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## Importation and Prisonization Of Corrections Worker's Attitudes And Behaviors: An Empirical Examination of Social Distance, Correctional Orientation, and Punitive Behavior within the Correctional Setting

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IMPORTATION AND PRISONIZATION OF CORRECTIONS WORKER'S  
ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS: AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF  
SOCIAL DISTANCE, CORRECTIONAL ORIENTATION, AND  
PUNITIVE BEHAVIOR WITHIN THE  
CORRECTIONAL SETTING

by

William J. Hartley

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Faculty of The Graduate College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the  
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy  
Department of Sociology  
*Dr. Susan Carlson, Advisor*

Western Michigan University  
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August 2005

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ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS: AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF  
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William J. Hartley, Ph.D.

Western Michigan University, 2005

Past research has relied on two theoretical models—importation and prisonization—to explain staff member's attitudes, behaviors, and social distance from offenders in the correctional work environment. Tests of these models have shown partial support for both models. However, missing in the literature has been a clear understanding and examination of how these attitudes and behaviors vary across custody levels within a given correctional facility. The purpose of this study is: 1) to include a more comprehensive test of the prisonization and importation models by including more of the variables utilized in past research; 2) to develop and test a causal model that separates exogenous from intervening prisonization variables; 3) to test this causal model using custody levels within a correctional facility; 4) to measure social distance from offenders separately from staff members' correctional orientations; 5) to include other correctional workers in addition to the correctional and treatment staff members that have been the subjects in past studies; 6) to examine the effects of correctional staff members' attitudes on disciplinary behavior through the use of critical incident scenarios. Using data

collected from two correctional facilities in the Midwest, a path analysis reveals the influence of importation and prisonization variables on correctional staff members' correctional orientations, social distance from offenders, and punitive behaviors.

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William J. Hartley

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## **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

Research on correctional staff members' attitudes and behaviors historically has utilized either the differential experience/importation model, the work role/prisonization model, or, more recently, some combination of the two models as the theoretical foundation. The importation model primarily focuses on the individual differences that staff members bring to the workplace to explain attitudes and behaviors in the correctional work environment. The prisonization model, on the other hand, primarily focuses on the causal influence of the work environment in reshaping workers' attitudes and behaviors in favor of the group norm via workplace socialization, thereby diminishing or offsetting the impact of the individual differences emphasized by the importation model.

Initially only a few variables of one model or the other were utilized to test research hypotheses. More recent empirical studies have begun to utilize broader measures of importation and prisonization effects. There are, however, theoretical and methodological shortcomings in existing studies of correctional staff members' attitudes and behaviors. First is the issue of causal ordering of the prisonization variables. The prisonization model suggests workplace activities influence and maintain workplace attitudes of correctional staff members. Within the commonly utilized measures of prisonization are variables which impact the correctional staff member almost immediately when s/he enters correctional employment, just as importation variables do.

However, other prisonization variables develop over time and are affected by the prisonization variables that exist upon employment in the correctional setting. Specifically, prisonization variables, such as, peer and supervisory support, participation in decision making, self-efficacy, job stress and satisfaction, and role conflict would not normally emerge until the correctional staff member has accumulated experience in the profession. Failing to view such measures as intervening variables limits our attempts to understand the impact of importation and workplace characteristics on these important job outcomes. For example, job stress and role conflict can affect the job turnover and burnout that are common in the correctional workplace. Prisonization workplace variables such as shift worked and frequency of interaction with offenders are likely to have an impact on these job outcome measures. Thus, it is important to view prisonization workplace variables as exogenous to (predictors of) prisonization job outcome variables.

A second shortcoming in the literature concerns measurement of correctional staff members' attitudes. Specifically, the literature has focused on custodial/correctional and rehabilitation orientations (for example see Cullen et al., 1989; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). An examination of the questions utilized to measure these concepts suggest a third distinct concept within both custodial/correctional and rehabilitation orientations that needs to be measured separately. Social distance attitudes held by correctional staff members toward the offenders they supervise need to be measured separately from custodial/correctional and rehabilitative orientations. In past studies, custodial/correctional and rehabilitative orientations have been measured with a



single scale ranging from very custodial to very rehabilitative. These scales include items that tap social distance from offenders which suggests that social distance is inherently tied to the correctional staff member's position on the custodial/correctional-rehabilitative continuum. Previous qualitative work in the correctional environment suggests that social distance from offenders is a distinct phenomenon. For example, Sykes (1958:54) noted:

... the guard frequently shows evidence of having been "corrupted" by the captive criminals over whom he stands in theoretical dominance... He can remain aloof only with great difficulty, for he possesses few of those devices which normally serve to maintain social distance between the rulers and the ruled.

Correctional staff members may adhere very strongly to certain correctional control methods (i.e., more rehabilitative or more custodial), while, over time, they may actually establish pseudo-friendships with, or at least a greater tolerance toward, those they supervise, whereas other workers may be less "corrupted" and remain socially distant from offenders. Thus, some correctional staff members may have low social distance and more custodial orientations, high social distance and more custodial orientations, low social distance and more rehabilitative orientations, or high social distance and more rehabilitative orientations.

A third empirical shortcoming in the literature involves the absence of internal custody level as a measure of prisonization in the literature. Many studies have controlled for overall facility security levels while assessing attitudes and behaviors of

correctional staff members (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Crouch and Alpert, 1982; Toch and Klofas, 1982; Jurik and Halemba, 1984; Jurik, 1985b; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1986; Cullen et al., 1989, Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). However, no study to this point has attempted to control for internal custody classification when examining correctional staff member attitudes and behaviors. Attitudes and behaviors in segregated housing units are very likely to differ from attitudes and behaviors in less stressful parts of a correctional facility. Omitting this prisonization variable has likely masked important differences in understanding how attitudes and behaviors of correctional staff members may vary within a facility even more than across facility security classification levels.

A fourth limitation in past studies is that they have focused nearly exclusively on correctional officers, and in a few cases on officers and therapeutic workers. There are many other workers that have direct contact with offenders in the correctional workplace, such as food service workers, medical personnel, and recreational workers. It is important to understand the attitudes and behaviors of these types of workers, since they too have an influence on inmates in the correctional setting.

The last empirical shortcoming in the literature involves the connection of correctional staff members' attitudes with actual practice. Other than Crouch and Alpert (1982) and Jenne and Kersting (1998), few attempts have been made to connect attitudes with anticipated behaviors in typical disciplinary situations correctional staff members face on the job.

In sum, what is missing in the existing correctional literature is a comprehensive,

testable model which incorporates the causal separation of prisonization workplace and job outcome measures, a measurement of social distance separately from correctional orientation, an assessment of the attitudes of correctional workers other than correctional officers and therapeutic workers, an examination of differences in attitudes and behaviors across custody levels within the same prison, and an assessment of the influence of workers' attitudes on their anticipated responses to disciplinary situations. Therefore, the purpose of this dissertation is to develop and test a causal model that will include importation and prisonization workplace variables as exogenous, prisonization job outcome variables as intervening, and social distance and correctional orientations as intervening between prisonization outcomes and punitive behavior. In addition, custody level will be included as an exogenous prisonization variable, and questionnaire data will be collected from the full range of correctional employees who work directly with offenders.

In Chapter II, a comprehensive review of the major theoretical models of correctional staff members' attitudes and behaviors will be presented. The chapter will present the historical development of the importation and prisonization models and their theoretical foundations. Next, Chapter III presents a review of the empirical literature on importation and prisonization studies of correctional staff members' attitudes and behaviors. Since the focus of the present study is on social distance from offenders, correctional orientations, and punitive behavior in the correctional setting, only those past studies which focused primarily on these issues will be presented in the empirical literature review. Chapter IV discusses the present study including the theoretical model

tested, data collection methods, ethical issues, and the analytical strategy. Chapter V includes the finding of the study including principal components analysis, ordinary least squares regression analysis, and the logistical regressions performed on the punitive measures. Lastly, Chapter VI includes a summary of the significant findings, evaluation of the hypothesized model, limitations of the present study, and suggestions for future research.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON SOCIAL DISTANCE AND CORRECTIONAL ORIENTATION**

The concept of social distance, developed by Emory Bogardus in the 1920's, suggests the majority or dominant group(s) will change their levels of tolerance concerning minority or subordinate groups as contact increases between these groups (Rothman, 1999). In addition, Allport (1954) notes a decreasing use of stereotypes and prejudicial behavior with increased contact between dissimilar groups and cultures. In the correctional setting, even if staff members come from similar class backgrounds as offenders, they are still representatives of the state. This authoritative social position naturally creates varying levels of social distance between correctional staff members and the offenders they supervise, which can impact their interactions. However, the literature suggests that social distance changes during the correctional career based on the type of experience, or interaction between correctional staff members and offenders (Sykes, 1958; Poole and Regoli, 1980a; Crouch and Alpert, 1982; Klofas and Toch, 1982; Jurik, 1985b; Klofas, 1986; Howard et al., 1994). The question becomes, what influences the changes in social distance between staff members and offenders?

There have been various theories and models that have been introduced attempting to explain the development, reduction, and/or maintenance of social distance by correctional staff members toward offenders, and how these attitudes influence the implementation of correctional discipline. The two major paradigms in the literature explaining the development of correctional staff member attitudes and social distancing

behaviors have been: (1) individual characteristics of the correctional staff members (importation-differential experiences model); and (2) the agency organization/structure (work-role/prisonization model). More recently, there has been a blending of the two models to explain attitudes and behaviors (see Jurik, 1985b; Jurik et al., 1987; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). These models are based on the literature addressing offender adaptation to prison life. Individual attributes (of offenders) were seen as being influential in explaining offender adaptation to life behind bars, since the individual differences imported into the correctional environment would explain some of the variability between attitudes and behaviors of offenders (Irwin and Cressey, 1962). The contention was that behavior in the prison environment was not peculiar to the prison at all. In other words, the behaviors observed were not part of an adaption process caused by the restrictive social climate contained within prisons, but instead were behaviors learned previously from the “outside” social culture that were subsequently imported into the prison environment.

Contrary to the importation model, the prisonization theory argues that deprivations of prison life (or the organizational controls within the correctional milieu) have a major influence on attitudes and behaviors within prisons through external social controls imposed on the offender (Clemmer, 1940; Sykes, 1958; Wheeler, 1961). The prisonization theory suggests that individual differences are less important than the role demands of the prison setting in explaining behavior within prisons. Individuals must “take on,” in varying degrees, the customs and general culture of the prison system

(Wheeler, 1961). Changes in behavior are based on forces external to the individual and on the demands of the social milieu, not the sum of individual differences.

An alternative hypothesis to the typical importation/prisonization paradigm has been proposed by Hepburn (1985) who sees disciplinary methods or authority utilized by correctional staff members interacting with attitudes toward work and attitudes toward offenders. Power over offenders is given or taken within legitimate, coercive, reward, expert, or referent power strategies. From this perspective, there is less of a concern with social distance between correctional staff members and offenders, and more of an emphasis on structural conditions that undermine correctional officers' power. However, based on changing social, organizational, and legal limitations in corrections, correctional staff members have lost much of their coercive and reward power, and control strategies in the prison setting. According to this approach, correctional staff members select different power rationales to gain offender compliance with orders given and to maintain correctional stability. Accordingly, attitudes toward work and offenders are based on facility-wide power strategies rather than individual staff member differences.

Most theoretical approaches involving correctional employees' attitudes and behaviors use the importation or prisonization models that were developed to explain offender behaviors. Since both offenders and correctional staff members operate in the same social environment, there is likely to be some similarity between employee and offender models. The next several pages will present the fundamental hypotheses

governing attitude formation and correctional staff member behavior within these models and Hepburn's power utilization perspective.

### **Importation/Differential Experience Model**

As noted above, the importation/differential experiences model argues that behaviors are based on individual staff member attributes that are conveyed into the correctional setting. VanVoorhis et al. (1991) suggest that individual attributes such as age, race, gender, and education bring to the workplace a variety of individual experiences that influence social distance depending on how these pre-employment experiences and attitudes have been formed and also how they are maintained in the work environment. In addition, Jurik (1985b) argues prior security experience (such as military or police) as a propensity for custodial orientation, Whitehead and Lindquist (1989) contend that increased age at the time of employment in corrections would reduce social distance between staff members and offenders, and Klofas (1986) hypothesizes that common urban origins of correctional staff members and offenders would decrease social distance.

Several authors hypothesize that minority correctional staff members will more closely identify with minority offenders (Jacobs and Kraft, 1978; Jurik, 1985b; Klofas, 1986; Jackson and Ammen, 1996). The theory suggests that minority staff members tend to share the same socioeconomic/cultural backgrounds as the minority offenders they supervise which will decrease the social distance between them (Jacobs and Kraft, 1978; Jackson and Ammen, 1996). However, since most correctional staff members are white



and come from nonurban areas, social distance is likely to be high between correctional staff members and offenders. An alternative theory suggests that minority staff members experience job-related discrimination (VanVoorhis et al., 1991) which may cause them to align themselves with the offender population comprised largely of minorities. However, this leaves the question open to speculation as to how these same minority correctional staff members interact with white offenders. Lastly, race has also been suggested as having an influence on positive attitudes toward treatment and rehabilitation programs, with minority correctional staff members being more sympathetic toward these programs when compared with their white counterparts (Jackson and Ammen, 1996).

Gender has also been hypothesized to affect correctional staff attitudes and behaviors due to differing socialization patterns between males and females in our society, and how these differences prepare men better than women for the male-dominated working environment typical in adult correctional institutions. Miller argues:

Men's and women's orientations to work are said to differ in fundamental respects. Differential socialization before entry into the labor force, dissimilar parental and conjugal roles, and systematic differences in occupational opportunities suggest that job expectations, career aspirations, reward values, ego investments in work, and need for self-actualization in the workplace may vary by sex (1980: 338).

In regards to correctional work, “women conceivably bring values into a job that are different from men’s” (Jurik and Halemba, 1984: 552) and these differences will likely impact social distance and correctional discipline. Zimmer (1986, 1987) argues that men may be better prepared for the confrontational nature of correctional work than women based on their increased experience with competitive social interactions. This gender model further suggests that females bring a different perspective to the correctional environment based on their prior socialization into family roles (Jurik and Halemba, 1984; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). Female correctional staff members tend to be more favorably oriented toward offenders in regards to offender rights and rehabilitation (Jurik, 1985b; Jenne and Kersting, 1998) and they are more satisfied with their duties than women in more traditional female roles (Jurik and Halemba, 1984). It has been further noted that female correctional staff members have been said to have a calming effect on male offenders, causing them to be less “macho” than with male correctional staff members (Kissel and Katsampes, 1980; Zimmer, 1987; Jurik, 1988; Alpert and Crouch, 1991).

The alternative job model suggests that sensitivity and nurturing may be a detriment in correctional employment (Pogrebin and Poole, 1997). Zimmer (1986, 1987) further noted how male supervisors generally believed that women were unable to fulfill the requirements of correctional work. This type of attitude would likely cause job-related discrimination (as with minority staff) where training and assignment opportunities will be different between male and female correctional workers (Jurik,

1985a; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). In addition, female correctional staff members may be more socially isolated than their male counterparts, thus indirectly impacting social distance by failure to change preexisting attitudes toward offenders, while also failing to indoctrinate female correctional staff members into the “folkways” of correctional management. Given the prior socialization differences by gender in our culture, and the potential for differing social indoctrination within the correctional setting, gender has been considered to have an important influence on the formation of correctional staff members’ attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, female staff members are often vulnerable to the negative organizational roles, such as sexual discrimination in the competition for promotions and token assignments that have been inherent in the correctional paramilitary structure (Jurik, 1988; VanVoorhis et al., 1991).

Educational attainment is another individual characteristic that is expected to have an impact on staff attitudes and levels of punitiveness. Academics and correctional professionals have long touted the need for college-educated correctional staff members to reduce intolerance and to improve social interaction between correctional staff members and offenders (Poole and Regoli, 1980a; Jurik, 1985b; Jurik et al., 1987). Jurik et al. (1987) argue that increased educational attainment has a positive influence on job satisfaction. They further add:

Drawing from this *reform perspective*, we could expect more highly educated officers to get along better with their superiors and coworkers; to be more interested in new human service components of their position; to

have more treatment-oriented and less punitive attitudes toward inmates; to select their job for intrinsic reasons rather than for the extrinsic rewards it offers; and finally, to be more satisfied, happy employees (Jurik et al., 1987: 108, emphasis in original).

The assumption here is that college-educated correctional staff members will be more professional and have better training enabling them to handle the diversity issues found in complex correctional settings, as well as having lower social distance issues and role conflict within some rehabilitation/reform-based correctional organizations. However, some have theorized that highly educated workers may be incompatible with the paramilitary, hierarchical structures that are inherent in correctional facilities (Jurik et al. 1987), that in turn will likely influence increased social distance between correctional management and offenders.

Along with educational attainment impacting prison professionalism, other authors argue that the family orientation and organization have an impact on correctional staff members' attitudes and behaviors (Jurik and Halemba, 1984; Jurik et al., 1987).

This perspective suggests that growing up in a family where one or both parents are employed in professional occupations causes children to approach complex tasks (as in correctional settings) in a more systematic manner and will allow for the adoption of the professional ideal more readily than those raised in homes where parents are employed in blue-collar or unskilled occupations.

The relationship between the age of correctional staff members and punitive attitudes has also been discussed in the literature. Some theorists suggest that older correctional staff members may be less sympathetic toward offenders due to the decreasing average age of offender populations in the United States and the conflict between the generations (Jurik, 1985b). Others argue there is a positive relationship between age and fewer punitive behaviors and attitudes (Toch and Klofas, 1982), especially for correctional officers who enter corrections employment at a later point in life (Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989). Overall, the research evidence suggests older correctional staff members will be less punitive toward the offenders they supervise. However, the theoretical literature fails to offer any reasons as to why this age difference might occur.

Another imported individual characteristic not often discussed in the correctional literature is prior employment/occupation and its impact on social distance. Prior employment in security occupations has been suggested as an indicator of custodial orientations toward offenders or greater social distance (Jurik, 1985b). Prior involvement in law enforcement, the military, or other security/control occupations has been hypothesized to increase social distance between correctional staff members and offenders. The uniforms and the paramilitary structure of correctional institutions are similar to the military and are likely to increase social distancing behaviors (Jacobs and Kraft, 1978). In contrast, prior employment in “human service” occupations will likely

decrease social distance and punitive attitudes of the correctional staff toward offenders and is likely to result in a more rehabilitative orientation (Johnson and Price, 1981).

The influence of geographical origins of correctional staff members on punitive attitudes and social distancing behaviors has also been noted in the literature. Klofas (1986) notes that, "Urban workers differ from rural workers on a host of other variables including ethnicity, lifestyle and even length of commute to work" (Klofas, 1986: 116). Further, research has shown that the traditional white, male, rural, correctional staff member is more distant and less concerned with offender rights and rehabilitation ideals (Jacobs and Kraft, 1978; Jurik, 1985b). This theory suggests that as the offender population becomes more urban, those staff members from similar backgrounds (e.g., living in urban settings) will be less socially distant than correctional staff members from the more traditional rural setting. However, Klofas (1986:114) does note that:

Urban industrial workers may find little satisfaction in work and prefer routinized tasks which afford minimal discretion. Rural workers have been the most responsive to efforts to enrich jobs by increasing discretionary decision making.

Based on the autocratic nature of most correctional facilities, this alternative position would suggest rural correctional workers may find difficulties not only with the urban prisoner populations, but also with the rigid paramilitary organization common in most correctional settings.

In sum, the importation/differential experiences model suggests that different life experiences and personal orientations influence correctional staff members to adopt different levels of social distance, and social distance is likely to influence punitive attitudes and the differential imposition of offender discipline. The primary premise of the importation/differential experience model directs our attention toward “the impact of individual and demographic factors on one’s experiences with and perceptions of the work environment” (VanVoorhis et al., 1991: 473). Therefore, this model suggests that past individual experiences are the best predictors of attitudes and decision making in the correctional setting.

#### **Work Role/Prisonization Model**

The work role/prisonization model hypothesizes that organizational differences overwhelm some (if not most) individual differences in explaining correctional officer attitudes, social distancing behavior, and disciplinary decision making. These organizational characteristics include facility security levels, staff perception of dangerousness, working conditions (such as frequency of offender-staff contact, shift assignment, seniority/rank of fellow staff members), role conflict, job stress, employee/supervisor support relationships, and other factors within the local facility subculture (Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). In this model, the focus is not on individual differences affecting attitudes, social distance, and disciplinary decision making, but instead the local correctional social structure and how it shapes and directs employee attitudes and actions. The prisonization model suggests that:

officer attitudes are more likely to be influenced by role demands of correctional work, role conflict, the occupation's isolation from mainstream society, and paramilitary and disciplinary reinforcement of in-group solidarity (VanVoorhis et al., 1991: 476).

Stress, either in the workplace, offender population, or general life is hypothesized to influence employee attitudes and behaviors with stress being associated with greater custody orientation likely leading to greater social distance behaviors (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Poole and Regoli, 1980b; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989).

The prisonization model hypothesizes that the security level of the facility will influence correctional staff member attitudes. Higher security levels (e.g., maximum security) are expected to increase custodial orientation, punitiveness, and offender alienation (Smith and Hepburn, 1979; Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Crouch and Alpert, 1982; Jurik, 1985b; Cullen et al., 1989; VanVoorhis et al. 1991). Correctional classification schemes place more serious, violent, and troublesome offenders in higher (maximum) security, so it would seem logical for correctional staff members to feel more social distance or have a greater custodial focus based on their perception of the dangerousness of these more "antisocial" offenders. This suggests that as the security level drops from maximum to minimum, the relationship between social distance and punitiveness should also decrease (Poole and Regoli, 1981; Jurik, 1985b; VanVoorhis et al., 1991).



One problem with this perspective is that it views custody levels within correctional institutions to be homogeneous within the facility's overall security level, whereas some state correctional systems contain multiple security levels within the same facility. With the exception of minimum security facilities, correctional institutions often contain a variety of living and working environments (e.g., segregation units, cellhouses, dormitories, infirmaries, work assignments, etc.) each with its own custody level, or level of correctional management within the facility's overall security classification. For example, segregation units are typically classified high custody, whereas other housing units will be considered in-custody or "close custody" within a maximum security facility. Correctional staff member attitudes and perception of dangerousness of offenders housed in a segregation unit will likely differ from other correctional staff members typically working in a dormitory or other living shelter in the same facility. Therefore, attitudes and social distance between correctional staff members and offenders would likely vary depending on the type of offenders housed in these different types of units and/or locations. Thus far, the prisonization theory has not taken multiple custody levels within correctional facilities into account.

A second organizational factor, frequency of offender contact, has been noted in the literature as being responsible for job burnout and punitive behavior toward offenders. Jurik (1985b) hypothesizes that as contact with offenders increases, so will punitive attitudes, especially among younger correctional staff members supervising younger offender populations. However, mere frequency of contact with offenders is not

sufficient to explain burnout and punitive behaviors among correctional staff members.

Gerstein et al. (1987) suggest a combination of low contact with co-workers, lack of role clarity, and high contact with offenders as leading to job burnout. Whitehead and Lindquist (1986: 25) noted the key was the type of contact in that:

burnout can result from boredom, an excess of job demands, and organizational factors (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, and lack of participation in decision making).

These authors posit that high contact with offenders causes strain on the employee as an external factor, as well as a work role demand. They also note the importance of the quality of the interaction between correctional staff members and offenders as influencing employment strain and burn out. For example, increased contact of a more satisfactory nature may not cause increased punitive attitudes, increased social distance, or job stress. In addition, the quality of the interaction between the staff member, the correctional environment, and the offender population, will affect the level of social distance. A rigid and authoritarian organizational system is expected to result in new correctional staff members being socialized to custodial and punitive job orientations, whereas in less structured, more open organizational environments negative orientations will be less likely to develop.

Another organizational factor that is likely to have an impact on the social distance between correctional staff members and offenders is the shift worked by the staff member. Cullen et al. (1989), Lombardo (1989), and VanVoorhis et al. (1991)

argue that staff members working on different shifts will hold different orientations toward offenders based on the duration and type of contact. They suggest that those working on the night shift will have more custodial orientations due to their reduced contact or interaction with offenders. This expectation is based on the contact hypothesis which suggests more contact will reduce social distance (Allport, 1954; Powers and Ellison, 1995). However, authors outside the United States contend that offender contact has a direct relationship with social distance in that increased contact increases social distance (Crull and Bruton, 1985). In fact, critics have noted the contact hypothesis tends to ignore the effects of social class, social context, and intergroup attitudes in the effect of interaction on social distance (Sigelman and Welch, 1993; Smith 1994). For example, since minorities are forced into subordinate interactions by the nature of corrections, social distance will likely increase rather than decrease with increased social contact between correctional staff members and offenders. Thus, the adversarial and confrontational nature of correctional management may foster rather than impede social distance with regard to race, as with other individual offender differences.

In addition to interaction and contact with offenders, seniority of the correctional staff member has been considered an important factor in explaining punitive attitudes, social distance, and disciplinary decision making. Jurik (1985b) notes that older correctional staff members may be less able to empathize with younger offenders. In terms of the work structure, negative attitudes toward the work environment would likely increase employment stress. This increased stress would cause more social distancing

behavior and the potential for more punitive attitudes. However, Poole and Regoli (1980a) examine this issue somewhat differently. They hypothesize that older, more experienced staff members feel as though they have been “sold out” due to the changing power structures based on “shifting correctional philosophies” from rehabilitative to punitive methods of correctional management, along with the reduction of correctional authority due to the increase in offender rights through federal court rulings curtailing or limiting correctional authority and actions.

An alternative theory suggests that, through a biased selection and training process, less punitive staff members would be more likely to leave correctional employment due to supervisory and peer influences, while more punitive correctional staff members would be more likely to be retained causing a negative relationship between years of experience and punitive attitudes toward offenders (Jurik, 1985b). An opposing theory of correctional seniority suggests that (with the introduction of unionized activities in state and local corrections) seniority allows more experienced staff members to bid on preferred jobs, thus reducing employment strain and negative attitudes, as well as punitive orientations directed toward offenders (Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989).

The final set of organization-related factors suggested in the work-role prisonization literature concerns the impact of dangerousness of the work setting, role conflict and ambiguity, the lack of participation in decision making, and the related peer/supervisory support structure. The work-role model suggests that the violent and

dangerous work environment (perception of dangerousness) would increase employment role stress, which in turn would likely increase social distancing behavior between offenders and correctional staff members (Cullen et al., 1989). Further, it would be likely that increased exposure to these types of environmental influences would cause an increased custodial orientation where attitudes toward offenders become more rigid and social distance increases (Poole and Regoli, 1980a).

The correctional paradox is correctional staff members are required to remain socially distant, yet are still expected to guide offenders toward more acceptable forms of behavior (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980). Treatment staff members in correctional facilities tend to have greater role conflicts than their custodial counterparts since their tasks often require them to work closely with offenders, while knowing that treatment is secondary to the custodial needs of the correctional facility (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980). However, the literature fails to consider correctional staff members who perform neither custodial nor treatment work roles. Correctional staff members who maintain the physical plant, prepare meals, treat offenders medically, and the like are totally missing in the literature, or are lumped together into the non-custody category.

Poole and Regoli (1981) and Whitehead and Lindquist (1986) note that role conflicts occur not only between correctional staff members and offenders, but also between correctional staff and management employees. A correctional staff member may have role conflict based on expected duties and facility/agency goals. These conflicts between individual attitudes and agency goals precipitate the development of a

custodial orientation and increased social distance between correctional staff members and offenders (Cullen et al., 1989). Further, role conflict decreases job satisfaction which has been associated with increased role stress and punitive actions by correctional staff members (Poole and Regoli, 1980a; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1986).

Social interaction and support between correctional staff members and peers, and management and subordinate correctional staff members, have also been noted in the literature as impacting social distance and custodial orientation. For example, autocratic management may increase social distance between line staff and management, while decreasing social distance between line staff members and offenders due to what Sykes (1956, 1958) called “corruption of authority,” where line staff members and offenders both become critical of facility management and policies. Organizational theory suggests a relationship between supervisor behavior and subordinate satisfaction and morale (Kanter, 1976). However, the impact on employee morale is not a forgone conclusion. Kanter (1976) notes how subordinate satisfaction would be based on the supervisor’s access to power within the agency and good human relations skills. Abuse of authority and power by a supervisor would likely increase job stress and cynicism which, in turn, would likely increase custodial orientation in the correctional setting (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Poole and Regoli, 1980b; Cullen et al., 1985).

Peer interaction and support have also received limited attention in the literature. The focus has been on differing individual correctional staff member attitudes compared to the attitudes of their fellow correctional staff members (Kauffman, 1981), or between

custody and treatment workers (Teske and Williamson, 1979; Johnson and Price, 1981; Cullen et al., 1989; Jackson and Ammen, 1996). The problem within correctional employment is that self-reliance is expected of correctional staff members who have to handle assigned tasks often without aid from fellow staff members (Poole and Regoli, 1981). Correctional staff members frequently interact as a large group only during pre-shift staff meetings, while working the remainder of their shifts alone or in smaller work groups. Even though tasks are often completed in virtual isolation from the total work group, correctional staff members will perceive their fellow correctional officers as more punitive than themselves (see Kauffman, 1981). This situation makes it difficult for new employees to be socialized to work role attitudes, values, and norms, and may provide some explanation why correctional attitudes form slowly and change over time.

