min.)</p> <p>(5) To introduce Discernment, Empathy, and Interpersonal Skills (10 Min.)</p> <p>(6) To discuss communication in the YDC environment: What is it like to work here (10 Min.)</p> <p>(7) To discuss group expectations (5 Min.)</p>	<p>(1) To gain an appropriate understanding of adolescent development (20 Minutes)</p> <p>(2) To better understand the development of antisocial or oppositional behavior in adolescence (20 Minutes)</p> <p>(3) To introduce a teleological approach to thinking about residents' behavior (an emphasis in this session is on the goals of misbehavior) (20 Minutes)</p> <p>(4) To apply the skills learned in the three areas presented above to three separate role-plays to be presented by the group facilitator (15 Minutes)</p>	<p>(1) To introduce and discuss interpersonal skills as they relate to a correctional environment (15 Min.)</p> <p>(2) To better understand the SOLER model of communication (15 Min.)</p> <p>(3) To practice using SOLER in a role-play with another group member (15 Min.)</p> <p>(4) To understand the difference between Vertical and Level Communication (15 Min.)</p> <p>(5) To discuss discerning when to use Vertical and when to use Level Communication (including presentation of video segment) (15 Min.)</p>	<p>(1) To develop and understanding of the multidimensional concept of empathy (20 Min.)</p> <p>(2) To see examples of empathic communication through the media (15 Min.)</p> <p>(3) To discuss three dimensions of empathy: Perceptiveness, Know-How, and Assertiveness (15 Minutes)</p> <p>(4) To implement concepts taught in this and previous sessions through role-plays [To practice empathic communication] (25 Minutes)</p>	<p>(1) To discuss how empathy can be utilized in a correctional environment (10 Min.)</p> <p>(2) To discuss the difference between a guard and a correctional officer (10 Min)</p> <p>(3) To discuss discerning when to use empathic responses and when to not use empathic responses (15 Minutes)</p> <p>(4) To practice discerning and responding empathically through role-plays (20 Minutes)</p> <p>(5) To discuss how understanding and being able to respond empathically will affect the JCOs work with residents (20 Minutes)</p>	<p>(1) To review the concepts presented in the LEADERS program (15 Min.)</p> <p>(2) To discuss the advantages of the Hack approach and the Human Service Oriented approach in a corrections environment (10 Min.)</p> <p>(3) To discuss the advantages and disadvantages of empathic communication (10 Min.)</p> <p>(4) To discuss continued encouragement of each other following the group (20 Min)</p> <p>(5) Termination and Post-Test (20 Min.)</p>

APPENDIX D

Session Overviews

Session #1

(1) Welcome/Overview of Workshop

1. 6 Weeks
2. Instruments
3. End of Session Evaluations
4. Learning Process/Development of New Protocol
5. Questions and Answer Session

(2) Discuss the Difficulties of Correctional Work

1. Difficult work environment/Demanding Job
2. War Stories/Difficult Child That You Work With
3. Menace to Society Example
4. Kid You Can't Get Out Of Your Head
5. Difficult Environments

(3) Importance of JCOs

1. What hats do you wear as a JCO?
2. What Role do you play in the lives of the juveniles?
3. How do you do this job?
4. What do you like about this job?
5. Success Stories

(4) Various Approaches to JCO Work

What jobs do you do here?

HACK APPROACH: POWER DRIVEN, BASED ON VIOLENCE

HSO APPROACH: GUIDING; MENTORING; FACILITATING;
DEVELOPING, ETC.

How do each work in this environment?

(5) Empathy/ Interpersonal Skills/ Discernment

Empathy: Cognitive/Emotional (ASK FOR EXAMPLES)

Perspective Taking: Adopt the Viewpoint of other people in everyday life

Fantasy: Tendency to transpose ones self into the feelings and actions of
fictitious characters in books, movies, TV shows, etc.

Empathic Concern: Tendency to express feelings of warmth, compassion,
and concern for other people

Personal Distress: Feelings of personal unease and discomfort in reaction
to the emotions of others

Interpersonal Skills: Effective communication between two people or two groups of people.. Relate to others....At its core this group is about talking about talking to others

Discernment- Judging with insight (VIDEO)

(6) What makes a successful JCO?

(7) Why did you get in this profession?

(8) Can you make a difference?

This group is from the perspective that you can make a difference in the lives of the children with whom you work... This is a difficult population, as you know... but this workshop offers training in skills to make you better at what you do, while also offering an opportunity for you to learn from your co-workers.

(9) Discuss their expectations?