In sum, the importation model of correctional staff member attitudes and behaviors suggests that correctional actors bring a variety of experiences to the correctional setting based on prior employment and life experiences, and these experiences may be the overriding determinants of attitudes and decision making within the correctional work setting. On the other hand, the prisonization model acknowledges the potential influence of the work environment on the individual based on how the facility is organized and administrated (see VanVoorhis et al., 1991). In facilities that have less dynamic (organizational) subcultures or less formal custodial needs (such as work release facilities compared to maximum security prisons), it would be logical to find individual differences being a better predictor of correctional orientation and

attitudes toward offenders (Crouch and Alpert, 1982; Toch and Klofas, 1982; Jurik, 1985b; Cullen et al., 1989). In facilities with strong, dynamic subcultures and support systems, it would be more likely that the organizational subculture will reduce the influence of individual pre-employment factors on decision making and attitudes in the workplace. Further, those staff members with a predisposition toward custodial orientations, (e.g., past military or law enforcement experience) will likely have greater social distance from offenders than those with more rehabilitative employment histories.

There has been a growing trend to combine these two models into a more complete explanation of correctional officer attitudes and behaviors. As Whitehead and Lindquist (1989:70) observe, "it seems reasonable to posit that both individual characteristics and organizational conditions are important sources of officers' attitudes toward inmates." Moreover, Jurik (1985b) and Jurik et al. (1987) note that correctional studies which fail to control for both individual and organizational variables suffer from serious shortcomings. An organization is greater than the sum of its parts, but these parts do not act totally connected with, nor independent of, the organization. This theoretical approach suggests that correctional staff members bring their values and individuality into the correctional setting, while the correctional environment has an independent effect on correctional officer attitudes and behaviors. Correctional staff member behaviors would depend on the main effects of individual and organizational factors as well as the interaction between these factors.



Lastly, Hepburn (1985) argues that type of power base utilized by correctional staff members explains attitude formation and correctional staff behaviors. His model utilizes components of the importation and prisonization models while adding “the type of power adopted is determined by one’s view of those who are being controlled” (Hepburn, 1985: 150). For example, he argues length of service, educational attainment, degree of offender contact, attitudes toward work, role strain, and job satisfaction will influence the correctional staff member’s use of power. Further, he adds that choice of power base is related to custodial orientation, social distance, and punitive attitudes. In addition, the power variable has also been suggested as intervening between “individual choices” and the level of authority given by the correctional institution. In theory, the type of power given to correctional staff members will determine their attitudes and behaviors toward offenders from the available choices established by the facility social structure, and will likely vary from institution to institution.

In this chapter, I have discussed the two primary models that seek to explain the development, reduction, and/or maintenance of social distance by correctional staff members toward offenders and how these attitudes influence the implementation of correctional discipline—the importation and prisonization models—and more recent efforts to combine the two models into a more complete explanation of correctional staff member attitudes and behaviors. Chapter III presents empirical evidence with respect to these theoretical explanations.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON SOCIAL DISTANCE AND CORRECTIONAL ORIENTATION**

The study of prisons has a long history in the criminological literature, but attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of correctional staff members have been examined extensively only in the last few decades. Existing studies of correctional staff members test various versions of the importation and prisonization models reviewed in Chapter II. However, none of these studies offer an exhaustive test of both models. This chapter reviews research that has examined correctional staff member attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors, particularly those studies that focus on correctional staff members' attitudes and behaviors toward offenders.

Jacobs and Kraft's (1978) research examined attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of black and white correctional officers in Illinois, and tested a hypothesis derived from the importation/differential experience paradigm. Their research hypothesis stated that minority correctional officers should be less punitive toward, and exhibit less social distance from, minority offenders since minority correctional staff members often share the same or similar cultural, socioeconomic, and urban backgrounds as the minority offenders they supervise. Their alternative hypothesis, from the prisonization model, suggested that work-role socialization of the correctional staff members offsets the individual background differences in explaining correctional staff member beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors.

Jacobs and Kraft gathered questionnaire survey data at the Correctional Training Academy in Illinois. They obtained completed questionnaires from 231 out of 600

correctional officers (both newly hired and experienced staff members) from two maximum-security facilities in North Central Illinois. The offender populations of these two facilities were approximately seventy-five percent Black, and the facilities employed 19 and 32 percent black correctional officers, respectively.

Jacobs and Kraft's study was designed to determine whether the presence of minority correctional officers influenced social distance in correctional settings where a majority of the offenders were minorities. Their questionnaire included items on offender orientation (or social distance toward offenders), job orientation (measuring attitudes of punitiveness, interaction with offenders, and perception of dangerousness), staff orientation (measuring peer and supervisory support), system orientation (measuring custodial or rehabilitative attitudes), and job commitment.

Based on cross-tabular analysis using chi-square significance tests, their findings indicated black correctional officers did not differ from white officers in their level of empathy and social distance toward minority offenders in the majority of their questions designed to measure offender orientation. Their data on *offender orientation* indicated black correctional officers were significantly more likely than white officers: to strongly disagree that courts have given offenders too many rights making discipline impossible (all officers  $\chi^2 = 6.2$ ,  $p < .005$ ; new officers  $\chi^2 = 6.4$ ,  $p < .001$ ; and young officers  $\chi^2 = 5.3$ ,  $p < .05$ ), were significantly less likely to agree that most all offenders belong in prison (all officers  $\chi^2 = 27.4$ ,  $p < .05$ ), and were significantly less likely to feel that offender respect toward staff has decreased (young officers  $\chi^2 = 56.8$ ,  $p < .05$ ). However, black correctional officers were significantly more likely to strongly disagree that black

correctional officers interacted better with offenders than their white counterparts (all officers  $\chi^2= 12.3$ ,  $p< .01$ ). Regarding *job orientation*, black correctional officers issued significantly more disciplinary reports (all officers three or more reports,  $\chi^2= 42.9$ ,  $p< .01$ ), whereas they found no statistically significant differences between white and black correctional officers in any of the three measurement categories of *staff orientation*.

Regarding *system orientation*, Jacobs and Kraft found that black officers were significantly more likely to feel the purpose of prisons was to punish (all officers,  $\chi^2= 40.6$ ,  $p< .01$ ), while black officers were significantly less likely to select to protect society (all officers and young officers,  $\chi^2= 18.8$  and  $\chi^2= 18.9$ ,  $p< .05$ , respectively). On the other hand, black correctional officers were significantly more likely to strongly disagree that the primary purpose of a correctional institution should be to punish offenders (all officers,  $\chi^2= 20.6$ ,  $p< .05$ ) and strongly disagree that rehabilitation programs were a waste of money and effort (all officers,  $\chi^2= 32.8$ ,  $p< .005$ ). Regarding the question for reasons there are so many minorities in prison, black officers were significantly more like to feel lack of opportunity was the key factor (all officers,  $\chi^2= 63.0$ ; new officers,  $\chi^2= 60.5$ ; and young officers  $\chi^2= 63.6$ ,  $p< .05$ ).

The authors also asked a series of questions designed to tap *job commitment* of correctional staff members. They found that black officers were significantly more likely to be very embarrassed to tell others of their occupation (all officers,  $\chi^2= 6.3$ ,  $p< .05$ ) compared to their white counterparts. Other results indicated no significant differences in black and white officers' attitudes and behaviors by age and job experience, which may have been due to dichotomizing age and job experience into such broad categories.

Overall, the results of Jacobs and Kraft's study failed to support their hypothesis of less social distance and punitive attitudes of black correctional officers toward minority offenders within correctional institutions where minorities make up the majority of the offender populations. Hence, they concluded that increasing minority correctional staff in such prisons will not reduce social distance and tension. In addition, they suggested that occupational socialization experienced early in the correctional career might have negated the influence of individual factors such as race or urban origins of staff, consistent with the prisonization model, while contrary to the importation/differential experience model.

Next, Hepburn and Albonetti (1980) examined role conflict within the prisonization model by comparing correctional treatment staff members to their custodial counterparts. Their research hypothesis stated that role conflict among correctional staff members would be greater in less secure treatment facilities than in higher security prisons (minimum versus maximum security). They also posed several alternative hypotheses. First, they argued that custodial staff members would have a greater degree of role conflict than their treatment counterparts due to the duality of custodial roles and treatment philosophies underpinning rehabilitation of offenders (this assumes rehabilitation was still the primary correctional goal). Secondly, they argued that regardless of facility security levels, treatment staff will experience greater role conflict due to the custodial nature of prisons compared to treatment goals. Last, they argued that regardless of their correctional position, those experiencing higher role conflict will likely display more punitive attitudes toward offenders.

The research method employed by Hepburn and Albonetti involved self-administered questionnaires distributed to all treatment and custodial staff members in six adult male correctional facilities in a Midwestern state (one maximum, two medium, and three minimum security). They received 518 usable questionnaires out of a possible 751, but they only utilized 253 “front-line” correctional officers and 83 treatment personnel in their analysis. For analysis purposes, they combined all similar security facilities together since no significant differences were found between facilities within the same security classifications (the two medium and three minimum security facilities). Their dependent variables consisted of measures of role conflict, punitiveness, and job satisfaction.

Hepburn and Albonetti first analyzed the data by comparing mean levels of role conflict by security level, staff position, and security level and staff position. Their findings revealed that the mean level of role conflict was significantly higher for minimum security than for medium or maximum security ( $p = .001$ ). Further, the mean level of role conflict was significantly higher for treatment staff compared to custody staff ( $p = .045$ ). When controlling for security level and staff position based on the hypotheses that role conflict would be greater at minimum security and greater for treatment staff compared to custody staff, Hepburn and Albonetti found the mean role conflict was higher at minimum security facilities compared with maximum security facilities for both treatment and custody staff ( $p = .027$  and  $p = .001$ , respectively). They also found that mean role conflict was higher for custody staff in minimum versus medium

security facilities ( $p = .001$ ). All other comparisons were not statistically significant at the  $p < .05$  level.

These findings provided partial support for both their primary and alternative hypotheses. Staff members in minimum security facilities had a significantly higher level of role conflict than those employed in medium or maximum security institutions, but staff members in medium security facilities did not have significantly higher role conflict than those working in maximum security facilities. Thus, contrary to the researchers' expectations, role conflict did not systematically increase with decreasing security levels. Secondly, support was found for increased role conflict among treatment staff members since the mean level of role conflict was significantly higher among treatment staff than among custodial staff members in most cases.

Hepburn and Albonetti also analyzed the direct effects of line staff position and security level on role conflict; security level, line staff position and role conflict on job satisfaction; and job satisfaction, security level, staff position, and role conflict on punitiveness. They predicted a strong relationship between the independent variables and job satisfaction, punitiveness, and role conflict.

Consistent with expectations, their findings indicate that security level had a statistically significant, negative effect on level of role conflict ( $\beta = -.1477$ ) at the  $p < .05$  level, however, position failed to have a statistically significant impact. The model explained only 3 percent of the variation in role conflict. Turning to job satisfaction, role conflict had a statistically significant, negative impact ( $\beta = -.3214$ ,  $p < .05$ ) as expected, while position and security level were nonsignificant. The model explained 12 percent

of the variation in job satisfaction. Finally, role conflict significantly increased punitiveness ( $\beta = .2639$ ,  $p < .05$ ), while treatment staff were significantly less punitive towards offenders than custody staff ( $\beta = -.2759$ ,  $p < .05$ ), both consistent with research hypotheses. Security level and job satisfaction failed to have statistically significant impacts on punitiveness. The model explained 20 percent of the variation in punitiveness.

The findings in Hepburn and Albonetti's study provide some support for the prisonization model, in that security level of the facility influenced mean levels of role conflict. Further, they also found that role conflict was positively associated with punitive attitudes and negatively associated with job satisfaction suggesting the importance of the work environment on staff attitudes. This study did not, however, control for other organizational factors. Role conflict may have been influenced by other factors such as management styles, composition of the offender population, levels of facility violence, or size of the facility's work group, especially since only treatment and lower-level correctional staff members were included in their analysis. Including these other variables could have strengthened support for the prisonization model and increased explained variance.

Poole and Regoli (1980b) also examined correctional staff member attitudes using a combination of the prisonization and differential experience models. Their path model examined the effects of role stress, correctional experience, educational attainment, and custodial orientation, on staff member punitive attitudes. They expected that as role stress increased, custodial orientation would also increase causing increased



surveillance leading to increased punitive actions toward offenders by correctional staff members. They further argued that role stress and custodial orientation would be influenced by educational attainment and correctional experience, with increased educational attainment lowering punitive attitudes and increased correctional experience increasing punitive attitudes toward offenders.

Poole and Regoli obtained 144 self-administered questionnaires from correctional officers in a Midwestern state (the sampling represented 90% of the non-ranking correctional officers in the facility). Educational attainment was measured by the number of years beyond high school, and correctional experience was measured by the number of months as a correctional officer. Role stress and custodial orientation were measured by six- and four-item Likert scales, respectively, with higher scores indicating greater role stress or custodial orientation. Cronbach's alpha for these two measures was .84 and .55, respectively.

Their findings for custodial orientation as the dependent variable indicated that as role stress increased, custodial orientation increased ( $\beta = .25$ ). Further, as correctional experience increased, so did custodial orientation ( $\beta = .11$ ), but as educational attainment increased, custodial orientation decreased ( $\beta = -.12$ ). When using punitiveness as the dependent variable the direct effects showed correctional experience decreased punitive attitudes ( $\beta = -.32$ ), while it increased custodial orientation ( $\beta = .38$ ). All of these results were statistically significant at the  $p < .05$  level.

This study provided some support for both theoretical models. Educational attainment was found to decrease custodial orientation, consistent with the importation

model, while role stress increased custodial orientation, consistent with the prisonization model. Correctional experience, on the other hand, increased custodial orientation, but decreased punitiveness. Noted limitations of this study were the small number of independent variables and the limited number of items used to measure role stress (six-item scale) and custodial orientation (four-item scale), resulting in low reliability for the latter measure (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .55$ ).

Crouch and Alpert (1982) also examined attitudinal change among correctional staff members from the differential experience/importation and prisonization models. Their research hypotheses stated that punitive attitudes at the onset of correctional employment could be best explained by individual influences, consistent with the differential experience/importation model, whereas the changes in attitudes after six months of work experience could be better explained by factors specified by the prisonization model.

Crouch and Alpert collected their data from three consecutive recruit training (new employees) classes in the Texas Department of Corrections in the summer of 1979. The three cohort groups included 106 men and 18 women who were asked to complete questionnaires and later were interviewed by the research team. The questionnaire included demographic questions, Thurstone's Attitudes Toward Punishment of Criminals, and a Critical Incident Scale. Between six and eight months later, the three cohort groups (reduced to 68 men and 16 women) were administered the same social-psychological inventories, as well as follow-up interviews.

Data analysis was completed by subtracting initial scores during the recruit school from the scores during the follow-up questionnaires six-to-eight months later. Crouch and Alpert regressed the scores from the second questionnaire on the scores from the first questionnaire. After calculating the initial regression, the slope coefficient was multiplied by the average score from the initial questionnaire for each group, and lastly, an analysis of variance was completed on the adjusted scores.

The analysis of variance results indicated significant mean differences in punitive attitudes by age group ( $F= 3.177$ ,  $p= .047$ ), by gender ( $F= 6.817$ ,  $p= .01$ ), and by facility/unit where employed ( $F= 4.703$ ,  $p= .011$ ). They also found significant mean differences in aggressive attitudes by gender ( $F= 8.190$ ,  $p= .005$ ) and by facility/unit employed ( $F= 4.321$ ,  $p= .016$ ). The analysis of covariance findings indicated significant differences in punitive attitudes between initial interview and subsequent interview by age (Time 1  $F= 9.29$ ,  $p= .003$ ; Time 2  $F= 4.604$ ,  $p= .013$ ), by gender (Time 1  $F= 9.626$ ,  $p= .003$ ; Time 2  $F= 11.376$ ,  $p= .001$ ), and by facility/unit employed (Time 1  $F= 9.586$ ,  $p= .003$ ; Time 2  $F= 5.995$ ,  $p= .004$ ). For aggressive attitudes there were significant mean differences by gender (Time 1  $F= 8.278$ ,  $p= .005$ ; Time 2  $F= 11.877$ ,  $p= .001$ ) and by facility/unit employed (Time 1  $F= 8.216$ ,  $p= .005$ ; Time 2  $F= 6.083$ ,  $p= .003$ ).

They further noted that pair-wise t-tests found significant punitive attitude differences between the youngest and oldest groups ( $p= .042$ ) and between the middle group and the oldest age group ( $p= .004$ ). The group mean differences in the three age groups indicated a group mean increase from time one to time two for 18-21 year old correctional staff of 3.481, and an increase among the 22-34 year old correctional staff of

6.794, but a decreased group mean of 1.652 in the 35 and over group. However, when controlling age and gender and attitudinal change, Crouch and Alpert found age did not significantly impact attitudinal change, nor did they find any significant change over time. They did note, however, a general change in intolerance toward offenders by male correctional staff members. Also, it should be noted that no significant mean differences in punitive and aggressive attitudes were found by race or educational attainment.

The statistically significant results of the study conducted by Crouch and Alpert suggest that gender of the staff members had some influence on punitive and aggressive attitudes where female correctional staff members became more tolerant and less punitive over time, whereas male correctional staff members became less tolerant and more punitive over time. These results provided some support for both theoretical models. Gender was related to social distance (punitiveness), consistent with the importation/differential experience model in that females had significantly lower mean scores than men at both time 1 and time 2 ( $t = 4.21, p = .001$ ). However, contrary to expectations based on this model, age and educational attainment were not statistically significant (with the exception of the oldest age group containing a large group of female participants). Facility/unit where employed indicated female correctional staff members in female facilities were significantly lower in their aggressive attitudes from time one to time two ( $t = 3.93, p = .001$ ), thus providing some support for the prisonization model.

The major limitations with the methods of this study were the limited use of organizational variables to test the prisonization model, the small number of correctional staff members utilized in the analysis, and the lack of female correctional officers

working in male facilities in the analysis. However, this study did employ facility, gender and prison work experience to measure the prison socialization process. In addition, differential experience was measured by age, gender, race, and educational attainment. This study would have benefitted from the use of more control variables, especially from the prisonization perspective. Organizational factors such as security classification, shift, and supervisor support were not included in this study. There was also a possibility that multicollinearity was a factor influencing results (as noted by the authors).

Jurik and Halembe (1984) completed an exploratory study which compared male and female correctional officers' attitudes toward working conditions, co-workers, supervisors, offenders, and general job satisfaction. While this study included components of differential experience and prisonization models, the primary focus was the relevance of job explanations for work-related attitudes. Their study, therefore, investigated the "gender" model versus the "job" model. The job model hypothesis argues that workplace attitudes are explained primarily by experience in the correctional setting rather than by prior life experiences and socialization. The gender model, however, concentrates on socio-demographic influences and argues that women import a unique job orientation into the correctional environment.

Jurik and Halembe obtained 179 self-administered questionnaires from approximately 230 line-level correctional officers in a western state. The facility contained four autonomous units of which two were male medium-security units, one was a male minimum-security unit, and one was a female unit containing various security

levels. The correctional officer demographics indicated approximately 20 percent were women, 55 percent reported junior college level education or above, and 88.8 percent lived in an urban setting. Comparing female staff members to males, the female officers were more likely to be from an urban setting, had at least one parent with a professional occupation, and held bachelor's or higher degrees.

In their multivariate analysis, Jurik and Halemba regressed job satisfaction on various demographic characteristics, differential experience variables, attitudes, and perceived working conditions on job satisfaction ( $R^2 = .352$ ;  $p < .0001$ ). The results show that years of education and attitudes toward coworkers decreased job satisfaction ( $\beta = -.197$  and  $\beta = -.167$  respectively;  $p < .05$ ), while attitudes toward offenders, positive working conditions, and number of months employed in the department significantly increased job satisfaction ( $\beta = .185$ ,  $\beta = .192$ , and  $\beta = .134$  respectively;  $p < .01$ ). Perceived promotional opportunities also increased job satisfaction ( $\beta = .139$ ;  $p < .10$ ). Other variables, such as age, race, gender, prior law enforcement work experience, and attitudes toward supervisors were not significant.

There are several shortcomings in Jurik and Halemba's research including the relatively small sample, the number of female to male respondents (40 to 139), and the number of women correctional officers working in male units vis-a-vis female units (32 to 8). Overall, this study provided more support for the prisonization model since individual differential experience variables were often not significant, or only marginally significant (i.e.,  $p < .10$ ).

In another study, Jurik (1985b) examined the competing prisonization and differential experience/importation models by incorporating indicators of individual and organizational characteristics in her regression analysis of correctional staff members' attitudes toward offenders. She hypothesized that minority status, gender, educational attainment, and lower correctional security levels would reduce punitive attitudes, whereas younger age, frequency in offender contact, years of service, and role demands of the correctional facility would increase social distancing behaviors and punitive attitudes.

The data used in the Jurik study were obtained from correctional employees at an approximately two-year-old medium security facility in a western state consisting of four self-contained autonomous units. The facility employed approximately 230 correctional officers, 179 of whom completed self-administered surveys and were included in the analysis. The sample included 20 percent women, 21 percent minorities, and 76 percent with more than 13 years of education. Response rates varied across shifts—85 percent from the day and swing shifts, 50 percent from the night shift.

The study examined attitudes toward offenders by individual characteristics drawn from the differential experience model—staff member age, educational attainment, gender, minority group status—and organizational factors from the prisonization model—unit security level, staff member seniority, and frequency of contact with offenders. The analysis consisted of bivariate correlations and a multiple regression analysis of correctional staff members' attitudes toward offenders on the independent variables.

The results of the standardized regression coefficients from her multiple regression analysis show that minority status ( $\beta = .158$ ), age ( $\beta = .161$ ), interest in human service work ( $\beta = .170$ ), interest in security work ( $\beta = .166$ ), and working in a minimum security unit ( $\beta = .128$ ) had statistically significant, positive impacts on officers' attitudes toward offenders at the  $p < .05$  level, while number of months employed ( $\beta = -.164$ ) had a statistically significant, negative impact at the  $p < .05$  level. The model explained 13 percent of the variation ( $p < .008$ ) in officers' attitudes toward offenders.

The hypotheses in this study received some support, but there were several unexpected results. Once all independent variables were controlled, minority status, interest in human service and security work, assignment to a minimum security housing unit, and years of service were significant and in the predicted direction. The effect of age, on the other hand, was positive and significant indicating more positive attitudes toward offenders among older correctional officers, contrary to the researcher's expectations. Further, gender, educational attainment and frequency of contact with offenders were expected to have an influence on attitudes toward offenders, but failed to be statistically significant. The results suggested that organizational and individual factors were important in explaining variation in correctional officers' attitudes toward offenders.

Several limitations were evident in Jurik's study. Age and years of employment in corrections should have been controlled by subtracting seniority from age (see Cullen et al., 1989) to obtain the age when the individual began employment in corrections. Variables controlling for role conflict, such as peer and supervisory support, could also



have been added to the model, as well as perception of dangerousness. Also, custodial orientation as defining social distance toward offenders was not adequately measured in this study, since previous law enforcement experience was the only variable that attempted to tap this concept. Since law enforcement and corrections employ various types of individuals inclined toward either social closeness or distance, this concept alone would not completely capture custodial orientation.

Klofas (1986) examined attitudes toward human service roles while controlling for race and age of front-line correctional officers. His hypotheses suggested that urban workers would have less social distance from the primarily urban offender population, and that older correctional workers would have greater social distance from offenders than their younger counterparts. In addition, he argued that older, white, rural correctional staff members would be more conservative than younger, minority, urban correctional staff members regarding social distance and punitive attitudes toward offenders.

Klofas analyzed 832 of 1,739 self-administered questionnaires from four correctional facilities in the state of New York. The prisons' geographical locations ranged from primarily rural, to semi-rural, to highly urban, while correctional staff members for three of the four prisons were almost all white, with the exception of Ossining prison which consisted of 84.4 percent minority staff members. Subscales were constructed to measure human service roles, social distance, custodial orientation, and counseling roles. Cronbach's alphas for these scales were .72 and above.

The results showed no significant differences in interest in human service roles by race for all four facilities taken together, nor for Ossining prison alone. However, their chi-square test does show a statistically significant difference in human service role interest by age ( $p < .001$ ). Younger correctional workers under 25 were the least likely to express a high level of interest in human service roles (10.1%), while those over 49 were the most likely to report a high level of interest in service roles (31.7%). Conversely, younger correctional staff members under 25 were most likely to express a low level of interest in human service roles (46.7%), while those in the two highest age categories, 40–49 and over 49, were the least likely to report a low level of interest in human service roles (15.0% and 17.3%, respectively). Zero-order correlations between human service role interest subscales with age indicated statistically significant, positive relationships between support for low social distance (.18,  $p < .001$ ), interest in counseling roles (.19,  $p < .001$ ), and non-punitive orientation (.14,  $p < .001$ ).

This study failed to support the hypothesis that rural, older, white correctional staff members would be more socially distant than urban minority staff members, as suggested by the differential experience model. However, the urban/rural dimension was poorly constructed. Klofas had assumed the physical location in either rural, semi-rural, or urban location was adequate to measure geographical influence. While it may have been likely that the majority of staff members were not commuting great distances each day to work, this study did not control for geographical origins where most of the individual values important in the differential experience model would have been formed. In addition, the study failed to use multivariate controls. Also, measures of the

organizational environment, such as peer/supervisory support, perception of dangerousness, and job stress were almost totally lacking in this study.

Whitehead and Lindquist (1986) examined several components of the prisonization model in their study of job burnout among correctional staff members. They argued that frequency of offender contact, lack of participation in decision making, age, lack of employer support, role conflict, employment stress, and lack of job satisfaction should increase levels of job burnout. Specifically, they suggested that, since offenders are less desirable, increased contact would raise job burnout levels. Further, they argued that older employees would be more stable and mature. As an alternative hypothesis they suggested that some employees actually prefer routinization rather than active participation in employment decision making.

Whitehead and Lindquist collected data from a random sample of one-third of all front-line correctional officers in Alabama and obtained 258 usable questionnaires. Standardized coefficients from their multiple regression analyses showed that age was negatively related to lack of support ( $\beta = -.19$ ), stress ( $\beta = -.21$ ), and depersonalization ( $\beta = -.26$ ). Weekly hours of offender contact was found to be negatively related to lack of participation in decision making ( $\beta = -.15$ ) and lack of personal accomplishment ( $\beta = -.16$ ). Lack of participation in decision making was found to be positively related to lack of support ( $\beta = .19$ ), role conflict ( $\beta = .35$ ), and lack of job satisfaction ( $\beta = .31$ ). Lack of support was found to be positively related to role conflict ( $\beta = .25$ ), emotional exhaustion ( $\beta = .23$ ), and depersonalization ( $\beta = .21$ ). Role conflict was found to be positively related to stress ( $\beta = .22$ ), lack of job satisfaction ( $\beta = .14$ ), emotional exhaustion ( $\beta = .19$ ), and

depersonalization ( $\beta = .24$ ). Stress was found to be positively related to emotional exhaustion ( $\beta = .31$ ) and depersonalization ( $\beta = .13$ ). Lack of job satisfaction was found to be positively related to emotional exhaustion ( $\beta = .23$ ) and lack of personal accomplishment ( $\beta = .17$ ). All noted relationships were statistically significant at the  $p < .05$  level. Explained variance in these models ranged from a high of 41 percent for emotional exhaustion to a low of 7 percent for the lack of support and lack of personal accomplishment variables.

A summary of the findings suggests that correctional staff members in Alabama did not “burn out” through contact with offenders, since increased contact was associated with higher levels of personal accomplishment. Further, offender contact did not have a significant influence on role conflict, stress, or lack of job satisfaction. Additionally, lack of participation in decision making was significant in all burnout scales, which Whitehead and Lindquist attributed to being caught in the middle between upper management and offenders.

Overall, this study provided support for the prisonization model. The prisonization measures in the analysis had the strongest impacts on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. In addition, the alternative hypothesis of routinization rather than participation did not find support in their analyses.

Gerstein, Topp, and Correll (1987) also compared work environment and individual factors such as age and length of employment on employment burnout among correctional staff members. Their study differed from Whitehead and Lindquist’s in that they argued that individual differences, support within the work environment, and the

community as a whole were causal factors in explaining burnout in the correctional workforce. More specifically, they argued that burnout would increase as internal and external demands and/or expectations increased for correctional staff members. Their data were collected from a voluntary sample of vocational counselors, teachers, correctional officers, prison counselors, and other types of prison employees in a slightly overcrowded minimum security facility and a maximum security prison.

The dependent variables in their multiple regression analyses included total exhaustion scores and number of bad day scores. Standardized coefficients show that contact with offenders ( $\beta = -.51$ ) and view of the average offender ( $\beta = -.29$ ) had statistically significant effects at the  $p < .05$  level on total exhaustion scores, while view of the average offender ( $\beta = -.36$ ) and role ambiguity ( $\beta = .25$ ) had statistically significant negative and positive effects, respectively, on total bad day scores. These models explained 59 and 36 percent of the variation in total exhaustion and total bad day scores, respectively.

In a second set of models, the dependent variables were regressed on personal variables such as age, time in corrections, number of children, and employment job classification. The researchers found that the only statistically significant effect for both models was employment job classification ( $\beta = .31$  and  $.34$ , respectively;  $p < .05$ ). The models explained 23 percent of the variation in total exhaustion scores and 19 percent of the variation in total bad day scores.

The third set of regression models reported in the study involved regressing total exhaustion and total bad day scores on both personal and environmental variables.

The total exhaustion score model showed that view of the average offender and current salary had statistically significant negative effects ( $\beta = -.28$  and  $\beta = -.21$ , respectively), while age ( $\beta = .92$ ) and use of previous education ( $\beta = .26$ ) had statistically significant, positive relationships, all at the  $p < .05$  level. The model explained 63 percent of the variation in total exhaustion scores. Turning to the total bad day score model, findings revealed that role ambiguity ( $\beta = .25$ ) had a statistically significant effect, while view of the average offender ( $\beta = -.35$ ) had a statistically significant negative effect, both at the  $p > .05$  level. The model explained 33 percent of the variation in total bad day scores.

The findings of the Gerstein et al. study suggest that the work-related environmental factors of the prisonization model contributed more to the explanation of burnout in correctional employees than did personal characteristics. Staff members feeling more stressed about their working environment tended to have higher social distance scores and felt offenders were “unfriendly, unmotivated, and manipulative” (Gerstein et al. 1987:360). However, the authors did note that years on the job did not influence burnout levels among correctional employees.

While this study was unique in examining various classifications of prison employees, the sample size was relatively small ( $n=91$ ). Further, the internal consistency of some measures was relatively low, with Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients around .50. Also, many of the questions in the survey limited the respondents to two choices, thus reducing the potential variability in the measures.

In another study, Whitehead and Lindquist (1989) continued the testing of the differential experience and prisonization models. In their research, they selected specific

individual characteristics and organizational factors which previous studies had found to significantly influence social distance and punitive attitudes of correctional staff members toward offenders. In this study, Whitehead and Lindquist replicated Klofas and Toch's (1982) inventory on correctional staff members professional orientation since they believed its measurement was "beyond mere custodial orientation" (Whitehead and Lindquist 1989: 74). Whitehead and Lindquist also included race, since black correctional officers may hold more favorable attitudes than white correctional officers, education, because of the reported negative effect on custodial attitudes, and age at entry, because of recent findings that older workers at entry into corrections were more positive toward offenders. The organizational factors in the analysis included institutional security classification, role conflict, job stress, and active participation in decision making. Selection of these variables for their model was based on the literature reviewed and the statistically significant findings in previous studies utilizing these variables.

The data in the Whitehead and Lindquist study were from a random sample of one third ( $n=363$ ) of the correctional officers in the Alabama Department of Corrections in May 1984. They regressed social distance and punitive attitude measures on both individual characteristics and work environment variables, plus separate professional orientation scales for black and white correctional officers.

They first examined the effects of both the individual and work-related variables on professional orientation scales for the entire sample of correctional officers. The findings show that black correctional officers ( $\text{black} = 0; \beta = -.24; p < .05$ ) preferred greater social distance, and as age at entry into correctional employment increased, social

distance decreased ( $\beta = -.15$ ;  $p < .05$ ). In the punitive orientation model, white correctional officers expressed a more punitive orientation ( $\beta = .19$ ;  $p < .05$ ), and as role conflict increased, so did punitive orientation ( $\beta = .14$ ;  $p < .10$ ). None of the independent variables had statistically significant effects on counseling roles and concern with corruption of authority scales. It should also be noted that the model only explained 10 percent of the variation in the social distance scale ( $p < .05$ ) and four percent of the variation in the punitive orientation scale ( $p < .10$ ).

Whitehead and Lindquist also conducted separate regressions based on correctional officer race. The results for white correctional officers indicated that younger age at entry into corrections employment increased social distance ( $\beta = -.22$ ;  $p < .05$ ). Age at entry into corrections also increased punitive orientations ( $\beta = -.16$ ;  $p < .10$ ) and concern for corruption of authority ( $\beta = -.15$ ;  $p < .10$ ). Further, working on the day shift decreased punitive orientation ( $\beta = -.19$ ;  $p < .05$ ), as well as higher participation in decision making ( $\beta = -.26$ ;  $p < .05$ ). Working at a minimum security facility increased concern for corruption of authority ( $\beta = .16$ ;  $p < .10$ ) and as job satisfaction increased, concern for corruption of authority increased ( $\beta = .28$ ;  $p < .05$ ).

The results for black correctional officers indicated those working minimum security had significantly lower social distance scores ( $\beta = -.27$ ;  $p < .05$ ), while it increased counseling role scores ( $\beta = .23$ ;  $p < .10$ ). Finally, working on the day shift significantly decreased punitive orientation ( $\beta = -.28$ ;  $p < .10$ ). Explained variance in these models ranged from zero to six percent.



Overall the results in Whitehead and Lindquist's study provided very little support for the differential experience/importation model and only modest support for the prisonization model. Further, as noted above, very little of the variance was explained in any of the models. Reliability coefficients for the scales ranged from .59 to .85, but no problems of multicollinearity were noted. Whitehead and Lindquist purposefully did not control for gender, prior work history, or other individual factors like living in an urban area or parental class background. Further, they also did not control for level of social support either within the workplace or outside the work environment other than participation in decision making, violence levels in the prison population, and other distancing measures included in other studies. Adding additional individual and organizational variables to the analysis may have increased the explained variance and provided support for the differential experience/importation model.

Cullen, Lutze, Link, and Wolfe (1989) opted to replicate much of Jurik's (1985) analysis regarding the effects of individual characteristics and work/organizational conditions models on job-related attitudes of correctional officers. Jurik's position was that minority status, gender, educational attainment, and lower security levels would reduce punitive attitudes and social distance toward offenders, whereas younger staff, frequency of offender contact, years of service in corrections, and role demands would increase punitive attitudes and social distance toward offenders.

Cullen et al. utilized questionnaires mailed to 250 correctional officers in a southern state, resulting in 155 useable responses (a 62% response rate). The sample of respondents consisted of 78.8% male, 56.9% white, 19.4% college graduate, 42.1%

working in maximum security institutions, a mean age of 38.1, a mean years of correctional experience of 3.5, and a mean years of education of 13.2 years. A comparison of officer characteristics in the state correctional system revealed the sample was fairly representative of the population statistics for all correctional officers in the state.

The dependent variables in this study were concepts of support for custody (custodial orientation) and support for rehabilitation (rehabilitation orientation). Individual/differential experience variables included gender, race, level of education, and age the correctional officer entered the profession. Organizational variables included multiple-item scales measuring role problems ( $\alpha = .66$ ), perception of dangerousness ( $\alpha = .78$ ), work stress ( $\alpha = .74$ ), and supervisory support ( $\alpha = .82$ ). The authors noted that multicollinearity among their independent variables was not severe.

Cullen et al. (1989) regressed custody orientation and support for rehabilitation on organizational and individual variables. The support for custody regression revealed only three significant findings. The data indicated custody officers resolved role problems by responding in a more custodial manner ( $\beta = .232, p < .01$ ), and those working on the night shift responded in a more custodial manner than those correctional officers on the day shift ( $\beta = .447, p < .01$ ). Further, supervisory support was positively related to custody orientation ( $\beta = .138, p < .08$ ) suggesting supervisor encouragement of the custodial ideology. Custodial experience also increased correctional officer custody support, but the results were not significant ( $p < .11$ ). This model explained eight percent of the variance in custody orientation ( $p < .02$ ).

The regression for correctional officer support for rehabilitation revealed that correctional officers on the night shift and those with increased correctional experience were less likely to support the rehabilitation ideology ( $\beta = -.376$ ,  $p < .05$  and  $\beta = -.045$ ,  $p < .10$  respectively). The results further revealed correctional officers who started their career later in life were more supportive of rehabilitation ( $\beta = .019$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and minority correctional officers held more positive attitudes toward rehabilitation ( $\beta = -.313$ ,  $p < .05$ ) than their white counterparts. This model explained ten percent of the variance in support for rehabilitation ( $p < .008$ ).

This study provided some support for both theoretical models. In regards to the differential experience model, minority status and older age at the onset of the correctional officer career did influence support for rehabilitation. Findings on years of service and role demands provided support for the prisonization model suggesting workplace socialization helped form attitudes toward offenders.

Explained variance in this study was still characteristically low. Part of this may have been due to questions utilized to measure the custodial and rehabilitative concepts. The authors used an uneven balance of punitive and social distance questions in their attempt to measure these concepts. In a correctional setting, professional behavior does not always equal punitive attitudes, social distance, and the custodial ideology. Assuming this ignores the various methods/styles of offender management in a correctional setting. A better approach would have been to separate punitive questions from strictly social distance questions and to measure these concepts separately.

VanVoorhis, Cullen, Link, and Wolfe (1991) examined the impact of race and gender on the two models of importation-differential experience and work role-prisonization. They argued that black women would experience higher levels of job tension than men and would have a less positive image of the work environment. Further, gender and race would be highly correlated with adverse job experiences, such as lack of supervisory and peer support.

VanVoorhis et al. mailed questionnaires to correctional officers in a southern correctional system and received 155 useable questionnaires (a 62% response rate). The dependent variables in the study included nine scales—role conflict/ambiguity, perception of dangerousness, work stress, job dissatisfaction, life stress/depression, custody orientation, rehabilitation orientation, supervisory support, and peer support. In some models, the latter two variables also served as independent variables. Cronbach's alphas for the dependent variables ranged from .66 for role conflict/ambiguity to .85 for life stress. Independent variables included individual characteristics—race, gender, educational attainment, and age—and work-related variables—years of experience, working on the night or day shift, working in a maximum security facility.

The results of the regression analyses revealed that none of the independent variables had a statistically significant impact on role conflict/ambiguity. White officers had significantly lower perceptions of dangerousness than black officers ( $\beta = -.31, p < .001$ ), while those working in a maximum security facility had significantly higher perceptions of dangerousness than those not working in such facilities ( $\beta = .28, p < .001$ ). Work stress was positively and significantly related to both years on the job ( $\beta = .24, p <$

.01) and working in a maximum security facility ( $\beta = .27, p < .01$ ). White officers expressed significantly less job dissatisfaction than black officers ( $\beta = -.17, p < .05$ ), while those with more education and working on the night shift had significantly higher job dissatisfaction ( $\beta = .21, p < .05$  and  $\beta = .22, p < .05$ , respectively). Older correctional officers experienced significantly less life stress/depression ( $\beta = -.19, p < .05$ ). Working on the night shift significantly increased custody orientation ( $\beta = .25, p < .05$ ). White correctional officers and those with less work experience scored significantly lower on the rehabilitation orientation scale ( $\beta = -.23, p < .01$  and  $\beta = -.21, p < .05$ , respectively), while age significantly increased rehabilitation orientation ( $\beta = .25, p < .001$ ). Supervisory support was negatively affected by gender, with males expressing significantly lower support from their supervisors than females ( $\beta = -.19, p < .05$ ). Finally, whites reported significantly lower peer support than blacks ( $\beta = -.24, p < .01$ ), while older workers and those working in maximum security facilities had significantly higher peer support ( $\beta = .20, p < .05$  and  $\beta = .20, p < .05$ , respectively). Explained variance in these models was quite low, ranging from four to twenty percent.

In additional analyses, VanVoorhis and her colleagues first tested for interaction effects between race and gender. The only significant race/gender interaction was found for rehabilitation orientation ( $\beta = -.74, p < .05$ ). These results indicated that white males had the lowest rehabilitation orientation followed by black females and white females, with black males holding the highest rehabilitation orientation.

In the final set of analyses, VanVoorhis et al. included supervisory support and peer support as predictors of the seven work orientation and job stress scales. Peer

support failed to significantly impact any of the work orientation and job stress scales, while supervisory support significantly decreased work stress ( $\beta = -.35, p < .001$ ) and job dissatisfaction ( $\beta = -.42, p < .001$ ). In addition, once supervisory and peer support were controlled, gender became statistically significant in the work stress model, indicating that males experienced lower job stress than females ( $\beta = -.17, p < .05$ ). These findings point to the importance of supervisor support in preventing two primary sources of job burnout and turnover, work stress and job dissatisfaction.

The findings in the VanVoorhis et al. study provide some support for both the differential experience/importation and prisonization models. In their initial nine models, VanVoorhis and her colleagues found eight individual characteristics derived from the differential experience/importation model were statistically significant, and an equal number of statistically significant relationships for organizational factors. Once supervisory and peer support had been controlled, variables from the prisonization model had slightly more statistically significant relationships with the work orientation and job stress scales than those from the differential experience/importation model (seven versus five, respectively). Thus, level of peer and supervisory support in part mediated the effects of individual background characteristics on indicators of work orientation and job stress, underscoring the importance of these types of support in the correctional work setting.

As with all research, the VanVoorhis et al. study suffers from several shortcomings. First, the study did not control for the urban versus rural background factor noted in the literature, nor for the frequency of offender-officer contact. Further,

like most studies, VanVoorhis et al. only studied correctional officers. While the correctional officer may have the “lion’s share” of contact and corrective discipline with offenders, other correctional staff members also have frequent interaction with offenders.

Jackson and Ammen (1996) conducted a study examining race of the correctional officer and attitudes toward treatment/rehabilitation programs for offenders. Their study replicated earlier work by Teske and Williams (1979) conducted when minority staff members in the Texas correctional system were less than 1 percent of the total workforce. Their research examined the issue of whether minority staff members prefer less social distance when interacting with the offender population.

Jackson and Ammen collected their data in 1990 utilizing a random sample of one-tenth of all correctional staff members from the rank of lieutenant or below in the Texas correctional system. Based on the low response rate from females and minorities in two separate mailings, an additional sample was collected during in-service training programs. To measure staff member attitudes, Jackson and Ammen developed a master scale which included subscales representing attitudes toward offender programs for treatment, education, medical care, psychological counseling, college credit, religious services, and vocational/educational training. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients for these subscales ranged from .66 to .76. The measures for punitive attitudes were taken from a study completed by Klofas and Toch (1982) that measured counseling roles, social distance, corruption of authority, and punitive orientation.

The correlation between age and Jackson and Ammen’s global scale was -.24, while the correlations between age and the Klofas and Toch subscales were -.31 for

social distance, -.13 for corruption, -.10 for counseling, and -.17 for punitive orientation. All correlations were statistically significant at the  $p < .01$  level. The authors also analyzed the data by race of the correctional staff member. They found adjusted means were greater for white correctional staff compared to African American correctional staff for vocational programs ( $p < .01$ ), for college programs ( $p < .01$ ), for religious programs ( $p < .01$ ) medical programs ( $p < .01$ ). For medical programs Hispanic correctional staff adjusted means were also greater than African American correctional staff ( $p < .01$ ). Further, white correctional staff adjusted means were greater than African American correctional staff for academic programs ( $p < .05$ ). The remaining adjusted mean differences were not statistically significant.

The findings of the Jackson and Ammen study suggest that African American correctional staff members were more supportive of offender rehabilitation programs and were more positive in their attitudes toward offenders than their white counterparts and provide support for the differential experience/importation model. However, the researchers did not control for other differential experience variables such as prior security experience, geographical origins of staff members, socioeconomic class of parents, nor did they control for prisonization variables such as security classification, role conflict, perception of danger, peer and supervisory support. Including both sets of variables would be important for assessing the relative utility of the two models in explaining variation in correctional staff members' attitudes toward offenders and rehabilitation programs.



The final study to be reviewed was completed by Jenne and Kersting (1998). This study focused on variables derived from the differential experience and prisonization models within the correctional setting. This study examined the effects of variables derived from the differential experience model—gender and age—and from the prisonization model—years of experience in correctional employment, time on the job in the current facility, time in current post, and rank/employment position—on punitive attitudes. Their hypothesis was based on the literature suggesting that female correctional staff members respond differently to the use of power than male correctional staff members. They argued, following Zimmer (1986), that female correctional staff members utilize an “inventive role” to avoid the use of power (especially for minor rule infractions) in male correctional facilities by exercising options other than more punitive actions often taken by male correctional staff members.

Jenne and Kersting mailed questionnaires to 391 correctional staff members in a northeastern state, with a female correctional staff member response rate of 34.9% and a male correctional staff member response rate of 40.7%, resulting in a total sample size of 146. The study replicated earlier work by Crouch and Alpert (1982) designed to obtain responses from staff members to hypothetical actions within a correctional setting that represent more punitive attitudes toward offenders.

Jenne and Kersting’s findings indicated no significant differences between male and female correctional staff members’ responses to four hypothetical conduct incidents. In their analysis of covariance, gender was not a significant predictor of the number of disciplinary charges the officers would have written. They did find the facility where the

officer worked was a significant predictor of the number of disciplinary charges the officers would have written ( $F= 2.3, p= .049$ ). The correctional staff members' attitudes about maintenance of control influenced punitive decisions ( $F= 8.9, p< .003$ ). Time as a correctional staff member, gender, and gender by current facility were not statistically significant.

Jenne and Kersting's findings provide some support for the prisonization model. However, this study did not control for shift worked, perception of danger, peer support, and particularly the role socialization influence of supervisory and administrative support, as was done in other studies. Further, they did not perform a regression analysis including other variables drawn from the differential experience/importation model such as race, educational attainment, class background, urban/rural upbringing. The only individual characteristics included in their analysis were gender and seniority. Also, as noted by the authors, the sample size was fairly small, limiting the generalizability of the results.

## **Conclusion**

As noted above, the empirical works of the last few decades have provided a mixture of results supporting both the differential experience/importation and work role/prisonization models. My review of this literature identified four gaps in the empirical literature which I will address in the present study.

First, several of the studies reviewed examine differences in the effects of importation and prisonization variables between prisons with different security levels (e.g., Hepburn and Albonetti 1980). What is missing in the literature is an

understanding of how the effect of these variables on correctional officers' attitudes and behaviors may differ *within* correctional facilities by custody level. This study will examine such potential differences within a single maximum security facility.

Second, only one of the studies in the literature, Gerstein et al. (1987), examined correctional employees other than front-line officers and/or treatment staff workers. It is important to test the importation and prisonization models using other groups of correctional employees since they too have significant contact with the offender population.

Third, none of the existing studies offers a comprehensive test of both the importation and prisonization models. The present study will do so by including a more comprehensive set of variables derived from both models combined with better measures of these variables.

Finally, the studies reviewed in Chapter III examine the impact of importation and prisonization variables on correctional officers' job-related attitudes, and social distance and attitudes toward offenders. However, only one study, Jenne and Kersting (1998), attempted to assess the effect of individual, environmental, and attitudinal variables on disciplinary conduct by having correctional officers respond to scenarios describing various incidents within prisons leading to different levels of punitiveness toward offenders by correctional employees. As will be discussed more fully in Chapter IV, understanding some of the factors that lead to use of discipline within the correctional setting is important since excessive and arbitrary discipline can lead to prisoner disturbances (Dilulio, 1987; Silberman, 1995).

The next chapter will give an overview of the theoretical expectations for the present study based on the theoretical and empirical literature reviewed in Chapters II and III. Likewise, the details of the sample, measurement of variables, and analysis strategy will be presented.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **THE PRESENT STUDY**

As noted in previous chapters, past research has utilized various methods and numerous variables in the attempt to explain staff members' attitudes, behaviors, and social distance from offenders in the correctional work environment. However, missing in the literature has been a clear understanding and examination of how these attitudes and behaviors vary across custody levels within a given correctional facility. The purpose of this study is: (1) to include a more comprehensive test of the prisonization and importation models by including more of the variables utilized in past research; (2) to develop and test a causal model that separates exogenous from intervening prisonization variables; (3) to test this causal model using custody levels within a maximum and medium security facility; (4) to measure social distance from offenders separately from staff members' correctional orientations; (5) to include other correctional workers in addition to the correctional and treatment staff members that have been the subjects in past studies; and (6) to examine the effects of correctional staff members' attitudes on disciplinary behavior through use of critical incident scenarios. In the next section, I will present the theoretical model, followed by the operationalization of the concepts in the model, the data collection method, and the analytical strategy.

#### **Theoretical Model**

Figure 4.1 contains the model tested in this study. As noted in chapter III, most research has compared minimum through maximum security facilities, focused primarily on front-line correctional officers or low-ranking correctional supervisors, or has

examined custody and treatment correctional staff members in the attempt to explain correctional staff member behaviors and attitudes between security levels (facilities) or attitudes toward offenders. The present study has included most of the common variables utilized in past research, but has distinguished between exogenous prisonization variables that are related to the work environment, such as custody level and perception of danger, and those that are intervening variables that are related to workplace socialization, such as peer support and work stress. See Table 4.1 for a complete listing of the hypothesized relationships between the variables in the model.

As noted earlier, Crouch and Alpert (1982) suggested that individual staff member differences would be the best predictors of attitudes for new correctional staff members (six months or less of correctional employment), but the effects of these attitudes imported into the correctional system would later be diminished by the workplace socialization process. As such, it is important to separate organizational variables from workplace socialization variables, since characteristics of the organizational setting may influence the socialization process. Attitudes regarding peer support, participation in decision making, work stress, and workplace attitudes will not generally be held by a correctional staff member immediately upon entry into the corrections field. As with most attitudes, these should develop gradually over time.

The internal custody level of the offender housing unit/work area is expected to influence correctional staff member attitudes. Past studies have examined facility security levels to understand correctional staff member attitudes and behaviors in minimum through maximum security institutions (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Crouch

and Alpert, 1982; Toch and Klofas, 1982; Jurik and Halemba, 1984; Jurik, 1985b; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1986; Cullen et al., 1989; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989). What is lost in this cross-facility approach are the micro-level differences within a single correctional facility that will likely vary as much as attitudes across facilities with different security levels. For example, expectations are that correctional staff members in segregation units will possess higher social distance from offenders and higher custodial orientations than staff members working in lower custody levels of a facility. It is further expected that as the perception of danger is reduced through interaction with less problematic offenders within the offender/unit custody level, a corresponding lowering of custodial and distance attitudes will be exhibited by correctional staff members. For the present study, the initial focus was solely on a maximum security correctional facility in the Midwest. However, due to a 16 percent response rate from those offered a survey questionnaire, a medium security facility in the same state was included in the present study causing an additional variable of institutional security level.

Past research has primarily focused on correctional staff member attitudes toward custodial versus rehabilitation orientations toward corrections, or has examined attitudes of custody versus treatment staff (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Gerstein et al, 1987; Cullen et al., 1989). However, the rehabilitation/custodial scales used in past studies include items that measure custodial and rehabilitative attitudes, plus questions that tap a third, and arguably distinct, concept, *social distance between correctional staff members and offenders* (see Toch and Klofas, 1982). This common practice of confounding correctional orientation with social distance ignores behaviors that are common in the

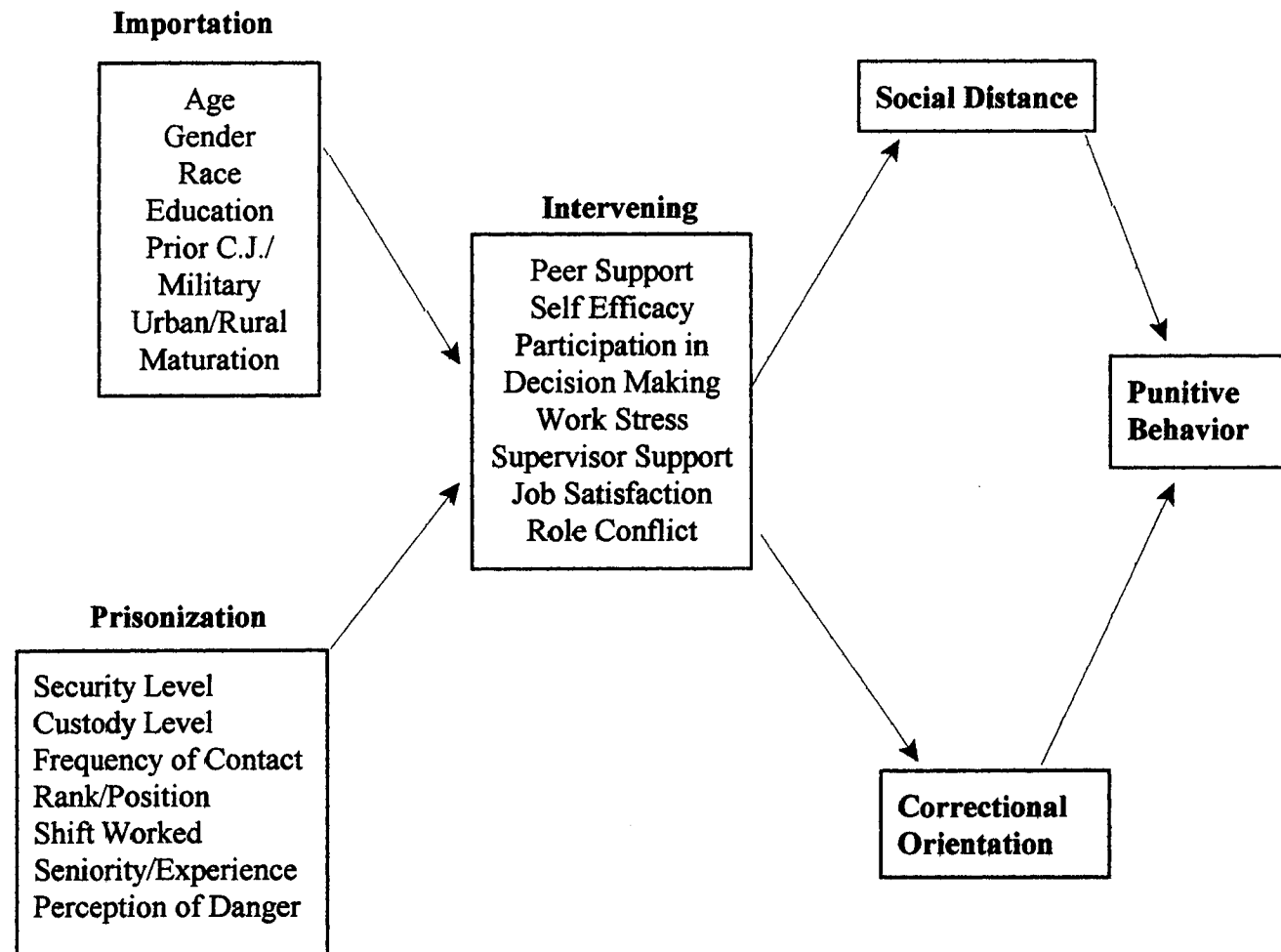
correctional setting. Correctional staff members may be custodial in their orientation toward their job (i.e., strict rule enforcers), yet may be socially close to and respected by offenders. On the other hand, they may be more rehabilitative in their orientation toward corrections, but socially distant from offenders in doing their job. In turn, both social distance and correctional orientation are likely to have independent effects on punitive behavior. Thus, social distance and correctional orientation will be included as separate variables in the model.

The final variable included in the model was a critical incident scale to assess likely behaviors by correctional staff members in disciplinary situations. Past research has measured correctional staff member attitudes toward programs and offenders, while other studies have measured behavior within hypothetical disciplinary situations or critical incidents (Crouch and Alpert, 1982; Jenne and Kersting, 1998). The present study assesses potential behavior within hypothetical disciplinary situations that are common in correctional facilities. Theoretically, those expressing high custodial orientations should also give more punitive responses within the hypothetical disciplinary situations. Correspondingly, those expressing lower social distances toward offenders should express less punitive responses to critical incidents.

This research will make an important contribution to the correctional field in that it will allow us to examine how correctional staff member attitudes and behaviors may differ based on the security level and/or custody level of the offenders housed in specific housing units or in other areas of a correctional facility. Understanding the complexities of correctional staff member attitudes will allow correctional managers to provide



**Figure 4.1 Presentation of the Model**



training to counteract potential undesirable acts by their employees based on prolonged contact with certain types of offenders housed in these different custody-level housing units.

## **Variable Measurement**

### **Dependent Variables**

The main objective of the present study was to explore the effects of importation and prisonization variables on correctional staff member *social distance from offenders*, *correctional orientation*, and *staff member likely behaviors in disciplinary situations*, especially when controlling for experiences with offenders in various offender housing units (custody-levels) and facility security levels. It is important to measure these dependent variables separately since the correctional staff member can have different methods for dealing with offenders in disciplinary situations depending on the intervening variables as influenced by the organizational setting. More specifically, correctional staff members may opt to maintain high social distance and high rehabilitative attitudes, low social distance and high custodial orientations, or any combination in between based on their personal value systems, experiences, and the working constraints (departmental policies) of the institution.

**Table 4.1      Theoretical Presentation**

| <b>Importation/Differential Experience Model</b>      | <b>Social Distance</b> | <b>Correctional Orientation</b> | <b>Punitive Behavior</b> |
|---|------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Gender (Female)                                       | -                      | -                               | -                        |
| Race (Minority)                                       | -                      | +/-                             | -                        |
| Education Attainment                                  | +/-                    | +/-                             | -                        |
| Prior Security Experience                             | +                      | +                               | +                        |
| Age at time of Employment                             | +/-                    | -                               | +/-                      |
| Urban Origins   | -                      | -                               | -                        |
| Parental Education                                    | -                      | -                               | -                        |
| <b>Work Role/ Prisonization Model</b>                 | <b>Social Distance</b> | <b>Correctional Orientation</b> | <b>Punitive Behavior</b> |
| Security Level  | +                      | +                               | -                        |
| Custody Level   | +                      | +                               | +                        |
| Frequency of Offender Contact                         | +/-                    | +                               | -                        |
| Rank/Position of Staff Member                         | -                      | +                               | -                        |
| Shift Worked (Night Shift)                            | +/-                    | +                               | +                        |
| Seniority/Experience                                  | +/-                    | +/-                             | -                        |
| Perception of Danger                                  | +                      | +                               | +                        |
| <b>Intervening Prisonization Variables</b>            | <b>Social Distance</b> | <b>Correctional Orientation</b> | <b>Punitive Behavior</b> |
| Peer Support  | +                      | +                               | +/-                      |
| Supervisor Support                                    | -                      | +/-                             | +/-                      |
| Participation in Decision Making                      | -                      | +                               | -                        |
| Self Efficacy   | -                      | -                               | -                        |
| Work Stress   | +                      | +                               | -                        |
| Job Satisfaction                                      | -                      | +/-                             | -                        |
| Role Conflict   | +                      | +                               | +                        |
| <b>Intervening Distance and Orientation Variables</b> | <b>Social Distance</b> | <b>Correctional Orientation</b> | <b>Punitive Behavior</b> |
| Social Distance                                       | n/a                    | n/a                             | +                        |
| Correctional Orientation                              | n/a                    | n/a                             | +                        |

Previous studies have specifically measured correctional staff members' social distance from offenders (Gerstein et al., 1987; Cullen et al., 1989; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). In their study, Cullen et al. (1989) developed custodial and rehabilitation scales to measure professional attitudes that tapped into social distance and custodial attitudes toward offenders. The Cullen et al. rehabilitation scale appeared to contain a fairly reliable measure of rehabilitative attitudes toward offenders (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .79$ ), where the custodial orientation scale measured custodial attitudes by correctional staff members ( $\alpha = .64$ ). VanVoorhis et al. (1991) combined both scales from the Cullen study with fairly reliable results ( $\alpha = .82$ ). However, both scales contained questions related to social distance and correctional orientation, thus confounding these two concepts.