(10) Process Forms

Session 2

(1) Welcome Back/Review of Last Week' Session

1. Comment on process from last week
2. Difficulties of JCO work
3. Importance of JCOs (Hats)
4. Hack vs. HSO Approach
5. Empathy, Interpersonal Skills, Discernment

(2) Introduction of Today's Session

3. Normal Adolescent Development
4. Etiology of Antisocial Adolescent Behavior
5. Teleological Approach to Behavior
6. Role Plays

(3) Adolescent Development

1. What do you remember about being an adolescent? What was it like?
2. Erikson (Identity vs. Identity Confusion) Who am I? What am I about?
3. Marcia (Identity Moratorium, Identity Foreclosure, Identity Diffusion, Identity Achievement...See Handout)
4. Where do most residents fall? Do they have a sense of self? Have they had experiences from which to draw?
5. Conflict is expected at this time because of the formation of autonomy
6. Autonomy is confronted by being incarcerated
7. Adolescent Egocentrism (It's all about me!!!!!!)
8. Handout (Summary Sheet)

(4) JCAP Paradigm

1. Characteristics of the child (Genetics is controversial, Low Social Competence, Poor Interpersonal Skills, Poor Decision Making Skills, Poor Stress Management Skills, Poor Anger Management Skills, Psychological Disorders (e.g., ADHD), Lower IQs, Alienation, Impulsivity, **Attribution of Hostile Intentions to Others**)
2. Ecological Variables (School, Community, Peer, Family) Handout
3. Interactions among these variables...Explain and discuss how these separate influences come together when the child is at the RYDC
4. Makes it difficult to be helpful with all of these influences? What seems most important to you?
5. How have you seen these influences in the ARYDC? What difference does knowing these findings make in your work? What would be helpful to know?
6. Handout (Copy JCAP figure)

(5) Teleological Approach: The Purpose of Misbehavior

1. Teleology-Science or doctrine of final causes (Webster's)
2. Observe the child's behavior
3. Note your reaction
4. Note the response of the child to your correction
5. Step Back (Video) and think about the problem (Most difficult step)
6. Importance of Discernment in this way of thinking about misbehavior

(6) Role Plays

1. A child returns from court...Gets long sentence...You don't like me, everyone is out to get me... You ask him to join his classroom....
2. You ask a child to put their chair back under the table, the says that he will not do this...what do you do?
3. A child gets upset at something another guard has told him...He goes outside to play basketball and gets in a fight...He comes back in and is placed in his room and begins to hit the walls...What do you do???

(7) Summary

(8) Critical Incidents Inventory

Session 3

1. Welcome Back and Review of Last Week's Session

1. Adolescent Development
2. JCAP Model
3. Teleological Approach
4. Role Play Review

2. Overview of Today's Session

1. Interpersonal Skill in a Correctional Environment
2. SOLER Model of Communication
3. Allred's Communication Map
4. Back to the Video (Dissecting an Interpersonal Exchange)

3. Interpersonal Communication in a Correctional Environment

1. How do you know a good JCO when you see one?
2. What are some examples of good communication?
3. What are the advantages of good communication?
4. What does it mean to be skilled, interpersonally?
5. Are good interpersonal skills necessary for your job?

4. To better understand the SOLER model of communication

1. How do you know when you are being listened to?
2. Squarely
3. Open
4. Lean Forward
5. Eye Contact
6. Relaxed

5. To practice using SOLER in a role-play with another group member

1. Show someone you are listening
2. Show someone you are not listening

6. To understand the difference between Vertical and Level Communication

1. Vertical Communication (examples from handout)
2. Level Communication (examples from handout)
3. How can you tell the difference between the two when you are in the middle of a conversation?

- 7. To discuss discerning when to use Vertical and when to use Level Communication (including presentation of video segment)**
 1. Police Video Review
 2. Process Types of Communication
 3. Which type of communication is more effective?
 4. How do you know when to use which type of communication?
- 8. Summary**
- 9. Critical Incidents Inventory**

Session 4

1. Welcome Back and Review of Last Week's Session

1. SOLER
2. Allred's Communication Map
3. Importance of Good Communication

2. Overview of Today's Session

1. Multidimensional Empathy
2. Videos
3. Understanding and Communicating Empathy

3. Multidimensional Empathy

1. Review: What is Empathy?
2. Cognitive Components of Empathy
3. Affective Components of Empathy
4. Davis' Model of Empathy
 1. Fantasy
 2. Perspective Taking
 3. Empathic Concern
 4. Personal Distress
5. What aspects of empathy are necessary for you job?
6. Is empathy helpful to your job? To your relationships?