Since the purpose of this study was to measure social distance and custodial orientation separately, the correctional orientation and social distance questions have been separated from the scales used in past studies. Correctional orientation was measured with fourteen, six-point Likert scale items including thirteen questions from Cullen et al. (1989) and one question taken from Hepburn and Albonetti (1980) which addresses more global punishment issues than was included in the Cullen et al. study (see Appendix A, B16, 19, 21, 23, 28, 30, 34, 38, 45, 48, 49, 55, 63, and 74). Social distance attitudes was measured with eleven, six-point Likert scale items including two questions from Toch and Klofas (1982) addressing general social distance, one question from Jacobs and Kraft (1978) on social worth, and eight questions developed to measure

various levels of social distance between correctional staff members and offenders not included in previous studies (see B15, 26, 31, 36, 43, 51, 60, 67, 71, 76, and 77).

In addition to measuring social distance and correctional orientation separately, several questions regarding scenarios of critical incidents were utilized to measure the impact of importation, prisonization, and intervening variables on correctional staff member potential punitive behaviors in disciplinary situations. Section C of the questionnaire (see Appendix A: C1-15) contains the critical incident scale items similar to those utilized by Crouch and Alpert (1982) and Jenne and Kersting (1998), with responses ranging from low to high punitive options. The correctional facilities examined in this study utilize a four-tier system to identify and sanction rule violations, with the first two tiers generally classified as major or serious conduct violations, and the last two tiers as order maintenance or less serious rule violations. Since staff member responses to serious violations will likely contain less variability, fifteen conduct scenarios have been selected from the order maintenance section of the Department's *Adult Disciplinary Policy* in an attempt to measure *punitive responses* to realistic situations that correctional staff members may have experienced, or could experience. To aid in this process, the fifteen critical incident questions were reviewed by a prior disciplinary chairperson to determine if the questions could be perceived as realistic by correctional staff members, and to determine an increasing scale in terms of punishment to established correctional rules. The responses range from limited punitive action to formal punitive action by the staff member.

## Exogenous Variables

The *importation variables* in the study included gender, race, educational attainment, age, prior criminal justice or military experience, and urban or rural origins. *Gender* was recorded zero for female and one for male (see Appendix A, A2). *Race* was measured with a three-category variable—white, black, or other—and coded zero for nonwhites and one for white (see A3) due to the low level of racial diversity among workers in the correctional facilities and to maintain the anonymity of respondents. *Educational attainment*, as in Whitehead and Lindquist (1989), was measured less than high school/GED, high school or GED, some college, associate's degree, bachelors's degree, some graduate study, and master's degree or higher scored eight through twenty-three to reflect an ordinal pattern for years of education (see A5).

Correctional staff members were asked their *age* when they were first employed in corrections recorded in months (see A1). The purpose of this measure is to understand the impact of starting a career in corrections later in life on staff member attitudes and behaviors since it has been suggested that staff members entering corrections later in life have lower social distance toward offenders (Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989). In addition, Cullen et al. (1989) utilized a measure that subtracted years of correctional experience from the correctional staff member's current age to estimate when the correctional staff member entered corrections, but noted this method would not account for employees leaving corrections and later returning to correctional employment. The measure used in the present study is designed to address the approximation issue.

Management has attempted to attract various types of personnel into the correctional setting, in an effort to professionalize corrections (Jurik et al., 1987). It is expected that those with *prior military/criminal justice experience* will be more conservative and express more social distance and custodial orientations toward offenders, while also having lower perceptions of danger. The respondents were asked if they have been employed or held a position in the military or other criminal justice positions scored as one for yes and zero for no (see A9, 10, and 11). *Rural or urban origins* was determined by the respondent selecting from the options of large city, medium city, small city, or small town/rural area. Based on the literature, it is expected that those from urban origins will hold lower social distance attitudes toward offenders since they come from similar urban backgrounds. This variable was recoded into a dummy variable, with big city origins equal to one and all others as zero (see A8).

Exogenous *prisonization variables* included *shift worked*, *frequency of offender contact*, *rank or position*, *custody level of normal job assignment*, *seniority or experience*, and *perception of danger*. *Shift worked* has been noted in the literature as a predictor of social distance, correctional orientation, and punitive behaviors (Cullen et al., 1989; Lombardo, 1989; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). To measure *shift worked* (see A16), respondents indicating *day/morning shift* were coded with day equal to one and night shift equal to zero, with the expectation that those working nights/afternoons will hold greater social distance and correctional orientations toward offenders. Respondents were also asked how many months or years they have worked the shift as their primary work shift (see A17). Categories were divided into the

above groups due to some correctional staff working twelve hour shifts, whereas others are working 7.5 hour days. The above measure was designed to capture all staff members in one of these two categories.

The respondent was also asked to estimate the number of hours of contact s/he had with offenders. *Frequency of offender contact* was measured by estimated number of hours of per week of direct offender contact, since offender contact is considered stressful (Whitehead and Lindquist, 1986; Gerstein et al., 1987). Correctional staff members were asked to estimate the number of hours they typically spend in direct offender contact per week based on a 37.5 or 40 hour work week for non-custody and custody positions, respectively, as noted above (see A18).

The *position or rank* of the correctional staff member was also measured. As expected, custody personnel tend to have the greatest share of offender contact and are more confrontational, in that they operate as the police in the correctional setting, while workers in other correctional job classifications can have equal contact time with offenders, but have varying degrees of confrontational interaction with offenders. To compare position or rank in the facility (see A12), *rank/position* was measured based on a scale of potential confrontation or interaction of the staff member's position with offenders, where correctional staff members interact with offenders face to face. For purposes of analysis, custodial positions (correctional officer type positions) were scored as one and all other non-custodial positions were scored as zero. Respondents were also asked if they ever held a position in corrections as a supervisor scored as one for yes and zero for no (see A13).



Prison security level has often been noted in the literature as an important variable to be included in models of correctional staff member attitudes and behaviors (Smith and Hepburn, 1979; Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Crouch and Alpert, 1982; Jurik, 1985b; Jurik et al., 1987; Cullen et al., 1989; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). However, as noted previously, the custody-level within a facility has been ignored in the literature. In the present study, respondents were asked the type of offender *housing unit/offender work area* they most frequently worked in, if any (see A14), and how many months they had worked in the area (see A15). For purposes of analysis, staff members working in high custody units were scored as one and all other units were scored as zero. With respect to security level, maximum-security was scored as one and medium-security level was scored as zero. It was expected that correctional staff members working in higher custody/more stressful units and the maximum-security facility would have greater social distance and more custodial orientations.

*Perception of danger* has been identified as a work-related stressor related to the dangerous clientele inherent in our correctional systems, whereas job stress has a more general focus on expectations and demands on the employee in the workplace. Again, Cullen et al. (1985), Cullen et al. (1989), and VanVoorhis et al. (1991) utilized the same questions to measure police and correctional personnel's perceptions of danger in their work environments. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients ( $\alpha$ ) were also fairly consistent (.64, .78, and .74, respectively). Based on these consistent findings, and, due to the fact that perceptions of danger are a concern in custody-levels, especially for

offender housing units in a maximum-security facility, the Cullen et al. (1985,1989) five-item scale was utilized to measure *perception of danger* in the present study (see B17, 29, 37, 52, and 66).

The final exogenous prisonization variable to be included in the present study was *longevity* or *seniority* in corrections recorded in years and/or months (converted to total months). Less than one month was be scored as zero for the purpose of this study (see A4). It was expected, based on findings in Poole and Regoli (1980b), Jurik and Halemba (1984), Jurik (1985b), Whitehead and Lindquist (1986), Gerstein et al. (1987), Jurik et al. (1987), Cullen et al. (1989), VanVoorhis et al. (1991), and Jenne and Kersting (1998), that increased work experience in the correctional setting would have an impact on correctional staff member social distance attitudes. However, as noted in previous findings, seniority is mitigated by other factors in its influence on social distance and correctional orientation.

### **Intervening Variables**

The independent variables of the prisonization model that should mediate the effects on social distance and correctional orientation include *job satisfaction and self efficacy, role conflict/ambiguity, work/job stress, supervisory support, participation in decision-making, and peer support*. Several studies have examined role conflict/role ambiguity among correctional staff members (Poole and Regoli, 1980b; Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Poole and Regoli, 1981; Toch and Klofas, 1982; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1986; Gerstein et al., 1987; Cullen et al., 1989; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). Toch and Klofas (1982) utilized a twenty-five item scale that appears to have had the

highest reliability for measuring conflict and alienation among correctional staff members ( $\alpha=.92$ ). However, the questions in their scale were focused on the custodial staff and missed other important factors, such as self-efficacy and job satisfaction, that may have meaning for workers in the other correctional positions that have been included in this study.

The present study included *job satisfaction* measured by a ten-item scale ( $\alpha= .84$ ) utilizing five questions from VanVoorhis et al. (1991), four questions from Toch and Klofas' (1982) scale on alienation, and one question from Hepburn and Albonetti (1980) specifically directed at co-workers (see Appendix A: B3, 8, 9, 12, 13, 20, 32, 40, 47, and 72). Also included was a four-item scale modified from Gerstein et al. (1987) on *self-efficacy* ( $\alpha= .74$ ) in order to more completely explore the possible impact of elements of job satisfaction (see B14, 25, 44, and 57).

*Role conflict and ambiguity* was measured by a seven-item scale with five questions from VanVoorhis et al. (1991) on role conflict/ambiguity ( $\alpha=.66$ ), one question from Hepburn and Albonetti (1980) related to how well roles are defined in the facility, and one question from Toch and Klofas (1982) on the instability of the rule-making process (see B10, 41, 56, 61, 68, 73, and 75).

Several reliable measures of *work /job stress* also appear in past research. Cullen et al. (1985), Cullen et al. (1989), and VanVoorhis et al. (1991) have utilized the same questions designed to measure job stress. The reliability of this scale has consistently fallen between .74 and .78 when measuring attitudes concerning work stress among police officers and correctional staff members. Based on these consistent findings, the

six-item work stress measure developed by Cullen et al. (1989) was utilized to measure job stress in the present study (see B6, 24, 53, 59, 64, and 69).

*Supervisory support and participation in decision making* were also included in the model. Cullen et al. (1985), Whitehead and Lindquist (1986), Jurik et al. (1987), Cullen et al. (1989), Whitehead and Lindquist (1989), and VanVoorhis et al. (1991) have attempted to measure correctional staff member attitudes concerning supervisory support, and, to a lesser degree, attitudes toward participation in decision making. The reliability coefficients for the supervisory support measure in past studies have been .81 or higher (see Cullen et al., 1985; Cullen et al., 1989, and VanVoorhis et al., 1991) and for the participation in decision making measure .70 or higher (see Whitehead and Lindquist, 1986 and 1989) suggesting these measures have relatively high reliability. Based on these previous findings, these scales were included in the present study.

*Supervisory support* was measured with a nine-item scale containing six questions from Cullen et al. (1985) measuring attitudes concerning supervisor support ( $\alpha = .81$ ) and three questions from Toch and Klofas (1982) examining staff morale, agency support, and management's support for staff versus offenders (see B18, 22, 27, 35, 42, 46, 54, 58, and 70). *Participation in decision making* was measured using a five-item scale containing four questions ( $\alpha = .70$ ) from Whitehead and Lindquist (1986) and one question involving facility-wide decision-making attitudes not addressed in Whitehead and Lindquist (see B1, 4, 7, 11, and 65).

The final concept to be measured is *peer support*. Cullen et al. (1985), Jurik et al. (1987), and VanVoorhis et al. (1991) included peer support scales in their research.

Reliability coefficients for Cullen et al. (1985) and VanVoorhis et al. (1991) were .74 and .70, respectively. Jurik et al. (1987) had slightly higher reliability results, however, it could be argued that these questions barely scratched the surface regarding the concept of peer support. *Peer support* was measured in the present study using a six-item scale including five questions ( $\alpha=.74$ ) developed by Cullen et al. (1985), and one question measuring the scope and depth of peer support not included in previous studies (see B2, 5, 33, 39, 50, and 62).

### **Data Collection Method**

This study drew respondents from one maximum security correctional facility and one medium security correctional facility in the state of Indiana. All correctional staff members who had any type of offender contact (including non-custody staff members) were provided with an opportunity to participate. These facilities contained several segregation units, or high-custody offender housing units, and various types of general population housing units, or in-custody units. A master roster of correctional staff members who had offender contact was requested from the Human Resource Office of both facilities, including the correctional staff member's name, date of hire, and job classification (n= 537 maximum-security prison employees and n=458 medium-security facility employees). Those determined as not having any type of offender contact were stricken from the list, while those remaining staff members were assigned an identification number created from a random number table.

The Superintendents of each facility were asked to announce the study and to encourage staff participation in order to increase knowledge of correctional criminology.

Within one week of the announcement, the identified correctional staff members received a package through the facility's internal mail delivery system containing the survey instrument, required state consent form, and a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study and agreement to participate (for the medium-security facility, the announcement was included in the questionnaire packet). Staff members received instructions asking them to return the completed questionnaire and consent forms to boxes located near the facility's Human Resource Office (maximum-security facility) or near the facility's control room (medium-security facility) in a sealed envelope with "sealed by respondent" written across the sealed flap to help protect privacy. Returned questionnaires were examined for completeness and, if found to be complete, the staff member's name was stricken from the master roster.

Approximately three weeks after the initial delivery of the questionnaires at the maximum-security facility, a second questionnaire was sent to non-respondents asking for their participation (see Babbie, 1999). Those failing to respond to the second questionnaire were stricken from the master roster as non-responsive. A second mailing was not attempted at the medium-security facility based on the limited number of additional questionnaires received from the second mailing at the maximum-security facility. A total of 87 (16.2%) maximum security staff members responded, and 112 (24.5% ) medium security staff members responded. After the data had been entered into an SPSS database, verified, and cleaned of error, responding staff members were assigned a new random identification number to further disguise their identities.

## **Ethical Considerations**

The foundation of ethical research includes informed consent, voluntary participation, confidentiality, and anonymity of the subjects included in the study (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2000). The requirement of informed consent was met by the introduction letter attached to the survey document and through the required *Subject's Agreement To Participate/Consent To Disclose Information*, state form 13252 (see Attachment B) detailing the purpose and method of collecting data for this study. The voluntary nature of participation in the study was noted in the introduction letter, and it is also included on the State's consent form. No staff member was forced to participate in the study.

Total confidentiality and anonymity are very difficult to accomplish in any survey; especially one with a small population size of approximately 1,000 correctional staff members. As noted above, this study employed double random number identifiers in order to protect the anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents. A random number was assigned to the survey participants, and once data had been entered and cleaned of data entry errors, a replacement random number was assigned to further protect the identity of the respondent. Also, the master roster identification and cross-reference to the new randomized number was destroyed after the data were properly prepared for analysis. While this method may offer the basic assurances of confidentiality, it does not resolve the issue of anonymity. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2000) suggest the use of group identifiers to further protect anonymity.

Therefore, specific identifiers like age, position, or rank were reported in group fashion so as to further reduce the chance of any specific participant in the study being identified.

While no study can assure total confidentiality and anonymity, these methods should have provided considerable protection against any accidental disclosure of the identity of any staff participant. Every effort was made during all portions of the data gathering process to protect the privacy of those involved in this study based on state law and ethical standards of institutional research.

### **Analytical Strategy**

The analysis of the data consisted of three stages. First, principal components analyses of the sets of items used to measure each of the concepts in the theoretical model were conducted to combine the items into scales, and Cronbach's  $\alpha$  reliability coefficients were computed for each resulting measure. Second, ordinary least squares (OLS) regression was used to estimate the coefficients in the path model. Finally, a full set of regression diagnostics was conducted, and any necessary corrections for OLS assumption violations were made, in order to be certain that best, least squares unbiased estimates of model parameters were obtained. These findings will be discussed in further detail in Chapter V.

### **Principal Components and Reliability Analyses**

Principal components is a method of exploratory factor analysis which involves extracting a set of linear combinations (referred to as components, factors, or dimensions) from a set of highly-correlated items that completely accounts for the variation among the items. The first linear combination extracted accounts for the most



variance, the second the second most amount of the variance, and so forth. The resulting factor matrix is rotated to achieve orthogonal factors and to make the results more interpretable. The items that have the highest loadings can be used to name the component/dimension. The factor loadings for each factor can be used as weights to combine the items into a weighted factor score. Thus, principal components is a data reduction technique used to combine correlated items into weighted linear combinations.

The first step in the analysis involved recoding the items used so that they all measure the concept of interest in the same direction. The resulting scales reflected high scores on each concept.<sup>1</sup>

The set of items purported to measure each of the concepts in the theoretical model were subjected to a principal components analysis using the factor module in SPSS to determine if they contained a single or multiple dimensions. Then, according to the results, the items were combined into a scale measuring the concept of interest using the factor scores generated by SPSS.

In addition to the principal components analysis, a reliability analysis of the items measuring each concept was conducted to assess internal consistency using the SPSS reliability module. This analysis calculated the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  reliability coefficient for each set of items. According to Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2000:482), "an acceptable level of internal consistency would be reflected in an alpha value of no less

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<sup>1</sup>The following items were reflected: B2, B14, B16, B20, B21, B31, B32, B40, B43, B45, B47, B50, B52, B53, B58, B60, B64, B65, B68, B70, B71, B76.

than .70.” The findings of the principal components analysis will be discussed later in Chapter V.

### **Path Analysis**

Path analysis using OLS estimation was used to estimate the parameters in the recursive theoretical model in Figure 4.1. The analysis included one structural equation for each endogenous variable in the model. Each endogenous variable was regressed on the variables that predict it in order of causal priority. Thus, each intervening prisonization variable was regressed on the exogenous importation and prisonization variables. Then the social distance scales were regressed on the exogenous importation and prisonization variables, and then on those variables plus the intervening prisonization variables. Next, the correctional scale was regressed on the exogenous importation and prisonization variables, and then on those variables plus the intervening prisonization variables. Finally, the punitive behavior scale was regressed on the exogenous importation and prisonization variables, then on those variables plus the intervening prisonization variables, and lastly on all of these variables plus the social distance and correctional orientation scales. These findings will be presented later in Chapter V.

### **Regression Diagnostics**

OLS regression results can be unduly influenced by outlying data points. Accordingly, a preliminary influence analysis was performed. This involved: (1) examining univariate distributions for potential outlying observations (i.e., those in excess of 3 standard deviations from the mean); (2) examining bivariate scatterplots of each endogenous variable with each of its respective predictor variables; and (3)

calculation of influence and distance measures based on the residuals from each regression equation (see Fox, 1991 and Allison, 1998). Based on these analyses, problematic cases were identified and investigated to see if they should be dropped from the analysis.

OLS regression assumes that the level of multicollinearity between independent/predictor variables is not excessive. Multicollinearity indicates that there is overlap or redundancy between the predictor variables in the analysis. Excessive levels of multicollinearity inflate the standard error estimates of the slope coefficients (i.e., the denominators of the t-test statistics), making it difficult to reject the null hypothesis. The level of multicollinearity was assessed by examining the SPSS collinearity regression diagnostics; specifically the tolerance statistics and variance inflation factors (VIF) were examined. The tolerance statistic shows how much variance in the variable of interest is not shared with the other predictor variables in the regression equation. Allison (1998) suggests that values of .40 and lower are problematic. The VIF measures how many times greater the variance estimator of the slope coefficient of the variable of interest is than would be the case if no multicollinearity were present. The square root of the VIF shows how much the standard error estimate is inflated. Allison (1998) argues that values 2.50 and above, and 1.58 and above show problematic inflation of the variance and standard error estimate, respectively. When problematic levels of multicollinearity were found, the variable(s) with the highest degree of overlap were removed from the analysis.

OLS regression assumes that the residuals are normally distributed and homoskedastic (i.e., have constant variance). Non-normality and heteroskedasticity both affect the size of the standard error estimates, and hence, invalidate hypothesis tests. Normality was assessed by examining a histogram of the residuals from the regression analyses, and using the Shapiro-Wilk test statistic to formally test the null hypothesis of normally distributed residuals. Homoskedasticity was assessed using the White's test, which involves regressing the squared regression residuals on the independent variables in the equation. Multiplying the resulting coefficient of determination,  $R^2$ , by the sample size yields the White's test statistic which has a chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of independent variables in the regression equation. If the null hypothesis of homoskedasticity is rejected, White's corrected standard errors were calculated and used to construct corrected t-test statistics.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **FINDINGS**

This chapter will present the findings of this study. The first section will discuss the results of the univariate and influence analyses. Next, I will present the results of the principal components and reliability analyses for the attitudinal, social distance, correctional orientation, and punitive measures. The third section includes the results of the ordinary least-squares regression analysis of the regression of attitudinal variables on the importation and prisonization variables, the correctional orientation and social distance measures on attitudinal, importation and prisonization variables, and finally the logistic regression of punitive measures on social distance, correctional orientation, attitudinal, importation and prisonization variables. The final section of the chapter offers a summary of the key findings.

The univariate analysis revealed some distributional problems. In this study, respondents were 69.7% male, 88.9% white, 70% had some college or less, 78% were from a small town or rural origins, while 54% were working in custody positions. Months employed in corrections ranged between 2 and 528 months ( $\bar{x}$ = 95.38); age at initial employment in corrections ranged between 19 and 70 ( $\bar{x}$ = 36.28); and offender contact hours per week ranged between 0 and 43 ( $\bar{x}$ = 28.89). The distribution of months employed in corrections had large skewness and kurtosis ratios of 9.503 and 8.10, respectively, and the Shapiro-Wilk normality test indicated non-normality ( $p$ = .000). However, regressing the attitudinal, social distance, and correctional orientation

variables on the importation and prisonization variables using the unmodified months in corrections showed the unstandardized residuals to be normally distributed (Shapiro-Wilk,  $p = .482$ ).

Influence analysis noted three cases as potential outliers affecting the regression results. One of these cases had “don’t know” responses for all 77 of the attitude questions. Since this case was among the outliers and was missing usable information in the attitude scales, this case was deleted from the analysis.

The next step involved in the univariate analysis process was collapsing the categorical variables with low response rates, missing responses, and those selecting “don’t know” as an option. The dichotomization of the importation and prisonization variables, as discussed above in Chapter II, included gender, race, prior criminal justice/military experience, urban/rural origins, security level, custody level, position held, and shift worked. Missing data were primarily in the attitude and conduct sections of the questionnaire, with the exception of parental educational attainment. Due to missing data in more than 10% of the cases, parental education was dropped from the analysis.

The survey questions on staff member attitudes allowed for responses from strongly agree to strongly disagree, and also a “don’t know” option. Frequency distributions of these questions indicated forty-two of the seventy-seven attitude questions contained missing responses ranging from .5 to 2.5 percent. However, all but four of these contained missing responses of 1.5% or less per question. Selection of “don’t know” as a response was found in sixty-five of the seventy-seven attitude

questions ranging from .5 to 9.5 percent per question. However, only eight of these sixty-five had “don’t know” response rates above 4.5% per question.

In order to reduce the number of zero cells for subsequent logistic regression analysis, the “don’t know” responses were recoded from zero to three to be similar to the noncommittal or neutral response of the neither agree/disagree option. While this is not the ideal method for replacing missing data, it is a reasonable method to replace missing values given that, in the majority of these questions, 5% or fewer respondents fell into the “don’t know” category. Further, given the relatively small sample size, deleting these additional cases by excluding those with a “don’t know” response would considerably decrease the size of the sample. Based on this method of replacement, and using listwise deletion of cases with other missing values, frequency distributions showed that the total number of missing cases for the attitudinal variables was limited to 15 or 7.6% of the sample.

Next, twenty-two variables were recoded so that they all measured the concept of interest in the same direction as required for use in principal components analysis. Items related to perception of danger, peer support, participation in decision making, self-efficacy, work stress, supervisory support, job satisfaction, role conflict, correctional orientation, social distance, and the conduct scenarios were subjected to principal components analyses using the factor module in SPSS to determine if they contained a single or multiple dimensions (see Table 5.1 for factor loadings and Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients). The majority of factor loadings were .70 or higher, with a range of .480 to .906. Other than the two exceptions noted below, the principal components

analyses revealed that scale items loaded on a single dimension, and thus provided a single measure of each theoretical concept. However, social distance contained several dimensions, but only two were related to the theoretical focus of this research. Based on principal components analysis of the social distance items, two distinct components measuring social distance were extracted—one measuring professional social distance of correctional staff members, and the other a Bogardus social distance measure. Further, principal components analysis of the critical incident scales (conduct scenarios) revealed no clear pattern among the fifteen different conduct scenarios. Thus, a separate logistic regression analysis was conducted on each of the fifteen individual conduct scenario measures.

Reliability analysis (utilizing SPSS scale/reliability) found most scales in this study to be near or above the .70 Cronbach's alpha criterion for acceptable reliability (see Table 5.1). The exceptions were self-efficacy ( $\alpha = .518$ ), professional social distance ( $\alpha = .600$ ), and Bogardus social distance ( $\alpha = .464$ ). The low reliability of the professional social distance scale is due, in part, to the scale containing only two items. The low reliability of self-efficacy may be due to the changing roles of correctional staff members, or to the type of correctional staff members volunteering to participate in this study. Further, the low reliabilities of the professional and Bogardus social distance scales suggest the social distance questions from past research may need to be updated and modified in order to tap this sociological concept among today's correctional workers. Given the relatively low reliability findings for these scales, caution must be



**Table 5.1 Factor Loadings from Principal Components Analyses of Attitude Items and Reliability Coefficients for Scales**

**Exogenous Variable**

| <b>Perception of Danger</b> |   | <b>Factor Loadings</b> |
|-----------------------------|---|------------------------|
| B17                         | A lot of people get injured at work.                | .610                   |
| B29                         | A person stands a good chance of getting hurt.      | .799                   |
| B37                         | I work in a dangerous job.                          | .756                   |
| B52                         | There's not much chance of getting hurt on the job. | .691                   |
| Cronbach's Alpha            |   | .673                   |

**Intervening Attitude Variables**

| <b>Peer Support</b> |  | <b>Factor Loadings</b> |
|---------------------|--|------------------------|
| B2                  | Blames others when things go wrong.                          | .708                   |
| B5                  | My fellow staff compliment each other.                       | .799                   |
| B33                 | Fellow staff members often encourage others to do good work. | .824                   |
| B50                 | Fellow staff members did not help me improve my performance. | .709                   |
| B62                 | Fellow staff encourage new ideas.                            | .718                   |
| Cronbach's Alpha    |  | .807                   |

**Self Efficacy**

|                  |   |      |
|------------------|---|------|
| B25              | My involvement with offenders makes an effective difference.        | .717 |
| B44              | I feel confident in my abilities to make a difference.              | .722 |
| B57              | I expected to have a chance to be creative with changing offenders. | .709 |
| Cronbach's Alpha |   | .518 |

**Participation in Decision Making**

|                  |  |      |
|------------------|--|------|
| B1               | How much influence do you have on what goes on at work?                              | .723 |
| B4               | How easy is it for you to get your ideas accepted by your supervisor?                | .800 |
| B7               | Can you influence the decisions of your supervisor regarding operations or policies? | .761 |
| B11              | Does your supervisor ask for your opinions on problems?                              | .767 |
| B65              | The Department does not support my suggestions relating to the job.                  | .700 |
| Cronbach's Alpha |  | .796 |

**Table 5.1 continued**

| <b>Job Satisfaction</b>    |   | <b>Factor Loadings</b> |
|----------------------------|---|------------------------|
| B20                        | Staff members are only told their job when something's goes wrong.                                  | .732                   |
| B32                        | We're damned if we do and damned if we don't.   | .696                   |
| B40                        | No matter how hard one tries, there's no sense of accomplishment.                                   | .640                   |
| B47                        | The average staff member would change professions.  | .590                   |
| B72                        | If a staff member does good work, they get recognized.  | .753                   |
| Cronbach's Alpha           |   | .715                   |
| <b>Supervisory Support</b> |   |                        |
| B22                        | My supervisor tries to handle any disputes in a supportive way.                                     | .799                   |
| B46                        | Problems between offenders and staff, the administration usually supports the staff member.         | .669                   |
| B58                        | My supervisor often blames others when things go wrong.   | .828                   |
| B70                        | My supervisors are more sympathetic to problems of offenders rather than problems of staff members. | .785                   |
| Cronbach's Alpha           |   | .722                   |
| <b>Role Conflict</b>       |   |                        |
| B10                        | It is never clear who is responsible for doing different jobs                                       | .659                   |
| B41                        | The people I work with seldom agree on how problems should be handled.                              | .592                   |
| B56                        | Too many people are advising me so it's hard to know who is the boss.                               | .682                   |
| B61                        | The rules we have to follow never seem very clear.  | .827                   |
| B68                        | The rules are clear enough that I know what to do.  | .706                   |
| B73                        | The problem in this profession is no one knows what the other is doing.                             | .642                   |
| B75                        | You don't know from day to day what the Administration expects.                                     | .796                   |
| Cronbach's Alpha           |   | .828                   |

**Table 5.1 continued**

| <b>Work Stress</b> |   | <b>Factor Loadings</b> |
|--------------------|---|------------------------|
| B6                 | When I'm at work I'm often feel tense or uptight.                                   | .829                   |
| B24                | I usually feel that I'm under a lot of pressure when I'm at work.                   | .827                   |
| B59                | A lot of times, my job makes me very frustrated or angry.                           | .807                   |
| B64                | I'm usually calm and at ease when I'm working.                                      | .724                   |
| B69                | There are a lot of aspects about my job that can make me pretty upset about things. | .658                   |
| Cronbach's Alpha   |   | .829                   |

**Correctional Orientation and Social Distance****Correctional Orientation**

|                  |  |      |
|------------------|--|------|
| B16              | To cure the crime problem, we must make an effort to rehabilitate offenders. | .583 |
| B19              | Rehabilitation allows criminals off too easy.                                | .738 |
| B21              | Rehabilitation is as important a crime retribution.                          | .601 |
| B23              | Rehabilitation has proven to be a failure.                                   | .746 |
| B30              | To reduce crime in our society, we must punish, not rehabilitate.            | .825 |
| B45              | Rehabilitation makes offenders better citizens when released.                | .627 |
| B55              | Rehabilitation of adults does not work.                                      | .779 |
| B74              | A criminal should be punished first, then we can worry about reform.         | .705 |
| Cronbach's Alpha |  | .847 |

**Social Distance****Professional Distance**

|                  |  |      |
|------------------|--|------|
| B26              | A good principle is not to get too close to offenders.                         | .845 |
| B51              | You can't perform your job correctly when you are too friendly with offenders. | .845 |
| Cronbach's Alpha |  | .600 |

**Table 5.1 continued**

| <b>Bogardus Distance</b>          |   | <b>Factor Loadings</b> |
|-----------------------------------|---|------------------------|
| B36                               | Only a few offenders are trouble makers, where most offenders are decent people to supervise.                           | .752                   |
| B60                               | To make a difference in an offender's life, staff members must get to understand and respect offenders as human beings. | .480                   |
| B67                               | It is bad enough that I have to work with offenders, but one living in my community is unacceptable.                    | .524                   |
| B76                               | Offenders are much like the people I knew in school.  | .691                   |
| Cronbach's Alpha                  |   | .464                   |
| <b>Attitudes toward Job Scale</b> |   |                        |
| Job Satisfaction                  |   | .906                   |
| Supervisory Support               |   | .897                   |
| Role Conflict                     |   | .889                   |
| Cronbach's Alpha                  |   | .879                   |

used in assessing findings regarding the social distance and self-efficacy scales, especially professional social distance.

In addition to the above, subsequent OLS regression of the social distance and correctional orientation scales on importation, prisonization, and attitudinal variables revealed a problem with multicollinearity among several of the attitudinal variables. Additional principal components analysis found role conflict, job satisfaction, and supervisory support tapped into the same concept of employee satisfaction in their work environment. A new scale was created combining these three concepts into a new variable labeled "attitudes toward job." The reliability of this new scale was found to be satisfactory ( $\alpha = .879$ ).

## **Regression Analysis**

Several regressions were performed involving the importation, prisonization, attitudinal, social distance, correctional orientation, and punitive measure variables. Tolerance levels were generally acceptable throughout at .612 and above, and variance inflation factors were less than 1.654, except for the attitudes toward job variable in the correctional orientation/distance measures (VIF= 2.671). As noted above, this variable was a combination of role conflict, supervisory support, and job satisfaction into the *attitudes toward job* variable to reduce the problem of multicollinearity in the earlier regressions. These results suggest that multicollinearity is not a problem in the regression analyses.

Table 5.2 presents the results of the regression of peer support on the importation and prisonization variables. The first equation shows that none of the importation variables have a statistically significant effect on correctional workers' perceptions of peer support in the workplace. The second equation reveals that the only prisonization variable that has a statistically significant impact on perceptions of peer support is perception of danger ( $b = -.263, p > .000$ ). Correctional workers who perceive their working environment to be dangerous are significantly less likely to feel that they have the support of their peers while on the job. Finally, when both importation and prisonization variables are entered into the equation (equation three), only perception of danger has a statistically significant, negative effect on perceptions of peer support (equation three;  $b = -.253, p < .000$ ).

**Table 5.2 Regression of Peer Support on Importation and Prisonization Variables<sup>†</sup>**

| <b>Independent Variables</b> | <b>Importation Only</b> | <b>Prisonization Only</b> | <b>Importation &amp; Prisonization</b> |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Initial                      | .003                    |                           | .001                                   |
| Age                          | (.007)                  |                           | (.007)                                 |
| Gender                       | .258                    |                           | .194                                   |
| Males=1                      | (.171)                  |                           | (.178)                                 |
| Race                         | .050                    |                           | -.091                                  |
| White=1                      | (.228)                  |                           | (.233)                                 |
| Educational Attainment       | -.002                   |                           | -.009                                  |
|                              | (.033)                  |                           | (.037)                                 |
| Prior C. J. Experience=1     | -.081                   |                           | -.045                                  |
|                              | (.157)                  |                           | (.159)                                 |
| Big City Origins=1           | .194                    |                           | .183                                   |
|                              | (.254)                  |                           | (.257)                                 |
| Facility                     |                         | -.136                     | -.155                                  |
| Maximum=1                    |                         | (.167)                    | (.176)                                 |
| High Custody Assignment=1    |                         | -.098                     | -.142                                  |
|                              |                         | (.225)                    | (.236)                                 |
| Contact Hours Per Week       |                         | .000                      | -.002                                  |
|                              |                         | (.006)                    | (.006)                                 |
| Custody Staff Member=1       |                         | .115                      | .084                                   |
|                              |                         | (.147)                    | (.174)                                 |
| AM/Day Shift=1               |                         | -.064                     | -.070                                  |
|                              |                         | (.185)                    | (.194)                                 |
| Months in Corrections        |                         | .001                      | .001                                   |
|                              |                         | (.001)                    | (.001)                                 |
| Perception of Danger         |                         | -.263***                  | -.253***                               |
|                              |                         | (.072)                    | (.076)                                 |
| Constant                     | -.303                   | -.070                     | .066                                   |
|                              | (.526)                  | (.245)                    | (.708)                                 |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>      | .000                    | .054                      | .033                                   |

<sup>†</sup>Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses.

Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

Table 5.2 also shows that importation and prisonization variables explain very little of the variation in peer support. The adjusted  $R^2$  indicates that only 3.3 percent of the variation in perceptions of peer support is explained by the importation and prisonization variables.

Support between correctional staff members has been seen as parallel to the social distance between correctional staff members and offenders (Poole and Regoli, 1981). Based on the findings in Table 5.2, the fear staff members may perceive while working in a correctional environment is connected to the level of support they feel they receive from their fellow correctional employees. However, it would be logical to also expect significant effects of importation and prisonization variables on peer support as in the VanVoorhis et al. (1991) study which found that race, maximum-security assignment, and age had statistically significant effects on peer support. This is not the case in the present study. Apparently the perceptions of peer support among participants in this study are not significantly influenced by most prisonization variables and importation factors. Either new correctional workers have learned to operate more independently of their fellow workers, or other variables not included in this study are the significant predictors of peer support.

Table 5.3 presents the results of the regression of participation in decision making on the importation and prisonization variables. The first equation including importation variables shows initial age at employment ( $b = -.012$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and growing up in a big city ( $b = .503$ ,  $p < .05$ ) have statistically significant effects on participation in decision making in the workplace. This indicates those who began their careers in corrections at a

younger age, and those growing up in a big city have significantly higher scores on the participation in decision making scale. The second equation in Table 5.3 that includes the prisonization variables reveals those with fewer contact hours per week with offenders ( $b = -.011$ ,  $p < .05$ ), non-custodial staff members ( $b = -.352$ ,  $p < .01$ ), AM/Day shift workers ( $b = .374$ ,  $p < .05$ ), and those with more experience in corrections ( $b = .002$ ,  $p < .05$ ) have statistically significant higher scores on the participation in decision making attitude scale. The connection between fewer contact hours and non-custodial staff members was expected, since custodial staff members must maintain continuous contact with offenders due to the nature of their correctional employment. On the other hand, non-custodial employees have a greater tendency to work more hours away from the offender population, and thus are more likely to interact with higher-ranking correctional employees. Higher participation in decision making scores with employment longevity were also expected since the opinions of novices in corrections often are given little credence until such workers have "paid their dues."

Finally, when both importation and prisonization variables are entered into the regression, staff members who began their careers in corrections at a younger age ( $b = -.013$ ,  $p < .05$ ), grew up in a large city ( $b = .503$ ,  $p < .05$ ), had fewer contact hours with offenders per week ( $b = -.014$ ,  $p < .01$ ), were non-custodial staff members ( $b = -.445$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and worked AM/Day shift ( $b = .345$ ,  $p < .05$ ) have significantly higher scores on the participation in decision making scale. This indicates these workers feel they have more influence over day-to-day operations in their correctional facilities.



**Table 5.3 Regression of Participation in Decision Making on Importation and Prisonization Variables†**

| <b>Independent Variables</b> | <b>Importation Only</b> | <b>Prisonization Only</b> | <b>Importation &amp; Prisonization</b> |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Initial                      | -.012*                  |                           | -.013*                                 |
| Age                          | (.006)                  |                           | (.007)                                 |
| Gender                       | -.144                   |                           | -.077                                  |
| Males=1                      | (.168)                  |                           | (.170)                                 |
| Race                         | .084                    |                           | -.031                                  |
| White=1                      | (.225)                  |                           | (.223)                                 |
| Educational Attainment       | .039                    |                           | -.032                                  |
|                              | (.033)                  |                           | (.036)                                 |
| Prior C. J. Experience=1     | .029                    |                           | -.046                                  |
|                              | (.156)                  |                           | (.153)                                 |
| Big City Origins=1           | .503*                   |                           | .503*                                  |
|                              | (.251)                  |                           | (.246)                                 |
| Facility Maximum=1           |                         | -.201                     | -.136                                  |
|                              |                         | (.163)                    | (.168)                                 |
| High Custody Assignment=1    |                         | -.026                     | -.147                                  |
|                              |                         | (.221)                    | (.226)                                 |
| Contact Hours Per Week       |                         | -.011*                    | -.014**                                |
|                              |                         | (.005)                    | (.006)                                 |
| Custody Staff Member=1       |                         | -.352**                   | -.445**                                |
|                              |                         | (.144)                    | (.166)                                 |
| AM/Day Shift=1               |                         | .374*                     | .345*                                  |
|                              |                         | (.179)                    | (.184)                                 |
| Months in Corrections        |                         | .002*                     | .001                                   |
|                              |                         | (.001)                    | (.001)                                 |
| Perception of Danger         |                         | -.018                     | -.045                                  |
|                              |                         | (.071)                    | (.073)                                 |
| Constant                     | -.152                   | .150                      | 1.319*                                 |
|                              | (.530)                  | (.240)                    | (.672)                                 |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>      | .013                    | .093                      | .109                                   |

†Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses.

Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

The importation and prisonization variables explain a limited portion of the variance in participation in decision making. The adjusted  $R^2$  indicates that 10.9 percent of the variation in participation in decision making attitudes is explained by importation and prisonization variables. The standardized coefficients for this regression show that custody position has the strongest impact on participation in decision making ( $\beta = -.226$ ), followed by hours of contact per week, big city origins, and AM/Day shift ( $\beta$ 's =  $-.185$ ,  $.145$ , and  $.144$ , respectively).

Staff member variables were expected to influence participation in decision making, especially months employed, gender, educational attainment, and race of the staff member (Jurik and Halemba, 1984). Likewise, it was expected that work role/prisonization variables should have had an impact on participation in decision making. The findings in Table 5.3 therefore offer some support for the significant impact of prisonization variables on participation in decision making, while providing less support for the effect of importation variables.

Table 5.4 presents the results of the regression of self-efficacy on the importation and prisonization variables. The first equation reveals that educational attainment ( $b = .082$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and prior criminal justice/military experience ( $b = .396$ ,  $p < .01$ ) have statistically significant impacts on staff member attitudes concerning self-efficacy. Those who perceive their role as having a greater impact on changing the lives of the offenders have attained more education, and those with prior criminal justice/military experience have more positive attitudes toward changing offender behavior. The second equation shows that none of the prisonization variables have a statistically significant

effect on self-efficacy. Finally, when both importation and prisonization variables are entered into the regression (equation three), educational attainment ( $b = .075, p < .05$ ), prior criminal justice/military experience ( $b = .414, p < .01$ ), and number of hours of contact per week ( $b = .009, p < .05$ ) have statistically significant, positive effects on self-efficacy with respect to making a difference with offenders.

The regression of self-efficacy on importation and prisonization variables explains only a small portion of the variance. The adjusted  $R^2$  indicates that 5.5 percent of the variation in self-efficacy is explained by the importation and prisonization variables. The standardized coefficients show that prior criminal justice/military experience has the strongest effect on self-efficacy ( $\beta = .209$ ), followed by educational attainment and contact hours per week ( $\beta = .170$  and  $.125$ , respectively).

It was expected that increased offender contact and perception of danger would have significant negative effects on staff member self-efficacy. Gerstein et al. (1987) found these prisonization variables had a negative impact on their measure of self-efficacy, although this effect was not significant. The positive influence of offender contact on self-efficacy may have been influenced by the inclusion of non-traditional correctional staff members in this study (e.g., food service, maintenance, and recreation workers). Where normal treatment staff members may become disillusioned by prolonged offender contact finding their ideals to change offender behavior is faulty, other non-custodial staff members may feel they are creating change in offenders by teaching good work habits and marketable skills, etc.

**Table 5.4 Regression of Self-Efficacy on Importation and Prisonization Variables<sup>†</sup>**

| <b>Independent Variables</b> | <b>Importation Only</b> | <b>Prisonization Only</b> | <b>Importation &amp; Prisonization</b> |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Initial                      | .002                    |                           | .005                                   |
| Age                          | (.006)                  |                           | (.007)                                 |
| Gender                       | -.076                   |                           | -.167                                  |
| Males=1                      | (.165)                  |                           | (.175)                                 |
| Race                         | -.258                   |                           | -.334                                  |
| White=1                      | (.221)                  |                           | (.229)                                 |
| Educational Attainment       | .082**                  |                           | .075*                                  |
|                              | (.032)                  |                           | (.036)                                 |
| Prior C. J. Experience=1     | .396**                  |                           | .414**                                 |
|                              | (.152)                  |                           | (.156)                                 |
| Big City Origins=1           | .314                    |                           | .165                                   |
|                              | (.246)                  |                           | (.252)                                 |
| Facility Maximum=1           |                         | -.011                     | -.073                                  |
|                              |                         | (.169)                    | (.172)                                 |
| High Custody Assignment=1    |                         | .134                      | .188                                   |
|                              |                         | (.225)                    | (.226)                                 |
| Contact Hours Per Week       |                         | .007                      | .009*                                  |
|                              |                         | (.006)                    | (.006)                                 |
| Custody Staff Member=1       |                         | -.191                     | -.045                                  |
|                              |                         | (.149)                    | (.169)                                 |
| AM/Day Shift=1               |                         | .292                      | .284                                   |
|                              |                         | (.184)                    | (.186)                                 |
| Months in Corrections        |                         | .000                      | .001                                   |
|                              |                         | (.001)                    | (.001)                                 |
| Perception of Danger         |                         | -.035                     | -.047                                  |
|                              |                         | (.073)                    | (.074)                                 |
| Constant                     | 1.177*                  | -.392                     | -1.597**                               |
|                              | (.510)                  | (.247)                    | (.684)                                 |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>      | .048                    | .011                      | .055                                   |

<sup>†</sup>Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses.

Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

Table 5.5 presents the results of the regression of work stress on the importation and prisonization variables. The first equation indicates that correctional employees who began their careers in corrections at younger ages ( $b = -.011$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and whose origins were other than large cities ( $b = -.703$ ,  $p < .01$ ) have significantly higher work stress scores. The second equation reveals that the only prisonization variable that has a statistically significant impact on work stress attitudes is perception of danger ( $b = .419$ ,  $p < .000$ ). Correctional staff members who perceive their working environment as dangerous are significantly more likely to report high levels of work-related stress. Finally, when both importation and prisonization variables are entered into the regression (equation three), origins from other than large cities ( $b = -.638$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and perception of danger ( $b = .399$ ,  $p < .000$ ) are the only variables that have statistically significant effects on work stress.

Importation and prisonization variables explain nearly one-fifth of the variance in work stress. The adjusted  $R^2$  indicates that 17.9 percent of the variation in work stress is explained by the importation and prisonization variables. The standardized coefficients reveal that perception of danger had the strongest impact on work stress ( $\beta = .400$ ), followed by big city origins ( $\beta = -.181$ ).

**Table 5.5 Regression of Work Stress on Importation and Prisonization Variables<sup>†</sup>**

| <b>Independent Variables</b> | <b>Importation Only</b> | <b>Prisonization Only</b> | <b>Importation &amp; Prisonization</b> |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Initial                      | -.011*                  |                           | -.010                                  |
| Age                          | (.006)                  |                           | (.006)                                 |
| Gender                       | -.232                   |                           | -.052                                  |
| Males=1                      | (.165)                  |                           | (.165)                                 |
| Race                         | .076                    |                           | .189                                   |
| White=1                      | (.223)                  |                           | (.217)                                 |
| Educational Attainment       | -.045                   |                           | -.029                                  |
|                              | (.032)                  |                           | (.034)                                 |
| Prior C. J. Experience=1     | .026                    |                           | -.058                                  |
|                              | (.154)                  |                           | (.149)                                 |
| Big City Origins=1           | -.703**                 |                           | -.638**                                |
|                              | (.248)                  |                           | (.238)                                 |
| Facility Maximum=1           |                         | -.145                     | -.092                                  |
|                              |                         | (.159)                    | (.163)                                 |
| High Custody Assignment=1    |                         | -.117                     | -.085                                  |
|                              |                         | (.215)                    | (.218)                                 |
| Contact Hours Per Week       |                         | -.001                     | .000                                   |
|                              |                         | (.005)                    | (.005)                                 |
| Custody Staff Member=1       |                         | -.022                     | -.133                                  |
|                              |                         | (.140)                    | (.160)                                 |
| AM/Day Shift=1               |                         | .001                      | -.027                                  |
|                              |                         | (.174)                    | (.178)                                 |
| Months in Corrections        |                         | -.001                     | -.001                                  |
|                              |                         | (.001)                    | (.001)                                 |
| Perception of Danger         |                         | .419***                   | .399***                                |
|                              |                         | (.069)                    | (.070)                                 |
| Constant                     | 1.196**                 | .204                      | .961                                   |
|                              | (.514)                  | (.232)                    | (.645)                                 |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>      | .053                    | .148                      | .179                                   |

<sup>†</sup>Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses.

Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

These findings suggest that working in a correctional environment is more stressful for staff members who were raised in environments other than a large city. Further, there is a significant relationship between work stress and perception of danger. In past research, Gerstein et al. (1987) found a significant negative effect of work stress on attitudes toward offenders, VanVoorhis et al. (1991) found that having a maximum security assignment had a significant positive effect on work stress, while Cullen et al. (1985) found that educational attainment had a significant negative effect on work-related stress and perceptions of danger had a significant positive effect on work-related stress. Thus, past research has indicated prisonization variables are better at predicting work stress than importation variables. In the present study, only limited support is found for the impact of prisonization variables on work stress. It is possible that other prisonization variables not included in this study may have more influence on work-related stress.

Table 5.6 presents the results of the regression of attitudes toward job on importation and prisonization variables. The first equation shows that most importation variables are statistically significant. As age at initial employment ( $b = .012, p < .05$ ) and educational attainment increase ( $b = .071, p < .05$ ), positive attitudes toward job are significantly higher. Further, male staff members ( $b = .357, p < .05$ ), nonwhite staff members ( $b = -.475, p < .05$ ), and those whose origins were from large cities ( $b = .445, p < .05$ ) had significantly higher scores on the attitudes toward job scale. The second equation reveals the only prisonization variable that has a statistically significant impact on attitudes toward job is perception of danger ( $b = -.300, p < .000$ ). Correctional staff

members who perceive their working environment as dangerous are significantly less likely to have positive attitudes toward their jobs. Finally, when both importation and prisonization variables are entered into the regression (equation three), those who began their careers in corrections at older ages ( $b = .012$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and nonwhite staff members ( $b = -.628$ ,  $p < .01$ ) have significantly higher scores on attitudes toward job, while perception of danger ( $b = -.275$ ,  $p < .000$ ) has a statistically significant, negative effect on attitudes toward job. Correctional staff members who perceive their working environment to be dangerous are significantly less likely to possess positive attitudes toward their jobs, while those who began working in corrections at older ages and nonwhite staff members are more likely to have positive attitudes toward their jobs.

Table 5.6 shows that the importation and prisonization variables explain a modest amount of the variation in attitudes toward job. The adjusted  $R^2$  indicates that 15.5% of the variation in attitudes toward job is explained by the importation and prisonization variables. The standardized coefficients for this regression indicate that perception of danger has the strongest effect on attitudes toward job ( $\beta = -.275$ ), followed by race of the staff member and initial age at employment in corrections ( $\beta = -.199$  and  $.141$  respectively).



**Table 5.6 Regression of Attitudes toward Job on Importation and Prisonization Variables†**

| <b>Independent Variables</b> | <b>Importation Only</b> | <b>Prisonization Only</b> | <b>Importation &amp; Prisonization</b> |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Initial                      | .012*                   |                           | .012*                                  |
| Age                          | (.006)                  |                           | (.006)                                 |
| Gender                       | .357*                   |                           | .242                                   |
| Males=1                      | (.165)                  |                           | (.167)                                 |
| Race                         | -.475*                  |                           | -.628**                                |
| White=1                      | (.220)                  |                           | (.220)                                 |
| Educational Attainment       | .071*                   |                           | .040                                   |
|                              | (.032)                  |                           | (.034)                                 |
| Prior C. J. Experience=1     | -.112                   |                           | -.075                                  |
|                              | (.152)                  |                           | (.150)                                 |
| Big City Origins=1           | .445*                   |                           | .391                                   |
|                              | (.246)                  |                           | (.242)                                 |
| Facility Maximum=1           |                         | .093                      | -.057                                  |
|                              |                         | (.163)                    | (.165)                                 |
| High Custody Assignment=1    |                         | .089                      | .040                                   |
|                              |                         | (.221)                    | (.221)                                 |
| Contact Hours Per Week       |                         | -.004                     | -.006                                  |
|                              |                         | (.005)                    | (.005)                                 |
| Custody Staff Member=1       |                         | -.198                     | -.067                                  |
|                              |                         | (.144)                    | (.162)                                 |
| AM/Day Shift=1               |                         | .118                      | .206                                   |
|                              |                         | (.179)                    | (.181)                                 |
| Months in Corrections        |                         | .001                      | .001                                   |
|                              |                         | (.001)                    | (.001)                                 |
| Perception of Danger         |                         | -.300***                  | -.275***                               |
|                              |                         | (.071)                    | (.071)                                 |
| Constant                     | 1.273**                 | -.021                     | -.696                                  |
|                              | (.509)                  | (.238)                    | (.655)                                 |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>      | .075                    | .102                      | .155                                   |

†Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses.  
Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

Jurik and Halemba (1984) found age and job satisfaction were not significant predictors of attitudes toward supervisors, while Jurik et al. (1987) found age did not have a significant effect on attitudes toward supervisors. VanVoorhis (1991) found several importation and prisonization variables had significant impacts on job satisfaction and supervisory support. VanVoorhis found non-whites, those with more education, and those working the night shift were significantly more dissatisfied with their jobs. Further, they found female staff members had significantly lower supervisory support scores compared to their male counterparts, while finding no importation and prisonization variables had statistically significant effects on role conflict. The findings here offer some support for the influence of importation variables on attitudes toward job with those who were older when taking their first job in corrections and non-white staff members having better attitudes toward their jobs. The significant effect of age at entry into corrections employment was expected, but the effect of race of the staff member was in the opposite direction of what was anticipated. Likewise, the only prisonization variable that has a significant impact on attitudes toward job is perception of danger, and the relationship is in the predicted negative direction.

Table 5.7 presents the results of the regression of correctional orientation on the importation and prisonization variables, and the intervening workplace attitude variables. Equation three, which includes the importation and prisonization variables, shows that workers who began their careers in corrections at younger ages ( $b = -.020$ ,  $p < .01$ ), white staff members ( $b = .516$ ,  $p < .01$ ), those with lower levels of education ( $b = -.075$ ,  $p < .05$ ), those from origins other than large cities ( $b = -.428$ ,  $p < .05$ ), those with fewer months of

employment in corrections ( $b = -.002, p < .01$ ), and those who perceived their working environment as dangerous ( $b = .157, p < .05$ ) have significantly higher scores on the correctional orientation scale. This indicates that these workers are more punitive/correctional, rather than rehabilitative, in their orientation toward their work with offenders.

The effects of race, educational attainment, big city origins, and perception of danger become nonsignificant once worker attitudes are added to the regression (see equation four), while the influence of gender becomes statistically significant ( $b = .308, p < .05$ ), with males having higher correctional orientations toward their work environment than their female counterparts. In addition, high levels of self-efficacy ( $b = -.274, p < .000$ ), those with more months of employment in corrections ( $b = -.002, p < .01$ ), and positive attitudes toward their jobs ( $b = -.304, p < .01$ ) have significantly lower correctional orientation scores, while participation in decision making and work stress fail to exert significant effects on correctional orientation.

Taken together, the importation, prisonization, and attitudinal variables explain nearly one-third of the variation in correctional orientation scores. The adjusted  $R^2$  in equation three shows that importation and prisonization variables account for 13.8 percent of the variation in correctional orientation scores, while equation four reveals that the addition of the attitudinal variables increases the explained variance to 29.2 percent. The standardized coefficients for this regression show that attitudes toward job has the strongest direct effect on correctional orientation ( $\beta = -.306$ ), followed by self-efficacy, months in corrections, age at initial employment in corrections, and gender

**Table 5.7 Regression of Correctional Orientation on Importation, Prisonization, and Workplace Attitudes Variables†**

| <b>Independent Variables</b> | <b>Importation Only</b> | <b>Prisonization Only</b> | <b>Importation &amp; Prisonization</b> | <b>Importation/Prisonization &amp; Workplace Attitudes</b> |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--|--|
| Initial Age                  | -.017**<br>(.006)       |                           | -.020**<br>(.007)                      | -.016**<br>(.006)  |
| Gender Males=1               | .105<br>(.161)          |                           | .251<br>(.169)                         | .308*<br>(.156)  |
| Race White=1                 | .424*<br>(.216)         |                           | .516**<br>(.222)                       | .214<br>(.209)   |
| Educational Attainment       | -.085**<br>(.032)       |                           | -.075*<br>(.035)                       | -.029<br>(.034)  |
| Prior C. J. Experience=1     | .012<br>(.150)          |                           | .000<br>(.152)                         | .077<br>(.144)   |
| Big City Origins=1           | -.545*<br>(.241)        |                           | -.428*<br>(.245)                       | -.255<br>(.229)  |
| Facility Maximum=1           |                         | -.055<br>(.170)           | .081<br>(.167)                         | .074<br>(.155)   |
| High Custody Assignment=1    |                         | .153<br>(.230)            | .102<br>(.224)                         | .050<br>(.217)   |
| Contact Hours Per Week       |                         | -.006<br>(.006)           | -.006<br>(.006)                        | -.006<br>(.005)  |
| Custody Staff Member=1       |                         | .225<br>(.150)            | -.089<br>(.164)                        | -.051<br>(.158)  |

Table 5.7—Continued

| Independent Variables            | Importation Only  | Prisonization Only | Importation & Prisonization | Importation/Prisonization & Workplace Attitudes |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| AM/Day Shift=1                   |                   | -.014<br>(.184)    | -.171<br>(.180)             | .073<br>(.175)                                  |
| Months in Corrections            |                   | -.001<br>(.001)    | -.002**<br>(.001)           | -.002**<br>(.001)                               |
| Perception of Danger             |                   | .183**<br>(.074)   | .157*<br>(.073)             | .064<br>(.073)                                  |
| Peer Support                     |                   |                    |                             | -.001<br>(.080)                                 |
| Participation In Decision Making |                   |                    |                             | .008<br>(.085)                                  |
| Self Efficacy                    |                   |                    |                             | -.274***<br>(.070)                              |
| Work Stress                      |                   |                    |                             | -.003<br>(.083)                                 |
| Attitudes toward Job             |                   |                    |                             | -.304**<br>(.100)                               |
| Constant                         | 1.440**<br>(.508) | .195<br>(.250)     | 1.773**<br>(.662)           | .888<br>(.656)                                  |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>          | .106              | .038               | .138                        | .292  |

† Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses.  
 Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

( $\beta = -.271, -.197, -.183, \text{ and } .144$ , respectively).

Thus, as anticipated by the hypothesized model, many of the total causal effects of importation and prisonization variables on correctional orientation are mediated by their influence on correctional staff members attitudes, while some of the attitudinal variables have significant direct effects on correctional orientation. Further, the effects of age at initial employment, gender, months employed in corrections, self-efficacy attitudes, and attitudes toward job are in the hypothesized directions. In comparison to previous research, Whitehead and Lindquist (1989) included many of the same variables in their study. The findings in Table 5.7 are similar to those in the Whitehead and Lindquist study in regards to initial age at employment, race, educational attainment, and facility security level. However, the findings for participation in decision making, AM/Day shift worked, attitudes toward job, and months in corrections are not consistent with the findings in the Whitehead and Lindquist study.