4. Videos

1. Shawshank Redemption #1
2. Shawshank Redemption #2
3. Green Mile #1
4. Green mile #2

5. Understanding and Communicating Empathy

1. Three Dimensions of Responding:
 1. Perceptiveness
 2. Know-How
 3. Assertiveness
2. Linking feelings to actions
3. Tactics for Communicating Empathy
 1. Ability
 2. Motivation
4. What is the difference between ability and motivation?

6. Summary

7. Critical Incidents Inventory

Session 5

1. Welcome Back and Review of Last Week's Session

1. Multidimensional Empathy
2. Videos
3. Understanding and Communicating Empathy
4. Role-Plays

2. Overview of Today's Session

1. Empathy in a correctional environment
2. Guard vs. Correctional Officer
3. Discernment
4. Role Plays

3. Empathy in a Correctional Environment

1. How can you use empathy in a correctional environment?
2. What are the benefits of an empathic response?
3. What are the weaknesses of using an empathic response?
4. How likely are you to use empathy in your work?

4. Guards and Correctional Officers

1. What is the difference between a guard and a correctional officer?
2. Hack and Human Service Orientation
3. Which one are you is the most comfortable for you?
4. Which one would you like to be characterized as?

5. Discernment

1. How do you know when to use empathy?
2. When is it not appropriate to use an empathic response?
3. What are warning signs of a dangerous situation?
4. How would you respond once the danger has passed?
5. How do you make your decision about which role to use?

6. Role Plays

1. A resident gets angry with you because you placed him on room restriction...He escalates in his reaction to you and eventually says, "I am gonna get you later, you better watch your back..."
2. You are in a classroom and you hear two residents discussing an escape plan, these two boys have recently been sentenced to two-year commitments, how do you intervene?
3. You see two boys on the basketball court who are playing pretty hard

with each other...They start trash talking each other, but seem to be playing fine. All the sudden, one of the boys throws the ball and starts yelling at the other boy and walking in his direction. What do you do?

7. Summary
YOU CANNOT DO A GOOD JOB IF YOU DO NOT CARE ABOUT
WHAT YOU DO...(ACA, 1992, p.13)

8. Critical Incidents Inventory

Session 6

14. Welcome Back and Review of Last Week's Session

1. Empathy in a Correctional Environment
2. Guards and Correctional Officers
3. Discernment
4. Role-Plays

15. Overview of Today's Session

5. Review of First Five Sessions
6. Burnout / Compassion Fatigue
7. Termination
8. Post-Test

16. Review of First Five Sessions

5. What is my role? (Definition of Terms)
6. Understanding Teens
7. Communication Skills and Interpersonal Communication
8. Empathy 101
9. Taking Empathy into Corrections

4. Burnout / Compassion Fatigue

1. What is burnout?
2. How do you know when you are getting burned out?
3. How does burnout affect your performance and your ability to relate to the residents?
4. What are the sources of burnout?
5. Define Compassion Fatigue
6. How is Compassion Fatigue different than burnout?
7. How do you take care of yourself?
8. How can you be helpful to each other?
9. **What is your favorite thing about this job?**
10. **What is one thing you could change about yourself to help to make you a better JCO?**
11. **How have you impacted the residents?**

5. Termination – Process is more important than content

1. What has this group been like for you?
2. What are you taking from this group?
3. How can you continue to support and encourage each other once the formal group ends?
4. What was missing (or unfinished) in the group?
5. Certificates

6. Post-Test

APPENDIX E

Session Handouts

Session 1

Handout

Two Approaches to Correctional Work

- **“Hack” Approach**-An approach to correctional work that is power driven, motivated by use of force: A more traditional form of correctional work
- **“Human Service Orientation Approach”**-An approach to correctional work that is interested in guiding, mentoring, facilitating, and aiding in the development of residents. This approach relies less on force and more on conversation.
- Both approaches have their time in the role of a correctional officer; however, it is important to discern which response is required in a give situation.

Terms To Remember:

- **Empathy:** Empathy is a multidimensional set of constructs that deals with an individual’s **responsivity to others**. This construct consists of four separate, discernable constructs, which are as follows:
 - Perspective Taking: The tendency to adopt the view of other people in everyday life.
 - Fantasy: The tendency to transpose oneself into the feelings and actions of fictitious characters in books, movies, and plays.
 - Empathic Concern: The tendency to experience feelings of warmth, compassion, and concern for other people.
 - Personal Distress: Feelings of personal unease and discomfort in reaction to the emotions of others.
- **Interpersonal Skills:** Effective communication between two people of two groups of people. The ability to relate to others.
- **Discernment-** Judging with insight. The ability to decide which action is the best to take based on thoughtful judgment.

Adolescent Development*

Erik Erikson

- Identity vs. Identity Confusion
- Adolescents are presented with new roles
- Adolescents are at a crossroads between childhood and adulthood

James Marcia

- Identity is formed through the combination of Crisis and Commitment
- Crisis: Adolescents are choosing from alternatives of how they could be (trying on various roles)
- Commitment: Adolescents begin to show an investment in who they are and what they are going to do
- Identity Diffusion: No Crisis, No Commitment
- Identity Foreclosure: No Crisis, Commitment is Present
- Identity Moratorium: Crisis, No Commitment
- Identity Achievement: Crisis, Commitment (Both are present)

Autonomy-The right of self-government; Independence
(Webster's)

Adolescent Egocentrism-It is all about me

Skilled Communication/Skilled Communicators*

➤ **SOLER Model of Communication**

- 1. Squarely**
- 2. Open**
- 3. Lean Forward**
- 4. Eye Contact**
- 5. Relaxed**

*As presented by Egan (1998)

➤ **Allred's Communication Map**

Vertical Communication

Generally non-constructive and harmful to relationships

- Soliciting Attention (e.g., bragging, monopolizing)
- Bossing
- Punishing (e.g. finding fault, sarcasm)
- Distancing
- Surrendering

Level Communication

Depending on warmth, sincerity, empathy, and respect; these types of communication are generally helpful and facilitate communication

- Disclosing thoughts
- Seeking to Understand
- Collaborating
- Committing
- Encouraging
- Disclosing Feelings
- Teaching

*As presented by Allred (1992)

Empathy 101*

Empathy

- Empathy is a multidimensional set of constructs that deals with an individual's **responsivity to others**.
- Cognitive Components
- Affective Components
- Ability
- Motivation
- This construct consists of four separate, discernable constructs, which are as follows:
 - Perspective Taking: The tendency to adopt the view of other people in everyday life.
 - Fantasy: The tendency to transpose oneself into the feelings and actions of fictitious characters in books, movies, and plays.
 - Empathic Concern: The tendency to experience feelings of warmth, compassion, and concern for other people.
 - Personal Distress: Feelings of personal unease and discomfort in reaction to the emotions of others.

Adapted from Davis (1980)

Responding Empathically

- Perceptiveness: How accurate are your perceptions?
- Know-How: If your perceptions are right, how do you respond?
- Assertiveness: Your delivery is important
- Feelings —————→ Actions
- Give yourself time to think (Stop, Step Back)
- Short, not long, responses (KISS Method)
- Talk to the resident, but be yourself

Adapted from Egan (1998)

APPENDIX F

Experimental Design



TIME

Six Weeks

Six Weeks

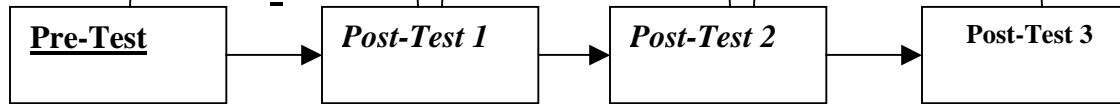
Six Weeks

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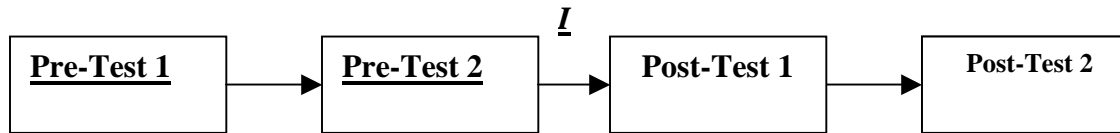
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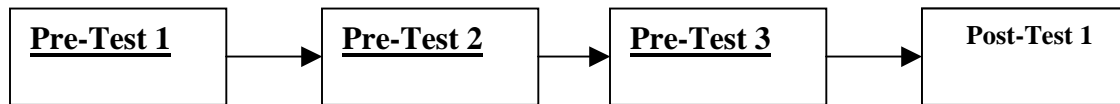
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2



3



1=Group 1

2=Group 2

3=Group 3

I=Intervention

APPENDIX G

Critical Incidents Inventory

Critical Incidents Inventory

- 1. When you think about today's group, what stands out for you about your experience?**

- 2. Of the events that occurred in group today, which one seemed most helpful and productive for you personally? In what ways? What seemed least helpful, and in what ways?**

- 3. When you think about the events of today's group, do you feel more a part of the group or not?**

- 4. Did any part of today's class provide you with anything practical that you may find useful in your work at the RYDC? If so, what?**

- 5. Was there anything in today's experience that helped define your role as a JCO or how you perform your duties as a JCO?**