Table 5.8 presents the results of the regression of Bogardus social distance on the importation, prisonization and staff member attitude variables. Equation three, which includes the importation and prisonization variables, shows that those staff members who began their careers in corrections at younger ages ( $b = -.015, p < .05$ ), those without prior criminal justice/military experience ( $b = -.439, p < .01$ ), those with fewer contact hours per week with offenders ( $b = -.010, p < .05$ ), those working AM/Day shift ( $b = .335, p < .05$ ), and those with higher perceptions of danger ( $b = .202, p < .01$ ) have significantly higher scores on the Bogardus social distance scale. This indicates these staff members

**Table 5.8 Regression of Bogardus Social Distance on Importation, Prisonization, and Workplace Attitudes Variables†**

| <b>Independent Variables</b> | <b>Importation Only</b> | <b>Prisonization Only</b> | <b>Importation &amp; Prisonization</b> | <b>Importation/Prisonization &amp; Workplace Attitudes</b> |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--|--|
| Initial Age                  | -.016**<br>(.006)       |                           | -.015*<br>(.007)                       | -.010<br>(.007)  |
| Gender Males=1               | -.009<br>(.166)         |                           | .117<br>(.172)                         | .085<br>(.165)   |
| Race White=1                 | .261<br>(.222)          |                           | .223<br>(.226)                         | .083<br>(.221)   |
| Educational Attainment       | -.049<br>(.032)         |                           | -.048<br>(.035)                        | .009<br>(.036)   |
| Prior C. J. Experience=1     | -.353**<br>(.152)       |                           | -.439**<br>(.154)                      | -.261*<br>(.152)   |
| Big City Origins=1           | .129<br>(.248)          |                           | .192<br>(.249)                         | .267<br>(.242)   |
| Facility Maximum=1           |                         | -.210<br>(.169)           | -.126<br>(.171)                        | -.096<br>(.166)  |
| High Custody Assignment=1    |                         | .103<br>(.224)            | -.034<br>(.223)                        | .065<br>(.229)   |
| Contact Hours Per Week       |                         | -.007<br>(.006)           | -.010*<br>(.006)                       | -.005<br>(.006)  |
| Custody Staff Member=1       |                         | .063<br>(.149)            | -.052<br>(.167)                        | .073<br>(.167)   |

Table 5.8—Continued

| Independent Variables            | Importation Only  | Prisonization Only | Importation & Prisonization | Importation/Prisonization & Workplace Attitudes |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| AM/Day Shift=1                   |                   | .337*<br>(.183)    | .335*<br>(.184)             | .488**<br>(.185)                                |
| Months in Corrections            |                   | .000<br>(.001)     | -.001<br>(.001)             | -.001<br>(.001)                                 |
| Perception of Danger             |                   | .203**<br>(.073)   | .202**<br>(.074)            | .187**<br>(.078)                                |
| Peer Support                     |                   |                    |                             | .125<br>(.084)                                  |
| Participation In Decision Making |                   |                    |                             | .075<br>(.090)                                  |
| Self Efficacy                    |                   |                    |                             | -.335***<br>(.074)                              |
| Work Stress                      |                   |                    |                             | .131<br>(.088)                                  |
| Attitudes toward Job             |                   |                    |                             | -.029<br>(.105)                                 |
| Constant                         | 1.218**<br>(.512) | .017<br>(.245)     | 1.362*<br>(.674)            | .066<br>(.692)                                  |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>          | .059              | .027               | .084                        | .186  |

†Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses.  
 Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000



view offenders as more socially different from themselves and express attitudes of greater social distance.

The effects of age at the onset of the correctional career and contact hours per week become nonsignificant once the attitudinal variables are added to the regression (see equation four). Those having prior criminal justice/military experience ( $b = -.261$ ,  $p < .05$ ), and those with higher self-efficacy attitudes ( $b = -.335$ ,  $p < .000$ ) have significantly lower Bogardus social distance attitudes, while those who worked the AM/Day shift ( $b = .488$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and had high perceptions of danger ( $b = .187$ ,  $p < .01$ ) have significantly higher Bogardus social distance scores.

The regression of Bogardus social distance on importation, prisonization, and attitudinal variables explains nearly one-fifth of the variance. The adjusted  $R^2$  in equation three shows that importation and prisonization variables account for 8.4 percent of the variation in Bogardus social distance scores, while equation four reveals the addition of the attitudinal variables increases the explained variance to 18.6 percent. The standardized coefficients in this regression show that self-efficacy has the strongest influence on Bogardus social distance ( $\beta = -.336$ ), followed by working on the AM/Day shift, perception of danger, and prior criminal justice/military experience ( $\beta = .203$ ,  $.191$ , and  $-.132$ , respectively).

Again, as anticipated by the hypothesized model, many of the total causal effects of importation and prisonization variables on Bogardus social distance are mediated by their influence on staff member attitudes, while some of the attitudinal variables have

significant direct effects on Bogardus social distance. Since social distance is separated into two types—Bogardus and professional—it is more difficult to make a comparison with findings from past research. However, based on findings in Whitehead and Lindquist (1989), age at initial employment, facility security level, AM/Day shift, and months in corrections are consistent with the earlier study. On the other hand, race of the staff member and educational attainment were inconsistent with the findings in Whitehead and Lindquist. As noted earlier, this may be due to use of two separate measures of social distance.

Table 5.9 presents the results of the regression of professional social distance on the importation, prisonization, and staff member attitudinal variables. Equation three, which includes the importation and prisonization variables, shows only perceptions of the workplace as dangerous ( $b = .201, p < .01$ ) has a statistically significant effect on professional social distance. This indicates those staff members who perceived their working environment to be more dangerous preferred to maintain greater distance from offenders than those who did not see their workplace as dangerous.

When adding staff member attitudes to the equation (see equation four), perception of danger remains significant ( $b = .210, p < .001$ ) and self-efficacy also is statistically significant ( $b = -.164, p < .05$ ). This suggests that those who perceive their working environment to be dangerous are more likely to support remaining socially distant from offenders, while those who view themselves as making a difference with offenders have significantly lower scores on the professional social distance scale.

**Table 5.9 Regression of Professional Social Distance on Importation, Prisonization, and Workplace Attitudes Variables<sup>†</sup>**

| Independent Variables     | Importation Only | Prisonization Only | Importation & Prisonization | Importation/Prisonization & Workplace Attitudes |
|---------------------------|------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| Initial                   | -.005            |                    | -.003                       | -.003   |
| Age                       | (.006)           |                    | (.007)                      | (.008)  |
| Gender                    | -.153            |                    | -.089                       | -.098   |
| Males=1                   | (.170)           |                    | (.183)                      | (.184)  |
| Race                      | .094             |                    | .205                        | .172  |
| White=1                   | (.229)           |                    | (.238)                      | (.245)  |
| Educational Attainment    | -.044            |                    | -.043                       | -.031   |
|                           | (.033)           |                    | (.037)                      | (.039)  |
| Prior C. J. Experience=1  | -.213            |                    | -.267                       | -.157   |
|                           | (.157)           |                    | (.162)                      | (.168)  |
| Big City Origins=1        | -.029            |                    | -.006                       | -.055   |
|                           | (.262)           |                    | (.269)                      | (.275)  |
| Facility Maximum=1        |                  | -.010              | .046                        | .014  |
|                           |                  | (.172)             | (.179)                      | (.183)  |
| High Custody Assignment=1 |                  | .267               | .241                        | .195  |
|                           |                  | (.228)             | (.235)                      | (.254)  |
| Contact Hours Per Week    |                  | -.006              | -.007                       | -.003   |
|                           |                  | (.006)             | (.006)                      | (.006)  |
| Custody Staff Member=1    |                  | -.017              | -.059                       | -.071   |
|                           |                  | (.152)             | (.177)                      | (.186)  |

Table 5.9—Continued

| Independent Variables            | Importation Only | Prisonization Only | Importation & Prisonization | Importation/Prisonization & Workplace Attitudes |
|----------------------------------|------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| AM/Day Shift=1                   |                  | -.007<br>(.187)    | .031<br>(.193)              | -.078<br>(.205)                                 |
| Months in Corrections            |                  | .000<br>(.001)     | .000<br>(.001)              | -.001<br>(.001)                                 |
| Perception of Danger             |                  | .201**<br>(.074)   | .201**<br>(.077)            | .210**<br>(.085)                                |
| Peer Support                     |                  |                    |                             | -.069<br>(.093)                                 |
| Participation In Decision Making |                  |                    |                             | .122<br>(.099)                                  |
| Self Efficacy                    |                  |                    |                             | -.164*<br>(.082)                                |
| Work Stress                      |                  |                    |                             | -.085<br>(.097)                                 |
| Attitudes toward Job             |                  |                    |                             | .000<br>(.117)                                  |
| Constant                         | .951*<br>(.527)  | .174<br>(.251)     | .913<br>(.710)              | .768<br>(.769)                                  |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>          | .004             | .017               | .019                        | .020  |

†Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses.

Tests are one-tailed: \*p&lt;.05, \*\*p&lt;.01, \*\*\*p&lt;.000

The importation, prisonization, and staff member attitudinal variables explain a very limited portion of the variance in the regression. The adjusted  $R^2$  in equation three shows that importation and prisonization variables account for 1.9 percent of the variation in professional social distance scores, while equation four reveals that the addition of the attitudinal variables increases the explained variance only slightly to 2.0 percent. The standardized coefficients for this regression show that perception of danger has the strongest effect on professional social distance ( $\beta = .212$ ), while self-efficacy has somewhat less of an impact ( $\beta = -.163$ ).

In this model, none of the importation variables have a significant impact on professional social distance, while only the perception of danger among the prisonization variables has a significant total causal effect that is not substantially mediated by the attitudinal variables. Among the attitudinal variables, only self-efficacy has a significant direct effect on professional social distance. Past research (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Toch and Klofas, 1982; Cullen et al., 1989) suggests that more of the effects of these variables should have been statistically significant. The lack of significant findings may be due to the two-item scale drawn from the principal components analysis of the social distance questions, and/ or problems with measurement of social distance among today's correctional workers.

### **Logistic Regression**

The next six tables contain the results of logistic regressions of responses to conduct scenarios on importation variables, prisonization variables, workplace attitude variables, correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social

distance. In these regressions, responses of four or five (high punitive responses) were coded one, while all other responses were coded zero. An attempt was made to find common elements in the fifteen conduct scenarios through principal components analysis, but no meaningful dimensions were extracted. Thus, separate regressions were run for the fifteen conduct scenarios. None of the independent variables were statistically significant in nine of the fifteen analyses. The following six tables present the logistic regression results for the six conduct scenarios that did yield statistically significant findings.

Table 5.10 presents the regression of the log odds of a formal punitive response to the *cigarette found in the room (cell)* scenario on importation variables, prisonization variables, workplace attitude variables, correctional orientation, and social distance variables. Equation three, which includes the importation, prisonization, and workplace attitude variables shows white staff members and those with prior criminal justice/military experience are significantly less likely to select a punitive response to a cigarette being found in the room scenario (67.5% and 59.6% less likely, respectively;  $p < .05$ ). On the other hand, custodial staff members are 3.143 times more likely ( $p < .05$ ) to select a punitive response compared with non-custodial staff members. This indicates that custodial staff members perceive smoking in prisons as an event that requires use of formal discipline rather than informal control methods. When correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance measures are added to the regression (see equation four) educational attainment is positive and significant, indicating that those with more education are more likely to opt for a punitive response

**Table 5.10 Logistic Regression of Cigarette in Room on Importation, Prisonization, Workplace Attitudes, Correctional Orientation, and Social Distance Variables<sup>†#</sup>**

| <b>Independent Variable</b>    | <b>Importation Only</b>  | <b>Prisonization Only</b> | <b>Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes</b> | <b>Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance</b> |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|--|--|
| Initial Age                    | -.011<br>(.018)<br>.989  |                           | -.011<br>(.022)<br>.989                    | -.003<br>(.025)<br>.997  |
| Gender<br>Males=1              | .560<br>(.428)<br>1.751  |                           | .351<br>(.566)<br>1.421                    | .256<br>(.643)<br>1.291  |
| Race<br>White=1                | -.893<br>(.548)<br>.409  |                           | -1.123<br>(.664)<br>.325*                  | -1.697<br>(.757)<br>.183**   |
| Educational<br>Attainment      | .056<br>(.089)<br>1.058  |                           | .153<br>(.122)<br>1.165                    | .253<br>(.144)<br>1.288*   |
| Prior C.J.<br>Experience=1     | -.801<br>(.446)<br>.449* |                           | -.906<br>(.522)<br>.404*                   | -1.058<br>(.605)<br>.347*  |
| Big City<br>Origins=1          | -.454<br>(.823)<br>.635  |                           | -.574<br>(.919)<br>.564                    | -1.296<br>(1.216)<br>.274  |
| Facility Security<br>Maximum=1 |                          | .369<br>(.488)<br>1.446   | .102<br>(.550)<br>1.108                    | .012<br>(.604)<br>1.012  |
| High Custody<br>Assignment=1   |                          | -.835<br>(.790)<br>.434   | -.939<br>(.913)<br>.391                    | -1.038<br>(.953)<br>.354   |

Table 5.10—Continued

| Independent Variable             | Importation Only | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|----------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Contact Per Week                 |                  | -.002<br>(.015)<br>.998 | -.004<br>(.018)<br>.996             | -.004<br>(.020)<br>.996   |
| Custody Position=1               |                  | .611<br>(.448)<br>1.843 | 1.145<br>(.615)<br>3.143*           | 1.481<br>(.692)<br>4.398*                                       |
| AM/Day Shift=1                   |                  | -.100<br>(.540)<br>.904 | .224<br>(.618)<br>1.251             | .289<br>(.736)<br>1.335   |
| Months in Corrections            |                  | .002<br>(.002)<br>1.002 | .002<br>(.003)<br>1.002             | .004<br>(.003)<br>1.004   |
| Perception of Danger             |                  | -.310<br>(.211)<br>.733 | -.196<br>(.251)<br>.822             | -.366<br>(.281)<br>.694   |
| Peer Support                     |                  |                         | .340<br>(.297)<br>1.405             | .293<br>(.326)<br>1.341   |
| Participation in Decision Making |                  |                         | .247<br>(.309)<br>1.280             | .190<br>(.338)<br>1.209   |
| Self Efficacy                    |                  |                         | -.320<br>(.257)<br>.726             | .074<br>(.299)<br>1.077   |



Table 5.10—Continued

| Independent Variable     | Importation Only          | Prisonization Only         | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Work Stress              |                           |                            | -.281<br>(.307)<br>.755             | -.414<br>(.324)<br>.661   |
| Attitudes toward Job     |                           |                            | -.029<br>(.391)<br>.971             | .461<br>(.436)<br>1.585   |
| Correctional Orientation |                           |                            |                                     | 1.061<br>(.341)<br>2.889**                                      |
| Professional Distance    |                           |                            |                                     | -.210<br>(.247)<br>.811   |
| Bogardus Distance        |                           |                            |                                     | .506<br>(.332)<br>1.659   |
| Constant                 | -1.356<br>(1.384)<br>.258 | -2.203<br>(.078)<br>.111** | -3.320<br>(2.221)<br>.036           | -5.239<br>(2.644)<br>.005*                                      |
| McFadden R <sup>2</sup>  | .041                      | .042                       | .138                                | .250  |

† Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses followed by Exp(B).

Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

# High Punitive Response =1

to this scenario. Each additional year of education increases the odds of a punitive response by 28.8%. White staff members and those with prior criminal justice/military experience are significantly less likely to select a punitive response (81.7% less likely,  $p < .01$  and 65.3% less likely,  $p < .05$ , respectively). Further, custodial staff members are 4.398 times more likely to select a punitive response ( $p < .05$ ), while those with higher correctional orientation scores are significantly more likely to select a punitive response to a cigarette being found in the room.

The regression of the log odds of a punitive response to a cigarette found in room scenario on all variables in equation four explains a modest amount of the variance. The McFadden  $R^2$  in equation three shows that importation, prisonization, and workplace attitude variables account for 13.8 percent of the variation, while equation four reveals the addition of the correctional orientation and social distance variables increases the explained variance to 25.0 percent.

In Table 5.10, almost no significant direct effects were found for the importation and prisonization variables. Inclusion of the workplace attitude variables improved the fit of the model by a small amount, but adding the correctional orientation and social distance measures to the model made a marked difference in the predictive power of the model.

In the cigarette conduct scenario, most prisonization variables and workplace attitude variables show no significant impact on the log odds of a punitive response by correctional staff members. Importation variables produce more significant results, but not all were in the predicted direction. The effects of staff member race, educational

attainment, and prior criminal justice/military experience are significant, but in the opposite direction from what was predicted. Custody position is statistically significant and in the predicted direction. Custodial staff members are significantly more likely to opt for a formal punitive response to this conduct scenario. Finally, correctional orientation was significant and positive, indicating that those with higher correctional orientation scores (less rehabilitative) had higher odds of selecting a punitive response, as was hypothesized.

Table 5.11 presents the regression of the log odds of a formal punitive response to the *indecent exposure during count* scenario on importation variables, prisonization variables, workplace attitude variables, correctional orientation, and social distance variables. Equation three, which included the importation, prisonization, and intervening workplace attitude variables shows male staff members, those with higher educational attainment, and those with high self-efficacy scores are significantly less likely to select a high punitive response to the offender indecent exposure during count scenario (80.0% per year, 19.6% and 28.2% less likely, respectively;  $p < .05$ ). When correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance measures are added to the regression (see equation four), male staff members and those with higher educational attainment are still significantly less likely to select a high punitive response (80.5% per year and 21% less likely;  $p < .05$ , respectively), while those with higher Bogardus social distance are 1.721 times more likely ( $p < .01$ ) to select a high punitive response to the indecent exposure during count scenario. In addition, the effect of self-efficacy becomes non-significant when the social distance and correctional

**Table 5.11 Logistic Regression of Indecent Exposure During Count on Importation, Prisonization, Workplace Attitudes, Correctional Orientation, and Social Distance Variables<sup>†#</sup>**

| Independent Variable           | Importation Only            | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Initial Age                    | .004<br>(.014)<br>1.004     |                         | .023<br>(.018)<br>1.024             | .031<br>(.019)<br>1.031   |
| Gender<br>Males=1              | -1.387<br>(.377)<br>.250*** |                         | -1.611<br>(.438)<br>.200***         | -1.635<br>(.456)<br>.195***                                     |
| Race<br>White=1                | .308<br>(.516)<br>1.360     |                         | .102<br>(.575)<br>1.107             | -.030<br>(.585)<br>.970   |
| Educational<br>Attainment      | -.160<br>(.079)<br>.852*    |                         | -.218<br>(.101)<br>.804*            | -.236<br>(.106)<br>.790*  |
| Prior C.J.<br>Experience=1     | -.067<br>(.352)<br>.935     |                         | .180<br>(.387)<br>1.197             | .374<br>(.408)<br>1.453   |
| Big City<br>Origins=1          | .392<br>(.558)<br>1.480     |                         | .222<br>(.637)<br>1.249             | .025<br>(.673)<br>1.025   |
| Facility Security<br>Maximum=1 |                             | -.124<br>(.367)<br>.884 | .173<br>(.426)<br>1.189             | .125<br>(.447)<br>1.133   |
| High Custody<br>Assignment=1   |                             | -.246<br>(.491)<br>.782 | .268<br>(.584)<br>1.308             | .221<br>(.600)<br>1.248   |

Table 5.11—Continued

| Independent Variable             | Importation Only | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|----------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Contact Per Week                 |                  | -.001<br>(.012)<br>.999 | .015<br>(.015)<br>1.015             | .015<br>(.016)<br>1.015   |
| Custody Position=1               |                  | -.170<br>(.328)<br>.844 | -.483<br>(.441)<br>6.17             | -.515<br>(.451)<br>.598   |
| AM/Day Shift=1                   |                  | .115<br>(.421)<br>1.122 | .204<br>(.496)<br>1.226             | .029<br>(.519)<br>1.030   |
| Months in Corrections            |                  | .000<br>(.002)<br>1.000 | .003<br>(.003)<br>1.003             | .004<br>(.003)<br>1.004   |
| Perception of Danger             |                  | .044<br>(.160)<br>1.045 | -.169<br>(.202)<br>.844             | -.232<br>(.214)<br>.793   |
| Peer Support                     |                  |                         | .192<br>(.219)<br>1.212             | .121<br>(.225)<br>1.129   |
| Participation in Decision Making |                  |                         | .156<br>(.229)<br>1.169             | .134<br>(.236)<br>1.144   |
| Self Efficacy                    |                  |                         | -.331<br>(.192)<br>.718*            | -.182<br>(.209)<br>.834   |

Table 5.11—Continued

| Independent Variable     | Importation Only            | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Work Stress              |                             |                         | .028<br>(.223)<br>1.028             | -.056<br>(.231)<br>.946   |
| Attitudes toward Job     |                             |                         | -.323<br>(.267)<br>.724             | -.348<br>(.281)<br>.706   |
| Correctional Orientation |                             |                         |                                     | -.077<br>(.227)<br>.926   |
| Professional Distance    |                             |                         |                                     | .050<br>(.189)<br>1.051   |
| Bogardus Distance        |                             |                         |                                     | .543<br>(.226)<br>1.721**                                       |
| Constant                 | 2.335<br>(1.251)<br>10.326* | -.409<br>(.550)<br>.664 | 1.995<br>(1.927)<br>7.352           | 2.164<br>(2.021)<br>8.708                                       |
| McFadden R <sup>2</sup>  | .083                        | .004                    | .118                                | .140  |

† Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses followed by Exp(B).

Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

# High Punitive Response =1

orientation variables are added to the regression, which suggests the effect of self-efficacy on punitiveness in this scenario is mediated by social distance. The above indicates those with greater social distance toward offenders are nearly two times more likely to select a high punitive response, whereas each additional year of educational attainment decreases the odds of a high punitive response by 80.5% for the indecent exposure during count scenario.

The regression of the log odds of a punitive response to the indecent exposure during count scenario on all variables in equation four explains a limited amount of the variance. The McFadden  $R^2$  in equation three shows that importation, prisonization, and workplace attitude variables account for 11.8 percent of the variation, while equation four reveals the addition of the correctional orientation and social distance variables increases the explained variance only to 14.0 percent.

In the indecent exposure during count scenario, only gender and educational attainment exert significant direct effects on the log odds of selecting a high punitive response among the importation variables, while none of the prisonization variables shows a significant impact on the log odds of a punitive response by correctional staff members. The effects of gender and educational attainment are significant. The finding for educational attainment is in the expected direction, but gender is in the opposite direction from what was hypothesized. In addition, Bogardus social distance is significant and positive, indicating those with higher Bogardus scores (more socially distant from offenders) have higher log odds of selecting a punitive response, as was hypothesized.

Table 5.12 presents the regression of the log odds of a formal punitive response to the *interfering with count* on importation variables, prisonization variables, workplace attitudes variables, correctional orientation, and social distance variables. Equation three, which includes the importation, prisonization, and workplace attitude variables, shows significant findings for those with prior criminal justice/military experience, who are 2.417 times more likely ( $p < .05$ ) to have a high punitive response, and those employed in a maximum-security facility, who are 3.007 times more likely to select a high punitive response for the interfering with count scenario ( $p < .01$ ). This indicates those with prior criminal justice/military experience and those working in a maximum-security facility are significantly more like to select a punitive response to deal with an offender interfering with the security function of offender accountability (i.e., accounting for the location of the offender at all times). When correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance measures are added to the regression (see equation four), gender becomes statistically significant, with male staff members being less likely to select a high punitive response (58.5% less likely;  $p < .05$ ), while those with higher workplace attitudes are almost two times more likely to select a high punitive response per unit increase ( $p < .05$ ). Also, those having high correctional orientations are 2.335 times more likely per unit increase ( $p < .01$ ) to select a high punitive response to interfering with count, while prior criminal justice/military experience and maximum-security facility staff members continue to have significantly higher odds of selecting a high punitive response (2.355 and 2.706 times more likely;  $p < .05$ , respectively).



**Table 5.12 Logistic Regression of Interfering with Count on Importation, Prisonization, Workplace Attitudes, Correctional Orientation, and Social Distance Variables<sup>†#</sup>**

| Independent Variable           | Importation Only         | Prisonization Only         | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Initial Age                    | .014<br>(.014)<br>1.014  |                            | .017<br>(.018)<br>1.017             | .038<br>(.020)<br>1.039*  |
| Gender<br>Males=1              | -.221<br>(.370)<br>.082  |                            | -.621<br>(.439)<br>.537             | -.879<br>(.484)<br>.415*  |
| Race<br>White=1                | -.762<br>(.549)<br>.467  |                            | -.173<br>(.618)<br>.841             | -.425<br>(.633)<br>.653   |
| Educational<br>Attainment      | -.033<br>(.070)<br>.968  |                            | -.098<br>(.096)<br>.907             | -.068<br>(.102)<br>.934   |
| Prior C.J.<br>Experience=1     | .645<br>(.337)<br>1.906* |                            | .883<br>(.393)<br>2.417*            | .857<br>(.419)<br>2.355*  |
| Big City<br>Origins=1          | .249<br>(.572)<br>1.283  |                            | .317<br>(.641)<br>1.372             | .221<br>(.668)<br>1.248   |
| Facility Security<br>Maximum=1 |                          | 1.098<br>(.388)<br>2.998** | 1.101<br>(.434)<br>3.007**          | .996<br>(.471)<br>2.706*  |
| High Custody<br>Assignment=1   |                          | -.316<br>(.487)<br>.729    | .002<br>(.571)<br>1.002             | -.150<br>(.598)<br>.861   |

Table 5.12—Continued

| Independent Variable             | Importation Only | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|----------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Contact Per Week                 |                  | -.007<br>(.013)<br>.993 | -.002<br>(.015)<br>.998             | .033<br>(.016)<br>1.003   |
| Custody Position=1               |                  | .191<br>(.336)<br>1.211 | -.004<br>(.445)<br>.996             | .293<br>(.481)<br>1.340   |
| AM/Day Shift=1                   |                  | -.148<br>(.424)<br>.862 | -.137<br>(.480)<br>.872             | .095<br>(.526)<br>1.100   |
| Months in Corrections            |                  | .000<br>(.002)<br>1.000 | .002<br>(.002)<br>1.002             | .005<br>(.003)<br>1.005   |
| Perception of Danger             |                  | .019<br>(.163)<br>1.019 | -.051<br>(.201)<br>.950             | -.122<br>(.224)<br>.886   |
| Peer Support                     |                  |                         | -.296<br>(.220)<br>.744             | -.322<br>(.231)<br>.725   |
| Participation in Decision Making |                  |                         | -.271<br>(.226)<br>.762             | -.288<br>(.241)<br>.750   |
| Self Efficacy                    |                  |                         | .044<br>(.192)<br>1.044             | .303<br>(.229)<br>1.354   |

Table 5.12—Continued

| Independent Variable     | Importation Only         | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Work Stress              |                          |                         | .092<br>(.222)<br>1.096             | .124<br>(.243)<br>1.132   |
| Attitudes toward Job     |                          |                         | .376<br>(.275)<br>1.456             | .655<br>(.304)<br>1.926*  |
| Correctional Orientation |                          |                         |                                     | .848<br>(.262)<br>2.335**                                       |
| Professional Distance    |                          |                         |                                     | .323<br>(.205)<br>1.382   |
| Bogardus Distance        |                          |                         |                                     | -.145<br>(.234)<br>.865   |
| Constant                 | .995<br>(1.140)<br>2.703 | .315<br>(.562)<br>1.370 | 1.007<br>(1.813)<br>2.736           | -.348<br>(1.958)<br>.706  |
| McFadden R <sup>2</sup>  | .032                     | .051                    | .096                                | .180  |

†Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses followed by Exp(B).

Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

#High Punitive Response =1

The regression of the log odds of the conduct scenario of interfering with count on all variables in equation four explains a modest amount of the variance. The McFadden  $R^2$  in equation three shows that importation, prisonization, and workplace attitude variables account for 9.6 percent of the variation in responses to this conduct scenario, while equation four reveals the addition of the correctional orientation and social distance variables increases the explained variance to 18.0 percent. However, in Table 5.12, almost no significant direct effects are found for the importation and prisonization variables with the exception of prior criminal justice/military experience among the importation variables, and maximum-security facility among the prisonization variables. The findings indicate prior criminal justice/military experience is in the predicted direction, while maximum-security is in the opposite direction from what was hypothesized. Inclusion of the attitude variables improves the fit of the model, while adding the correctional orientation and social distance measures to the model nearly doubles the predictive power of the model compared to importation, prisonization, and attitude variables alone. Further, higher correctional orientation and attitudes toward the job shows increasing log odds of selecting a high punitive response, as was hypothesized.

Table 5.13 presents the regression of the log odds of a formal punitive response to the *disorderly behavior* scenario on importation variables, prisonization variables, workplace attitude variables, correctional orientation, and social distance variables. Equation three, which includes the importation, prisonization, and workplace attitude variables, shows age at initial employment in corrections significantly decreases the log

odds of selecting a high punitive response (3.5% less likely per year ;  $p < .05$ ), while those staff members who grew up in big cities are almost three times more likely to select a high punitive response, and those with more positive workplace attitudes are 1.586 times more likely per unit increase to select a high punitive response to disorderly offender behavior. When correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance measures are added to the regression (see equation four), big city origins and workplace attitudes are no longer significant, while age at initial employment remains significant, with each year increase in age leading to these workers being 3.8% less likely to select a high punitive response. On the other hand, when correctional orientation, professional distance, and Bogardus social distance are added to the equation, initial age, prior criminal justice/military experience, high custody assignment, custody position, and Bogardus social distance are significant. Prior criminal justice/military personnel are 2.362 times more likely to select a high punitive response ( $p < .05$ ), while those working in high custody units are 3.009 times more likely to select a high punitive response ( $p < .05$ ). Further, those with higher Bogardus social distance scores are 2.331 times more likely per unit increase ( $p < .000$ ) to select a high punitive response. In contrast, staff members who started their correctional career earlier in life are 3.8% less likely per year to select a high punitive response ( $p < .05$ ), and custody staff members are 57.6% less likely ( $p < .05$ ) to select a high punitive response to disorderly behavior. These findings, not unexpectedly, suggest prior criminal justice/military experience, staff members working in high custody or segregation units, and those staff members who experience greater social distance from offenders are

**Table 5.13** Logistic Regression of Disorderly Behavior on Importation, Prisonization, Workplace Attitudes, Correctional Orientation, and Social Distance Variables<sup>†\*</sup>

| Independent Variable           | Importation Only          | Prisonization Only        | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Initial Age                    | -.027<br>(.014)<br>.973*  |                           | -.036<br>(.018)<br>.965*            | -.039<br>(.019)<br>.962*  |
| Gender<br>Males=1              | -.500<br>(.365)<br>.607   |                           | -.534<br>(.418)<br>.586             | -.547<br>(.458)<br>.579   |
| Race<br>White=1                | .188<br>(.491)<br>1.207   |                           | .444<br>(.568)<br>1.558             | .332<br>(.589)<br>1.394   |
| Educational<br>Attainment      | -.032<br>(.072)<br>.968   |                           | -.091<br>(.098)<br>.913             | -.108<br>(.106)<br>.897   |
| Prior C.J.<br>Experience=1     | .339<br>(.333)<br>1.404   |                           | .477<br>(.383)<br>1.612             | .860<br>(.422)<br>2.362*  |
| Big City<br>Origins=1          | 1.077<br>(.554)<br>2.937* |                           | 1.089<br>(.626)<br>2.972*           | .782<br>(.679)<br>2.185   |
| Facility Security<br>Maximum=1 |                           | -.185<br>(.367)<br>.831   | .026<br>(.415)<br>1.026             | .190<br>(.445)<br>1.209   |
| High Custody<br>Assignment=1   |                           | 1.098<br>(.483)<br>2.998* | .888<br>(.567)<br>2.430             | 1.102<br>(.602)<br>3.009*                                       |

Table 5.13—Continued

| Independent Variable             | Importation Only | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|----------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Contact Per Week                 |                  | -.012<br>(.012)<br>.988 | -.012<br>(.014)<br>.988             | -.008<br>(.016)<br>.992   |
| Custody Position=1               |                  | -.310<br>(.328)<br>.734 | -.605<br>(.426)<br>.546             | -.857<br>(.463)<br>.424*  |
| AM/Day Shift=1                   |                  | .190<br>(.422)<br>1.209 | .089<br>(.477)<br>1.093             | -.442<br>(.515)<br>.643   |
| Months in Corrections            |                  | .000<br>(.002)<br>1.000 | -.003<br>(.002)<br>.997             | -.003<br>(.003)<br>.997   |
| Perception of Danger             |                  | .077<br>(.160)<br>1.080 | .188<br>(.199)<br>1.206             | .075<br>(.221)<br>1.078   |
| Peer Support                     |                  |                         | .284<br>(.219)<br>1.329             | .251<br>(.230)<br>1.285   |
| Participation in Decision Making |                  |                         | -.063<br>(.230)<br>.939             | -.061<br>(.244)<br>.940   |
| Self Efficacy                    |                  |                         | -.105<br>(.187)<br>.901             | .017<br>(.213)<br>1.017   |

Table 5.13—Continued

| Independent Variable     | Importation Only          | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Work Stress              |                           |                         | .118<br>(.221)<br>1.125             | .025<br>(.236)<br>1.025   |
| Attitudes toward Job     |                           |                         | .461<br>(.265)<br>1.586*            | .386<br>(.292)<br>1.471   |
| Correctional Orientation |                           |                         |                                     | -.394<br>(.243)<br>.674   |
| Professional Distance    |                           |                         |                                     | -.110<br>(.191)<br>.896   |
| Bogardus Distance        |                           |                         |                                     | .846<br>(.240)<br>2.331***                                      |
| Constant                 | 1.032<br>(1.146)<br>2.808 | -.046<br>(.538)<br>.955 | 2.657<br>(1.852)<br>14.250          | 3.278<br>(2.002)<br>26.525                                      |
| McFadden R <sup>2</sup>  | .035                      | .031                    | .104                                | .171  |

†Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses followed by Exp(B).

Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

\*High Punitive Response =1



significantly less tolerant of offenders acting out in their presence.

The regression of the log odds of a punitive response to disorderly conduct on all variables in equation four explains a limited amount of the variation. The McFadden  $R^2$  in equation three shows that importation, prisonization, and workplace attitude variables account for 10.4 percent of the variation, while equation four reveals the addition of the correctional orientation and social distance variables increases the explained variance to 17.1 percent.

In Table 5.13, some direct effects are found among the importation and prisonization variables. For the importation variables, age at initial employment and big city origins have significant direct effects on selection of a high punitive response, but big city origins is not in the hypothesized direction. For the prisonization variables, only high custody assignment is significant, but it is in the hypothesized direction. Inclusion of the workplace attitude variables improves the fit of the model, but adding the correctional orientation and social distance measures to the model increases explained variance while mediating the impact of staff member workplace attitudes (attitude towards job is no longer significant) on selecting a high punitive response to disorderly behavior.

Table 5.14 presents the regression of the log odds of a formal punitive response to the *fleeing from a staff member* scenario on importation variables, prisonization variables, workplace attitude variables, correctional orientation, and social distance variables. Equation three, which includes the importation, prisonization, and workplace attitude variables, shows that only prior criminal justice/military experience and contact

per week significantly increase the odds of predicting the punitiveness of staff member decisions in response to this conduct scenario. Those with prior criminal justice/military experience are 2.757 times more likely to select a punitive response ( $p < .01$ ), while each additional hour of offender contact increases the odds of a punitive response by 3.2%. When correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus distance measures are added to the regression (see equation four), the log odds of selecting a punitive response are still significant for prior criminal justice/military experience and contact hours per week (3.179 and 1.038 times more likely;  $p < .01$ ). In addition, race of the staff member is now significant, with white staff members being 64% less likely to select a punitive response ( $p < .05$ ) to the fleeing from a staff member scenario. Also, correctional orientation and Bogardus social distance increase the odds of selecting a high punitive response (1.677 and 1.424 times more likely;  $p < .05$ , respectively). Those who are more custodial in their ideology and express a need for greater social distance from offenders are more likely to select a punitive response to the fleeing from a staff member scenario.

The regression of the log odds of a punitive response to the fleeing from a staff member scenario on all variables in equation four explains a limited amount of the variance. The McFadden  $R^2$  in equation three shows that importation, prisonization, and workplace attitude variables account for 9.0 percent of the variation, while equation four reveals the addition of the correctional orientation and social distance variables increases the explained variance to 14.0 percent.

**Table 5.14 Logistic Regression of Fleeing a Staff Member on Importation, Prisonization, Workplace Attitudes, Correctional Orientation, and Social Distance Variables<sup>†#</sup>**

| Independent Variable           | Importation Only          | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Initial Age                    | -.012<br>(.014)<br>.988   |                         | -.025<br>(.017)<br>.976             | -.014<br>(.018)<br>.986   |
| Gender<br>Males=1              | -.313<br>(.364)<br>.731   |                         | -.222<br>(.414)<br>.801             | -.320<br>(.439)<br>.726   |
| Race<br>White=1                | -.581<br>(.505)<br>.559   |                         | -.794<br>(.576)<br>.452             | -1.022<br>(.592)<br>.360*                                       |
| Educational<br>Attainment      | -.029<br>(.069)<br>.971   |                         | -.012<br>(.089)<br>.988             | .003<br>(.091)<br>1.003   |
| Prior C.J.<br>Experience=1     | .891<br>(.333)<br>2.439** |                         | 1.014<br>(.381)<br>2.757**          | 1.156<br>(.404)<br>3.179**                                      |
| Big City<br>Origins=1          | .480<br>(.555)<br>1.616   |                         | .456<br>(.609)<br>1.578             | .226<br>(.645)<br>1.253   |
| Facility Security<br>Maximum=1 |                           | -.341<br>(.361)<br>.711 | -.285<br>(.404)<br>.752             | -.438<br>(.428)<br>.645   |
| High Custody<br>Assignment=1   |                           | -.115<br>(.466)<br>.891 | -.568<br>(.555)<br>.567             | -.610<br>(.559)<br>.544   |

Table 5.14—Continued

| Independent Variable             | Importation Only | Prisonization Only       | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|----------------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Contact Per Week                 |                  | .027<br>(.012)<br>1.027* | .032<br>(.014)<br>1.032*            | .038<br>(.015)<br>1.038**                                       |
| Custody Position=1               |                  | -.147<br>(.324)<br>.864  | -.472<br>(.418)<br>.624             | -.486<br>(.435)<br>.615   |
| AM/Day Shift=1                   |                  | -.004<br>(.415)<br>.996  | -.281<br>(.480)<br>.755             | -.462<br>(.510)<br>.630   |
| Months in Corrections            |                  | .001<br>(.002)<br>1.001  | -.001<br>(.002)<br>(.999)           | .001<br>(.002)<br>1.001   |
| Perception of Danger             |                  | .128<br>(.157)<br>1.136  | -.007<br>(.192)<br>.993             | -.061<br>(.206)<br>.941   |
| Peer Support                     |                  |                          | .103<br>(.211)<br>1.109             | .016<br>(.218)<br>1.016   |
| Participation in Decision Making |                  |                          | .046<br>(.219)<br>1.047             | .049<br>(.227)<br>1.050   |
| Self Efficacy                    |                  |                          | .034<br>(.182)<br>1.035             | .296<br>(.204)<br>1.345   |

Table 5.14—Continued

| Independent Variable     | Importation Only          | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Work Stress              |                           |                         | .021<br>(.214)<br>1.021             | -.066<br>(.235)<br>.936   |
| Attitudes toward Job     |                           |                         | -.083<br>(.259)<br>.920             | .054<br>(.282)<br>1.056   |
| Correctional Orientation |                           |                         |                                     | .517<br>(.229)<br>1.677*  |
| Professional Distance    |                           |                         |                                     | -.087<br>(.184)<br>.917   |
| Bogardus Distance        |                           |                         |                                     | .353<br>(.212)<br>1.424*  |
| Constant                 | 1.264<br>(1.111)<br>3.540 | -.515<br>(.540)<br>.598 | 1.348<br>(1.710)<br>3.848           | .886<br>(1.776)<br>2.426  |
| McFadden R <sup>2</sup>  | .042                      | .027                    | .090                                | .140  |

†Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses followed by Exp(B).

Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

#High Punitive Response =1

In Table 5.14, among the importation variables, only prior criminal justice/military experience has a significant direct impact on the log odds of selecting a high punitive response, but this is in agreement with the hypothesized model. For the prisonization variables, only contact hours per week has a significant direct causal effect, but this finding is in the opposite direction from what was hypothesized. Lastly, the workplace attitude variables have no significant direct or indirect impact on predicting staff members' high punitive responses to the fleeing from a staff member scenario.

Table 5.15 presents the regression of the log odds of a formal punitive response to the *possession of unauthorized state property* scenario on importation variables, prisonization variables, intervening workplace attitude variables, correctional orientation, and social distance variables. The results in equation three show that several variables significantly increase the log odds of selecting a high punitive response. Each additional year of age at initial employment in corrections increases the odds of a high punitive response by 6.1% ( $p < .01$ ). Those who grew up in a big city are 8.306 times more likely to select a punitive response ( $p < .01$ ), and those with high work stress scores are 1.552 times more likely to select a high punitive response ( $p < .05$ ). When correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance measures are added to the regression (see equation four), professional distance is positive and significant. Initial age of employment multiplies the odds of a high punitive response to the possession of unauthorized state property 1.070 times per year ( $p < .000$ ), growing up

**Table 5.15 Logistic Regression of Possession of Unauthorized State Property on Importation, Prisonization, Workplace Attitudes, Correctional Orientation, and Social Distance Variables<sup>†#</sup>**

| Independent Variable           | Importation Only           | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Initial Age                    | .037<br>(.014)<br>1.038**  |                         | .059<br>(.018)<br>1.061**           | .067<br>(.019)<br>1.070***                                      |
| Gender<br>Males=1              | .465<br>(.370)<br>1.592    |                         | .493<br>(.426)<br>1.638             | .535<br>(.444)<br>1.707   |
| Race<br>White=1                | -.138<br>(.505)<br>.871    |                         | -.233<br>(.586)<br>.792             | -.394<br>(.612)<br>.675   |
| Educational<br>Attainment      | -.080<br>(.069)<br>.923    |                         | -.045<br>(.091)<br>.956             | -.029<br>(.093)<br>.971   |
| Prior C.J.<br>Experience=1     | -.537<br>(.338)<br>.584    |                         | -.425<br>(.389)<br>.654             | -.342<br>(.403)<br>.710   |
| Big City<br>Origins=1          | 2.007<br>(.778)<br>7.444** |                         | 2.116<br>(.835)<br>8.300**          | 1.959<br>(.861)<br>7.092*                                       |
| Facility Security<br>Maximum=1 |                            | -.159<br>(.358)<br>.853 | -.264<br>(.410)<br>.768             | -.365<br>(.426)<br>.694   |
| High Custody<br>Assignment=1   |                            | .439<br>(.469)<br>1.551 | .504<br>(.578)<br>1.655             | .403<br>(.596)<br>1.496   |

Table 5.15—Continued

| Independent Variable             | Importation Only | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|----------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Contact Per Week                 |                  | .013<br>(.012)<br>1.013 | .018<br>(.014)<br>1.018             | .018<br>(.015)<br>1.018   |
| Custody Position=1               |                  | -.496<br>(.319)<br>.609 | -.300<br>(.419)<br>.740             | -.202<br>(.434)<br>.817   |
| AM/Day Shift=1                   |                  | .051<br>(.399)<br>1.053 | .226<br>(.470)<br>1.254             | .294<br>(.489)<br>1.341   |
| Months in Corrections            |                  | .001<br>(.002)<br>1.001 | .002<br>(.002)<br>1.002             | .003<br>(.002)<br>1.003   |
| Perception of Danger             |                  | .131<br>(.157)<br>1.140 | .179<br>(.195)<br>1.196             | .103<br>(.206)<br>1.109   |
| Peer Support                     |                  |                         | -.045<br>(.216)<br>.956             | -.064<br>(.220)<br>.938   |
| Participation in Decision Making |                  |                         | .322<br>(.222)<br>1.380             | .287<br>(.228)<br>1.332   |
| Self Efficacy                    |                  |                         | -.226<br>(.185)<br>.798             | -.076<br>(.206)<br>.927   |



Table 5.15—Continued

| Independent Variable     | Importation Only         | Prisonization Only      | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes | Importation/Prisonization/Attitudes/Orientation/Social Distance |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| Work Stress              |                          |                         | .439<br>(.218)<br>1.552*            | .435<br>(.228)<br>1.546*  |
| Attitudes Toward Job     |                          |                         | .159<br>(.262)<br>1.172             | .206<br>(.275)<br>1.229   |
| Correctional Orientation |                          |                         |                                     | .174<br>(.219)<br>1.190   |
| Professional Distance    |                          |                         |                                     | .373<br>(.187)<br>1.452*  |
| Bogardus Distance        |                          |                         |                                     | .094<br>(.205)<br>1.099   |
| Constant                 | -.265<br>(1.104)<br>.767 | -.263<br>(.529)<br>.769 | -2.151<br>(1.756)<br>.116           | -2.753<br>(1.825)<br>.064                                       |
| McFadden R <sup>2</sup>  | .075                     | .021                    | .129                                | .150  |

†Unstandardized coefficients with standard errors in parentheses followed by Exp(B).

Tests are one-tailed: \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01, \*\*\*p<.000

#High Punitive Response =1

in a big city increases the odds 7.092 times ( $p < .05$ ), work stress increases the odds 1.546 times per unit increase ( $p < .05$ ), and professional distance in corrections multiplies the odds 1.452 times per unit increase ( $p < .05$ ).

The regression of the conduct scenario of possession of unauthorized property on all variables in equation four explained a limited amount of the variance. The McFadden  $R^2$  in equation three shows that importation, prisonization, and attitude variables account for 12.9 percent of the variation in responses to this conduct scenario, while equation four reveals the addition of the correctional orientation and social distance variables increases the explained variance to 15.0 percent.

The results for the importation variables reveal that age at initial employment in corrections increases the odds of selecting a high punitive response by 1.038 times per year ( $p < .01$ ), and growing up in a big city increases the odds of selecting a high punitive response by 7.444 times ( $p < .01$ ). However, urban origins was expected to decrease the odds of selecting a high punitive response, but in this model, staff members who grew up in a large city appear to either hold offenders to a higher standard, or value personal property rights more than those who did not grow up in urban areas. Further, this was the only conduct scenario where professional social distance had a statistically significantly positive impact. A possible explanation for this findings is that the increase in offender tort claims against correctional staff members for lost property may have increased staff member punitiveness. Where staff members may have in the past routinely ignored items in an offender's possession as non-consequential, current procedures cause staff members to focus more on the unauthorized item and the need to document the

possession either through formal discipline or other means of documentation in order to stave off offender litigation (tort claims through local courts) for confiscated or lost property.

In sum, the hypothesized model specified that importation and prisonization variables should have had a significant direct impact on the punitive responses of correctional staff members, while the attitude variables should have mediated the effect of these variables on punitive responses to the conduct scenarios. The results show that importation variables have a greater influence on the odds of a punitive response to the conduct scenarios than do the prisonization variables. On the other hand, the workplace attitude variables have a minimal impact on punitive responses, while correctional orientation and social distance measures are consistent in their positive effect on the odds of a punitive response to the conduct scenarios.

The next chapter will summarize the key findings of this study and evaluate the hypothesized model. Limitations of this study also will be discussed. The chapter will conclude with suggestions for future research.

## **CHAPTER VI**

### **DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS**

This final chapter will summarize and interpret the findings of this study. First to be presented will be the summary of the significant findings. Next will be the comparison of the hypothesized model with the significant findings. The following section will contain the limitations of the study including: (1) limitations of the sample and data collection methods, and (2) limitations of the research instrument. Last to be discussed will be suggestions for future research on correctional staff member attitudes and their impact on offender discipline.

#### **Summary of Significant Findings**

As described in the previous chapter, the testing of the hypothesized model was performed in three stages. First, workplace attitude variables were regressed on the importation and prisonization variables. These results reveal that importation and prisonization variables have an equal number of significant findings (see Table 6.1). However, very little of the variance is explained by workplace attitude variables on either the importation or prisonization variables.

The second stage of the analysis involved regressing correctional orientation and social distance measures on workplace attitude variables, and exogenous importation and prisonization variables. In these regressions, the number of significant findings did not increase dramatically compared to workplace attitude variables alone on exogenous importation and prisonization variables, but the amount of variance explained did

Table 6.1 Pattern of Significant Effects

| Variable                       | Peer Support | Part. In Decision | Self Efficacy | Work Stress | Attitude <sup>1</sup> Job | Corr. <sup>2</sup> Orient. | Profess. Distance | Bogardus <sup>3</sup> Distance | Cig. In Room | Indecnt <sup>4</sup> Exposure | Interfer. Count | Disord. <sup>5</sup> Behav. | Flee. Staff | Unauth. Property |
|--------------------------------|--------------|-------------------|---------------|-------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|-------------|------------------|
| Initial Age                    |              | --                |               |             | +                         | --                         |                   |                                |              |                               | +               | -                           |             | +                |
| Gender<br>Males=1              |              |                   |               |             |                           | +                          |                   |                                |              | --                            | -               |                             |             |                  |
| Race<br>White=1                |              |                   |               |             | -                         |                            |                   |                                | -            |                               |                 |                             | -           |                  |
| Educational<br>Attainment      |              |                   | +             |             |                           |                            |                   |                                | +            | -                             |                 |                             |             |                  |
| Prior C.J.<br>Experience=1     |              |                   | +             |             |                           |                            |                   | -                              | -            |                               | +               | +                           | +           |                  |
| Big City<br>Origins=1          |              | +                 |               | -           |                           |                            |                   |                                |              |                               |                 |                             |             | +                |
| Facility Security<br>Maximum=1 |              |                   |               |             |                           |                            |                   |                                |              |                               | +               |                             |             |                  |
| High Custody<br>Assignment=1   |              |                   |               |             |                           |                            |                   |                                |              |                               |                 | +                           |             |                  |
| Contact<br>Per Week            |              | -                 |               | +           |                           |                            |                   |                                |              |                               |                 |                             | +           |                  |
| Custody<br>Position=1          |              | -                 |               |             |                           |                            |                   |                                | +            |                               |                 | -                           |             |                  |
| AM/Day<br>Shift=1              |              | +                 |               |             |                           |                            |                   | +                              |              |                               |                 |                             |             |                  |

Table 6.1—Continued

| Variable   | Peer Support | Part. In Decision | Self Efficacy | Work Stress | Attitude <sup>1</sup> Job | Corr. <sup>2</sup> Orient. | Profess. Distance | Bogardus <sup>3</sup> Distance | Cig. In Room Exposure | Indecnt <sup>4</sup> Count | Interfer. Disord. <sup>5</sup> Behav. | Flee. Unauth. Staff | Unauth. Property |      |
|--|--------------|-------------------|---------------|-------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------|------------------|------|
| Months in Corrections                            |              |                   |               |             |                           | -                          |                   |                                |                       |                            |                                       |                     |                  |      |
| Perception of Danger                             | -            |                   |               | +           | -                         |                            | +                 | +                              |                       |                            |                                       |                     |                  |      |
| Peer Support                                     |              |                   |               |             |                           |                            |                   |                                |                       |                            |                                       |                     |                  |      |
| Participation in Decision Making                 |              |                   |               |             |                           |                            |                   |                                |                       |                            |                                       |                     |                  |      |
| Self Efficacy                                    |              |                   |               |             |                           | -                          | -                 | -                              |                       |                            |                                       |                     |                  |      |
| Work Stress                                      |              |                   |               |             |                           |                            |                   |                                |                       |                            |                                       |                     | +                |      |
| Attitudes Toward Job                             |              |                   |               |             |                           | -                          |                   |                                |                       |                            | +                                     |                     |                  |      |
| Correctional Orientation                         |              |                   |               |             |                           |                            |                   |                                | +                     |                            | +                                     | +                   |                  |      |
| Professional Distance                            |              |                   |               |             |                           |                            |                   |                                |                       |                            |                                       |                     | +                |      |
| Bogardus Distance                                |              |                   |               |             |                           |                            |                   |                                |                       | +                          |                                       | +                   | +                |      |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> /McFadden R <sup>2</sup> | .033         | .109              | .055          | .179        | .155                      | .292                       | .020              | .186                           | .250                  | .140                       | .180                                  | .171                | .140             | .150 |

**Table 6.1—Continued**

- <sup>1</sup>Effects of gender, educational attainment, and big city origins are mediated by their effects on perception of danger.
- <sup>2</sup>Effects of race, educational attainment, big city origins, perception of danger are mediated by their effects on self-efficacy and job attitudes.
- <sup>3</sup>Effects of initial age and contact hours are mediated by their effects on self-efficacy.
- <sup>4</sup>Effect of self-efficacy is mediated by its effect on Bogardus social distance.
- <sup>5</sup>Effects of big city origins and job attitudes are mediated by Bogardus social distance.

increase, especially with correctional orientation (adjusted  $R^2 = 29.2\%$ ). Further, in these regressions, more of the prisonization variables are statistically significant than the importation variables, while few of the staff member attitude variables are significant. The one staff member attitude variable that is significant across correctional orientation and social distance measures is self-efficacy. Not unexpectedly, as social distance increases, self efficacy decreases.

Finally, in the third stage of the analysis, punitive attitudes are regressed on importation, prisonization, workplace attitudes, social distance, and correctional orientation variables. In these regressions, importation variables are clearly the best predictors of staff member punitive attitudes. As Table 6.1 shows, importation variables are significant in fourteen cases, while only five prisonization variables have statistically significant direct effects on staff member punitiveness. Prior criminal justice experience, correctional orientation, and Bogardus social distance increase the log odds of selecting a high punitive response to offender misconduct, whereas gender (male=1) and race (white=1) significantly decrease the log odds of selecting a high punitive response to such misconduct.

Further examination of Table 6.1 shows the effects of staff member age at employment in corrections, educational attainment, and custody staff members on staff member punitiveness differ depending on the conduct scenario. While some significant findings appear, the punitive decision-making process appears to be significantly influenced by more than one variable in any given situation. For example, prior criminal justice experience significantly increases the log odds of selecting a high punitive



response for challenges toward staff member authority by interfering with count, disorderly behavior, and fleeing a staff member, while it significantly decreases the log odds of such a response in the conduct scenario involving offender possession of tobacco.

In sum, looking at the results for the entire model, the importation variables are significant in twenty-four instances, whereas the prisonization variables are significant in only sixteen instances. On the other hand, staff member workplace attitude scales have few significant effects on correctional orientation, social distance scales, or punitive responses to offender disciplinary scenarios. Other than self-efficacy noted above, intervening workplace attitude variables offer virtually no increase in the amount of variance explained in the log odds of selecting a high punitive response to offender discipline. One possible explanation for the lack of significant impact of correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distances on intervening workplace variables and importation and prisonization variables may be found in the overall nature of corrections work and how it overshadows or restricts personal opinions through policies, practices, and training. Correctional socialization stresses the need to remain professional and to restrict personal opinions when interacting with offenders. Staff members are encouraged to do their jobs in a professional manner regardless of their feelings and opinions. This may be one possible explanation for the dramatic reduction in the number of significant findings when correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance are added to the model.

In the next section, I will compare the findings of this study to the hypothesized model in Chapter IV (see Figure 4.1). Specifically, I will compare the direction and significance of the findings in the present study to the theoretical expectations based on previous work summarized in Table 4.1

### **Evaluation of the Hypothesized Model**

The hypothesized model in this study predicted that the effects of the importation, prisonization, and workplace attitude variables on punitiveness would be mediated by correctional orientation and social distance measures. Further, it was expected that increased social distance and correctional orientation would increase punitive behavior. As noted above, some of the findings support the hypothesized model, while others contradict theoretical expectations.

First, looking at the hypotheses regarding the importation variables, the age at which the staff member entered correctional work was expected to significantly decrease correctional orientation, suggesting the older newcomers to corrections would be less rigid and would use alternative methods of social control in the correctional setting (Toch and Klofas, 1982; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989). While attitudes of correctional orientation are significantly lower for those staff members that began their careers in corrections later in life, as expected, punitive responses to the conduct scenarios indicate attitudes and practices may not be the same. While initial age at employment in corrections had the expected negative effect on the response to the disorderly behavior scenario, it had significant positive effects on the response to interfering with count and unauthorized property scenarios, suggesting that older staff

members are more likely to take punitive actions against an offender on property and count-related disciplinary issues.

Gender of the staff member was expected to significantly impact correctional orientation and social distance, with male staff members having higher correctional orientation, social distance, and punitive behavior (Jurik and Halemba, 1984; VanVoorhis et al., 1991; Alpert and Crouch, 1991). The findings here suggest that male staff members do have significantly higher correctional orientation compared to their female counterparts as expected, however, male staff members have significantly lower log odds of selecting a high punitive response to indecent exposure and interfering with count scenarios. While indecent exposure could be explained by the fact that both facilities housed adult male offenders, and male staff members are more tolerant of offender exposure while the inmate is in his "house" (cell), gender differences in interfering with count cannot be explained so readily. Apparently for these male participants, being late for count was less likely to be a basis for punitive action.

Race of the staff member was expected to have a significant effect on social distance, correctional orientation, and punitive behavior, with minority staff members showing lower social distance, correctional orientation, and punitive behavior (Jacobs and Kraft, 1978; Jurik, 1985b; Klofas, 1986; Jackson and Ammen, 1996). In addition, white staff members were expected to have more positive attitudes toward their jobs than minority staff members. These expectations were not supported in this study. White staff members have significantly lower log odds of selecting a high punitive response to the fleeing a staff member and a cigarette found in room/cell scenarios. White staff

members also hold significantly less positive attitudes toward their jobs compared to their non-white counterparts. Again it is difficult to explain why these results are contrary to findings in earlier studies. One possible explanation is that research participants may have been suspicious regarding the intent of the research and this may have had an influence, since staff members later relayed to the researcher that there was a concern the study might have a negative impact on evaluations of their work performance even though the research protocols were designed to protect their anonymity. Another possible explanation for these differences may have been the utilization of offender race in the conduct scenarios. This may have had an unintended damping effect on the responses to the conduct scenario questions by leading some staff members to believe the intent of the research may have been to measure bias responses by staff members toward offenders by their race.

Educational attainment was expected to have a significant negative effect on correctional orientation (Poole and Regoli, 1980b), social distance, and punitive behavior, as well as a positive effect on workplace attitudes (Gerstein et al., 1987). The findings show education significantly increases staff member self-efficacy, while showing mixed effects on responses to the conduct scenarios. Educational attainment increases the log odds of selecting a high punitive response for the cigarette found in room scenario, while significantly decreasing the log odds of selecting a high punitive response to the indecent exposure during the count time scenario, while having no direct effect on correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance. Again, explaining these departures from the results of prior research cannot be

easily explained. One possible explanation for the increased log odds with cigarettes could be those with more education see smoking as more harmful and a serious health concern.

Prior criminal justice/military experience was expected to have a significant positive relationship with correctional orientation, professional social distance, Bogardus social distance, and punitiveness (Jacobs and Kraft, 1978; Jurik, 1985b). In half of the conduct scenarios (interfering with count, disorderly behavior, and fleeing staff), prior criminal justice/military experience significantly increases the log odds of selecting a high punitive response, while in the cigarette found in room scenario it significantly decreases the log odds of selecting a high punitive response. Further, those with prior criminal justice/military experience have significantly lower social distance from offenders in the Bogardus social distance scale. It could be speculated those with prior military and/or criminal justice experiences have had similar experiences with groups of people like those that inhabit our correctional facilities, thus decreasing their feeling of social distance. Also, given the paramilitary structure of corrections, the correctional environment may be less foreign to these staff members, thus leading to the lower Bogardus social distance findings, and also the positive relationship between prior criminal justice/military experience and higher self-efficacy scores. As to the unexpected finding for the conduct scenario of cigarette in the room, one would have to wonder how many of these prior criminal justice/military staff members were or are smokers themselves, thus leading to their perception that the tobacco infraction does not warrant a punitive response.

Urban or big city origin was expected to have a negative impact on punitive attitudes, correctional orientation, social distance scores, and the workplace attitude variables (Klofas, 1986). The findings show that staff members from urban origins are significantly higher on attitudes of participation in decision-making, and significantly lower on work-related stress. However, staff members from big city origins have significantly higher odds of selecting a high punitive response for the offender possessing unauthorized property scenario. It was anticipated that big city origins would significantly decrease the punitive response of the staff member. In five of the six conduct scenarios, urban origin has no significant impact on the log odds of selecting a high punitive response, while in the sixth conduct scenario of unauthorized property in the cell, urban origin increases the odds of a high punitive response. The lack of support for the impact of urban origins may have been due to the limited number of participating staff members in the study growing up in a large urban area (8.6%) or there may be a limited difference between urban and rural origins of staff members and their attitudes toward offender discipline.

Turning to the hypotheses regarding the prisonization variables, working in a maximum security facility and within a high custody/segregation unit were expected to increase the social distance and correctional orientation of staff members. Further, working in a maximum security facility was expected to lower punitive attitudes (Jurik, 1985b; VanVoorhis et al., 1991), since order maintenance disciplinary reports would likely be perceived as petty or less important compared with the more serious rule violations, while working in a high custody unit was expected to raise punitive attitudes

since high custody work assignments in correctional facilities are more strictly controlled or regimented environments minimizing offender disruptive behavior. The only significant results for these variables are found in the punitive responses to the conduct scenarios. In the scenario of interfering with count, maximum security staff members have significantly higher log odds of selecting a high punitive response compared with medium security staff members, which is contrary to expectations. In the scenario on disorderly behavior, staff members working in high custody/segregation units have significantly higher log odds of selecting a high punitive response, which is in agreement with expectations. Correctional staff members in high custody units tend to place a greater emphasis on the need for order and this finding offers some support for this hypothesis. Past research on the correctional security level continuum suggests maximum security personnel should have been significantly less punitive in their attitudes than medium security personnel. Perhaps the inclusion of the non-traditional correctional research participants in this study (e.g., food service, educators, maintenance, etc.) has influenced the findings regarding the increasing log odds of a punitive response in the maximum security setting found in the interfering with count conduct scenario.

The frequency of contact with the offender population was expected to have a significant negative effect on staff member workplace attitudes, correctional orientation, and social distance measures, and, in turn, producing a decrease in punitive behavior as the social distance barriers are reduced through greater offender contact and interaction (Whitehead and Lindquist, 1986; Gerstein et al., 1987). The findings show that

increasing offender contact significantly increases work stress attitudes, while significantly decreasing positive attitudes of participation in decision-making. As noted above in Chapter V, these findings are expected since the amount of offender contact time would likely cause greater levels of personal and professional stress, and those with increased offender contact would likely be line staff members who often have limited interaction and impact with decision-makers and the decision-making process. On the other hand, frequency of offender contact has almost no significant influence on the log odds of selecting a high punitive response, with the exception of the fleeing a staff member scenario. The results show that increasing contact with offenders significantly increases the log odds of selecting a high punitive response to this scenario. While this was an unexpected finding, it may be explained by the addition of non-traditional correctional research participants such as teachers, food service personnel, maintenance workers, and counselors, or simply this is an act that is not tolerated by the participants in this study.

Custody staff members were expected to have lower social distance, higher correctional orientation, and less punitive responses to the conduct scenarios (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980). The findings show custody staff members have significantly lower log odds of selecting a high punitive response for the disorderly conduct scenario, but significantly higher log odds of selecting a high punitive response for a cigarette found in the room/cell scenario. As with the other importation and prisonization variables, the particular conduct situation influences the custody staff person's actions. Surprisingly, the effect of being in a custody position on correctional orientation, professional social



distance, and Bogardus social distance is not statistically significant and contrary to expectations. In this study, scores on the correctional orientation and the social distance measures for custody staff members are not statistically different from those of non-custody staff members. Given the relatively few significant findings in the conduct scenarios, custody and non-custody staff members are responding in a very similar manner to events displayed in the conduct scenarios. This possibly offers some support to the overall impact of workplace socialization on the staff members in the correctional environment.

The shift worked by the correctional staff member was expected to significantly influence correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance, with those working the night shift having more social distance and higher correctional orientation scores (Cullen et al., 1989; VanVoorhis et al., 1991). In part, the opposite was found in this study. Day shift staff members hold significantly higher Bogardus social distance toward offenders than their night shift counterparts, which is contrary to expectations. One possible explanation for this difference may be caused by the amount of offender contact by night shift staff members in medium security due to offender recreation schedules in the evenings causing more offender contact.

In addition, day shift staff members hold significantly higher attitudes of participating in decision-making. As noted earlier, this finding is not surprising since management generally interacts primarily with the day shift, leaving the night shift professionally isolated. One final observation on shift worked by the staff member is the total absence of significant findings of this variable on punitive responses to the conduct

scenarios. The differences in responses from day and night shift correctional workers are not statistically significant, and contrary to hypothesized expectations.

The effect of correctional experience on punitive behavior was expected to be mediated by correctional orientation and social distance (Poole and Regoli, 1980a; Jurik, 1985b; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989). In this study, the number of months of work experience in corrections has no significant impact on punitive responses to the conduct scenarios, nor does it have a significant effect on any of the workplace attitudes or either of the social distance measures. However, months worked in corrections did have a significant negative impact on correctional orientation. This finding is in contrast to earlier studies, where correctional orientation was found to increase with years of experience. One possible explanation for this contradictory finding is that this study surveyed workers in an older more established correctional facility along with those in a relatively new correctional facility. It is possible this correctional experience relationship is U-shaped and occurs only after considerably more experience is obtained in corrections.

The last exogenous prisonization variable is perception of danger. Perception of danger was expected to increase punitive responses to the conduct scenarios, correctional orientation, and social distance of staff members from offenders (Cullen et al., 1989). Perception of danger significantly increases work stress, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance. Conversely, perception of danger significantly decreases peer support and attitudes toward the job. Thus, as expected, perception of danger in the correctional work environment has a significant influence on several variables in this

study. However, totally missing are any significant findings on the log odds for selecting a punitive response to the conduct scenarios. It appears, while staff members may be fearful of some aspects of their working environment, these fears do not affect their response to these conduct scenarios.

The intervening workplace attitude variables have a very limited impact on correctional orientation and social distance measures, and even less impact on punitive responses to the conduct scenarios. Self-efficacy has a significant negative effect on correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance. As hypothesized, those staff members who believe that they can make an effective difference in the correctional environment have significantly lower correctional orientation, professional distance, and Bogardus social distance than those who have lower self-efficacy scores. However, self-efficacy does not have a significant effect on high punitive responses to the conduct scenarios.

Work stress was expected to increase social distance and correctional orientation, while decreasing punitive behavior through employee apathy (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Poole and Regoli, 1980b; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1989). Work stress is not a significant predictor of correctional orientation or professional and Bogardus social distances. Further, work stress does not have a significant effect on the log odds of selecting a high punitive response in the conduct scenarios, with the exception of unauthorized property in the cell. Here, higher work stress scores significantly increase the log odds of selecting a high punitive response. One possible explanation for this contradictory finding may be related to the department's concern over tort claims for

mishandling/losing offender property. The concern over this responsibility may be causing the high punitive response rate found in this study.

The final workplace attitude is attitude toward the job (the combined variable of role conflict, supervisory support, and job satisfaction). Increased or more positive attitudes toward the job were expected to lower social distance, correctional orientation, and punitive behavior (Hepburn and Albonetti, 1980; Poole and Regoli, 1980b; Cullen et al., 1985). Again, like work stress, attitude toward the job yields very few significant findings. The only significant effects are on correctional orientation and the conduct scenario of interfering with count. Positive attitudes toward the job significantly decreased correctional orientation, while having no significant impact on professional or Bogardus social distance. Positive attitudes toward the job are manifested by less rigid attitudes toward the correctional environment, and more rehabilitative values or attitudes by the staff members.

More positive attitudes toward the job were expected to lower punitive responses to the conduct scenarios. Contrary to expectations, the findings for all but one conduct scenario are non-significant. In the interfering with count scenario, more positive attitudes toward the job significantly increase the log odds of selecting a high punitive response. One possible explanation for this unusual finding may be the fact that all staff members are responsible for the offenders remaining incarcerated until they are released (offender accountability). Therefore, accounting for all offenders is a major task and may be influencing staff member attitudes when selecting a punitive response to this conduct scenario.

The last expectations to be discussed are the direct effects of correctional orientation, professional social distance, and Bogardus social distance on the log odds of a high punitive response to the conduct scenarios. Both social distance and correctional orientation variables were hypothesized to significantly increase punitive responses to the conduct scenarios. The findings in this study support these expectations. Correctional orientation significantly increases the log odds of selecting a high punitive response in the cigarette in room, interfering with count, and fleeing staff member scenarios. Professional social distance significantly increases the log odds of selecting a high punitive response in the possession of unauthorized property scenario. Lastly, Bogardus social distance significantly increases the log odds of selecting a high punitive response in the indecent exposure, disorderly behavior, and fleeing staff member scenarios. These findings provide support for the hypothesis that more rigid correctional staff members, and more socially distant staff members, are significantly more likely to select a high punitive response to offender behavior. While this is not an unexpected result, these findings may provide some insight for the department of corrections if the administration wants to have an impact on the number of order maintenance disciplinary reports. A desired impact of the goals and objectives of the department may be achieved by selecting staff members who either hold or reject high correctional orientation, professional social distance, and/or Bogardus social distance attitudes.

### **Limitations of the Study**

One important limitation of the study, especially in terms of generalizability, involves the limited sample and the even more limited response rate. Nearly 1,000 staff

members in two large correctional facilities were provided with the opportunity to participate in this study. However, only 199 useable questionnaires were received, resulting in a total response rate of under 20%. As will be discussed below, one of the reasons for the low response rate is the length of the questionnaire. Further, of the respondents, 90% were white and 70% were male staff members. This limits the generalizations that can be made regarding race and gender due to the very uneven percentages of participants in these categories. In addition, while past research has employed minimum through maximum security as a variable, only medium and maximum-security could be utilized as a variable in this research due to the location of high custody units, since minimum-security facilities lack high custody segregation units. This being the case, it is more difficult to compare the findings in this study to past work using the full continuum of security levels.

The social distance variable has also limited the potential impact of this study. Principal components analysis revealed two distinct dimensions of social distance not previously noted in the literature, nor considered prior to the analysis of the data other than the separation of correctional orientation and social distance. Professional distance and Bogardus distance are two separate attitudes that appear to operate inside the correctional environment. Both of these social distance conceptions must be explored more thoroughly in order to improve our understanding on how they impact staff member punitive actions and to more accurately measure their meaning in social research. Further, the concept of self-efficacy needs to be explored. The relatively low Cronbach's alpha (.518) raises some question as to the reliability of the questions used to measure

this concept in this study. Additionally, these questions focus solely on the effectiveness of improving/changing offender behavior. Staff members may value other correctional goals such as repentance for the crime(s) committed. This being the case, self-efficacy needs to be evaluated and measures designed to match current correctional philosophy and personal objectives of the staff members.

The research instrument has two major limitations. The first limitation involves the length of the instrument. The survey instrument contains more than 100 questions involving demographics, numerous attitude questions, and critical incident scales or conduct scenarios. Criticisms from respondents, both written on the survey instrument and conveyed personally to the researcher, indicate the survey was too lengthy, causing staff members to lose interest or not complete the instrument at all, thus resulting in the low response rate. Measures of concepts need to be limited to four or five questions in order keep the respondent apathy low due to the length of the instrument. Collapsing of role conflict, job satisfaction, and supervisory support into a single *attitude for job* concept may help with the overall reduction of questions in the survey.

A additional factor thought to be a crucial limitation in the study was the use of offender race in the conduct scenarios. Staff members perceived this as an attempt to identify possible racist attitudes or feelings toward offenders. While this was clearly not the intention of the study, this potential concern is more than likely to have had a considerable influence on the selection of punitive responses by the participants in this study, resulting in significant findings in only six of the fifteen conduct scenario equations.

## **Suggestions for Future Research**

There are several issues drawn from this research which need additional study and explanation. First, Bogardus social distance was found to mediate self-efficacy, big city origins, and job attitudes, while self-efficacy was not found to be significant in the conduct scenario equations. Logic would cause one to believe that abilities to make a difference in offenders' lives, such as within many treatment fields, may have a significant impact on decision-making in offender discipline. If the custodial/treatment conflict is still present in corrections, this difference should be seen in non-custody decision-making in disciplinary situations.

Secondly, this study involved two facilities in the state and drew on disciplinary situations that normally do occur in corrections. However, responses to hypothetical situations may not reflect the reality of what would happen in real life. What is needed is a measure of staff member responses to hypothetical situations compared to measures of actual decision-making. Additional variables then could be added to the model and held constant when measuring the effects of these variables in this study. Variables in such a study might include race of the staff member, race of the offender, disciplinary infraction charged versus final finding of guilt on the infraction, number and type of infractions charged but found not-guilty or dismissed by the hearing body, and types of challenges to authority noted in the disciplinary infraction. These variables need to be added to the research model to obtain a better picture of what factors are determining correctional workers' disciplinary decision making.



Conceptually Bogardus social distance and professional social distance need to be explored in more detail. The professional standards that are imposed on correctional staff members through training and workplace socialization undoubtedly mediate the Bogardus social distance, or attitudes a staff member brings to correctional work environment concerning their interactions with offenders. Disciplinary infractions only indicate those willing and able to impose a formal sanction on an offender. Those unwilling to formalized discipline, for whatever reason, will not be measured by simply recording discipline, or attempts at discipline. If correctional authorities wish to understand the mechanisms that drive the disciplinary practices of their employees, these and other questions need to be studied and evaluated.

Alternatively, the results offer some serious doubts as to the value of the importation/prisonization model, and its impact on predicting punitive behavior in the correctional setting. As with most previous research on these models, variance explained remains relatively low. Perhaps a model examining the social interaction between the correctional staff member, offender(s), and the situation or variables in the environment at the time when behavior is determined to require formal discipline may better explain staff member decisions regarding punitive actions toward offenders. For example, are other offenders interacting or witnessing the event that may undermine the correctional authority of the staff member, or, on the other hand, are fellow staff members in place to critique or criticize the staff member for allowing an offender to control the work environment through their behavior or actions? Has the staff member had repeated rule compliance issues with the offender, or is the offender known to be a chronic rule

violator or disruptive influence? Has the staff member had a particularly difficult day and someone “has to pay” for adding to the staff member’s stressful day? Are the presence of higher ranking staff members or working with opposite gender staff members a significant contributor? All of these situations and others may explain or predict staff member actions more accurately given we are generally more than the sum of our individual differences in any given social event. It is likely within a social interaction, what we bring to a social event, and others in and around the event will likely influence, to some degree or extent, the actions or reactions to any correctional situation.

### **Conclusions**

Overall, importation variables are better predictors of staff member behaviors and attitudes than are prisonization variables. The individual differences among the staff members and their personal histories are better indicators of how they will choose to act in an offender disciplinary situation. While the social work environment may shape the staff member, the values the staff member brings into the correctional setting and their attitudes about the correctional setting appear to influence their overall attitudes about the correctional environment. For example, perception of danger and self efficacy are the best predictors of correctional orientation and professional and Bogardus social distance measures.

In conclusion, this study suggests staff members are influenced or directed by variety of their own personal differences, as well as some prisonization factors when it comes time to selecting a type of response to a disciplinary situation. However, importation variables offer more significant findings than do prisonization variables,

particularly age at entry into corrections and prior criminal justice and/or military experience. As noted above, different attitudes or individual variables influence correctional situations differently, so there appears to be no clear predictor to explain punitive behavior by staff members, at least in these hypothetical situations. However, if a correctional agency would desire to change the number of disciplinary reports issued against the offender population, prior criminal justice/military experience by the correctional applicant may be one individual factor to be considered when determining employment. The results here offer some support that this variable may be significantly increasing the frequency of offender discipline in this paramilitary operation.

## Research Questionnaire

### Section A: General Information

Please fill in the blank or circle the letter for the response you want to select. If you make a mistake or wish to change your response, please clearly mark the correct response in the margin next to the question.

A1. What was your age at initial employment in corrections (i.e., employment in a jail or prison)

\_\_\_\_\_?

A2. What is your gender?

1. Male
2. Female

A3. How would you identify yourself by race?

1. White
2. Black
3. Other

A4. How many years (or months, if less than one year) have you worked in corrections (i.e., worked in a jail or prison) \_\_\_\_\_?

A5. What is your highest grade/level of education completed?

1. Less than High School/GED
2. High School/GED
3. Some College \_\_\_\_\_ List number of credit hours.
4. Bachelor's Degree
5. Some Graduate Education \_\_\_\_\_ List number of credit hours
6. Master's Degree
7. Doctorate or Other Advanced Degree

A6. Highest education grade/level achieved by your father?

0. Unknown
1. Less than High School/GED
2. High School/GED
3. Some College \_\_\_\_\_ List number of credit hours.
4. Bachelor's Degree
5. Some Graduate Education \_\_\_\_\_ List number of credit hours
6. Master's Degree
7. Doctorate or Other Advanced Degree

Questionnaire #2 \_\_\_\_\_

Questionnaire #1 \_\_\_\_\_

A7. Highest education grade/level achieved by your mother?

0. Unknown
1. Less than High School/GED
2. High School/GED
3. Some College \_\_\_\_\_ List number of credit hours.
4. Bachelor's Degree
5. Some Graduate Education \_\_\_\_\_ List number of credit hours
6. Master's Degree
7. Doctorate or Other Advanced Degree

A8. How would you best describe the size of the place where you spent the most time growing up?

1. Large City (e.g., Indianapolis)
2. Medium City (e.g., South Bend)
3. Small City (e.g., Michigan City)
4. Small town or rural area (farm or village)

A9. Have you ever served in any branch of the military?

1. Yes
2. No

A10. Have you ever worked in law enforcement?

1. Yes
2. No

A11. Have you ever worked in probation or parole?

1. Yes
2. No

A12. Please identify your current rank or position using one of the follow categories:

1. Correctional Officer
2. Correctional Sergeant
3. Lieutenant or Captain
4. Unit Team Staff (Counselor, Case manager, Unit Manager)
5. Maintenance/Industry Staff
6. Education/Vocation/Library
7. Food Service
8. Recreation or Religious Services
9. Medical/Mental Health
10. Clerical
11. Administration
12. Other: \_\_\_\_\_

A13. Are you currently or have you ever held a position in corrections as a supervisor?

1. Yes
2. No

A14. Please indicate the type of unit/work area you are most commonly assigned (Please select only one):

1. Administrative Office
2. Medical/Religious Services/Helping Programs
3. Education/Vocational
4. Recreation or Yard
5. Food Service
6. Physical plant/Maintenance
7. Industry
8. General Population Unit
9. Administrative/Disciplinary Segregation
10. Protective Custody
11. Tower
12. Other: \_\_\_\_\_

A15. Indicate how long you have worked in the area listed in question #A14 (months or years)

\_\_\_\_\_

A16. Please indicate which is your primary work shift (i.e., the shift you work most often):

1. Days/Mornings
2. Nights/Afternoon

A17. How many months (or years) have you worked this shift: \_\_\_\_\_?

A18. Please estimate the number of hours per week (on the average) you spend in direct contact with offenders:

\_\_\_\_\_

## **Section B: Opinions, Feelings, and Attitudes**

**For this next section, please circle the response that matches how you generally would identify with or respond to the question. (If you make an error or change your mind on an answer, please clearly mark your choice in the margin next to the answers)**

**B1. In general, how much say or influence do you have on what goes on at work?**

1. Considerable influence
2. Some influence
3. Occasional influence
4. Very little influence
5. No influence

**B2. My fellow staff members often blame each other when things go wrong.**

1. Never
2. Once in a great while
3. Sometimes
4. More than they should
5. Almost always

**B3. How satisfied are you with your job performance as a correctional staff person?**

1. Completely
2. For the most part
3. Neither satisfied or dissatisfied
4. Not very much
5. Not at all

**B4. If you have a suggestion for improving your position responsibilities or the overall operation of your work areas, how easy is it for you to get your ideas accepted by your supervisor?**

1. My supervisor is very receptive and implements my ideas.
2. My supervisor is very receptive and implements some of my ideas.
3. My supervisor listens to what I say and considers implementation if conditions allow.
4. My supervisor seems annoyed with my suggestions, but indicates he/she will keep them for future reference.
5. My supervisor tells me that I am not paid to think, but only to follow his/her directions.

**B5. My fellow staff members often compliment someone who has done their job well.**

1. All the time
2. Some of the time
3. Occasionally
4. Seldom
5. Never

- B6. When I'm at work I often feel tense or uptight.
1. All the time
  2. Most of the time
  3. Some of the time
  4. Occasionally
  5. Seldom
- B7. How often do you feel you can influence the decisions of your immediate supervisor regarding operations or policies in your area?
1. All the time
  2. Most of the time
  3. Some of the time
  4. Once in awhile
  5. Not at all
- B8. In general, how well would you say that your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?
1. This job is exactly what I expected.
  2. This job is mostly what I expected, but some aspects were a surprise to me.
  3. This job is only somewhat what I expected.
  4. This job is not what I had expected it to be, but I'm coping.
  5. This job is nowhere near to what I expected it to be and a total mystery to me.
- B9. Knowing what you know now with your career in corrections, if you had to do it over again, would you still take a job in corrections?
1. Yes, I still would
  2. Most likely I would
  3. Maybe, if all the life situations were the same
  4. More likely not
  5. Definitely not
- B10. One of the major problems here is that it is never clear as to who is responsible for doing different jobs.
1. This is very true.
  2. This is true at times.
  3. This is probably an overstatement, but true.
  4. Unclear responsibilities are only an occasional problem.
  5. Responsibilities are very clear and any problems are based on those who fail to accept their responsibility.
- B11. How often does your immediate supervisor ask your opinion when a problem comes up which involves your work area?
1. All the time
  2. Some of the time
  3. Occasionally
  4. Very seldom
  5. Not at all



B12. If a good friend of yours told you they were interested in working in a job like yours for the D.O.C., what would you tell them?

1. This is a good job with good benefits and chance for advancement.
2. The job is stable, with good benefits, but some down sides.
3. This job is not for everyone and should be considered carefully prior to applying.
4. While the pay is reasonable, the negative aspects of this job often outweigh the good.
5. This is a job I would strongly not recommend they take.

B13. If you were free to go to any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be?

1. I would like a position higher in the organization.
2. I would keep the job I now have.
3. I would prefer some other job outside of corrections
4. I would prefer to not work at all (or retire).

\*\*\*\*\*  
Please answer the following questions by selecting *Strongly Agree (SA)*, *Agree (A)*, *Neither Agree or Disagree (N)*, *Disagree (D)*, *Strongly Disagree (SD)*, *Don't Know, No Answer (DK)*  
\*\*\*\*\*

B14. The type of offenders I instruct/supervise in my professional role reduces my effectiveness in changing their behavior.

SA    A    N    D    SD    DK

B15. The best technique for supervising offenders is to remain very distant from them.

SA    A    N    D    SD    DK

B16. The only effective and humane cure to our society's crime problem is to make a strong effort to rehabilitate offenders.

SA    A    N    D    SD    DK

B17. A lot of people I work with get physically injured in the line of duty.

SA    A    N    D    SD    DK

B18. The people I work with often have the importance of their jobs stressed to them by their supervisors.

SA    A    N    D    SD    DK

B19. All that rehabilitation programs have done is to allow criminals who deserve to be punished to get off easily.

SA    A    N    D    SD    DK

- B20. A staff member is told what their job is only when they do something wrong.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B21. Rehabilitating offenders is just as important as making a criminal pay for his crime.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B22. When my supervisors have a dispute with one of my fellow staff members, they usually try to handle it in a friendly supportive way.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B23. The rehabilitation of offenders has proven to be a failure.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B24. I usually feel that I am under a lot of pressure when I am at work.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B25. My involvement with offenders makes a positive difference in their lives.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B26. A good principle is not to get too close to offenders.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B27. Most supervisors are concerned about staff member morale.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B28. An offender will go straight only when he finds that prison life is hard.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B29. In my job, a person stands a good chance of getting hurt.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B30. The only way to reduce crime in our society is to punish offenders, not try to rehabilitate them.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B31. If I show offenders respect, they show me respect in return.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B32. We're damned if we do and damned if we don't.  
SA A N D SD DK

B33. My fellow staff members often encourage each other to do the job in a way that we would be proud of the work we have accomplished.

SA A N D SD DK

B34. Keeping the offenders from causing trouble is my major concern while I'm on the job.

SA A N D SD DK

B35. My supervisors often encourage the people I work with to think of better ways of getting the work done in ways that have never been tried before.

SA A N D SD DK

B36. Only a few offenders are trouble makers, whereas most offenders are decent people to supervise.

SA A N D SD DK

B37. I work in a dangerous job.

SA A N D SD DK

B38. We would be successful if all we taught offenders was a little respect for authority.

SA A N D SD DK

B39. The first loyalty of a correctional staff member is to their co-workers

SA A N D SD DK

B40. No matter how hard one tries, one feels no sense of accomplishment.

SA A N D SD DK

B41. When a problem comes up here, the people I work with seldom agree on how it should be handled.

SA A N D SD DK

B42. My supervisors often encourage us to do the job in a way that we really would be proud of

SA A N D SD DK

B43. Offenders relate better to male staff members than to female staff members.

SA A N D SD DK

B44. I feel confident in my abilities to fulfill the requirements of this job and to make a difference in this place.

SA A N D SD DK

- B45. Rehabilitation programs now being undertaken in our prison system will make offenders better citizens when released.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B46. When problems arise between staff and offenders, the administration usually supports the staff.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B47. The average staff member would change professions if they had a chance.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B48. Sleep 'em, feed 'em, and work 'em hard is the best way to handle offenders.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B49. Criminals are not victims of society who deserve to be rehabilitated.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B50. My fellow staff members spend hardly any time helping me work myself up to a better job by showing me how to improve my performance.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B51. If you become too friendly with offenders, you will not be able to perform your job correctly.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B52. There is really not much chance of getting hurt in my job.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B53. Most of the time when I am at work, I don't feel that I have much to worry about.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B54. My supervisors often encourage the people I work with if they do their jobs well.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B55. The rehabilitation of adult offenders does not work.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B56. There are so many people telling us what to do here that you never can be sure who is the boss.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK

- B57. I expected to have a chance to be creative with my skills and abilities in order to change offender behavior.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B58. My supervisors often blame others when things go wrong, which are possibly not the fault of those blamed.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B59. A lot of times, my job makes me very frustrated or angry.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B60. To make a difference in an offender's life, staff members must get to understand and respect offenders as human beings.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B61. The rules we have to follow here never seem to be very clear.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B62. My fellow staff members often encourage each other to think of better ways of getting the work done which may never have been thought of before.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B63. Many people don't realize it, but prisons today are too soft on offenders.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B64. I'm usually calm and at ease when I am working.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B65. The Department does not really support my suggestions relating to my job or the operation of the facility.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B66. My job is a lot more dangerous than other kinds of jobs at this facility.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B67. It is bad enough that I have to work with offenders, but one living in my community is unacceptable.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK
- B68. The rules and regulations are clear enough here that I know specifically what I can and cannot do.
- SA    A    N    D    SD    DK

- B69. There are a lot of aspects about my job that can make me pretty upset about things.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B70. In general, my supervisors are more sympathetic to problems of offenders than to problems of correctional officers.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B71. Staff members and offenders of the same race have fewer interpersonal problems than staff members and offenders of different races.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B72. If a staff member does good work, they get recognition.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B73. A problem in this profession is that no one really knows what their fellow staff members are doing.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B74. A criminal should be punished first, then we can worry about reform.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B75. You don't know from one day to the next how the administration expects you to act.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B76. Offenders are much like the people I knew in school.  
SA A N D SD DK
- B77. If one of my family members would end up in prison, they should be treated like any other offender.  
SA A N D SD DK

\*\*\*\*\*

## Section C: Conduct Scenarios

This last section of the questionnaire contains descriptions of situations that are common in a correctional setting. These questions do not have a right or wrong answer, nor do they contain all the possible actions and/or responses that a correctional staff person may have when encountering these situations on the job. Further, they are not likely to contain any or all of the triggers that would guide your decisions when disciplining an offender. Based on the facts given in each case, please answer each question to reflect how you normally would respond to the event.

**Please circle the letter(s) for the response(s) which best fit(s) your typical reaction(s) to the following situations.**

- C1.** While performing a routine shakedown on a Hispanic offender with whom you have had frequent contacts, you find a cigarette butt under his bed in an area where others could have had access. Your previous contact with this offender has been civil with no obvious disrespect to yourself or fellow staff members. You would:
1. Confront the offender about the cigarette in his cell and see if you can smell tobacco in the area.
  2. Formally document the incident through a confiscation, noting that others could have had access to the tobacco product.
  3. Thoroughly inspect the remainder of his cell looking for other contraband.
  4. Complete an Informal Conduct Report giving the offender 20 hours of extra duty.
  5. Write a disciplinary report charging the offender.
  6. Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_
- C2.** You search a young White offender who has a history of substance abuse and self-mutilation. During your search, you find ten (10) Benedryl capsules commonly used for allergies. The offender states he has just gotten over a cold, and you recall he had cold symptoms two weeks earlier. You would:
1. Say nothing.
  2. Confiscate the capsules.
  3. Inform mental health and medial.
  4. Complete an informal discipline report and
  5. Write a formal disciplinary report.
  6. Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

C3. You are inspecting the cell of an offender who consistently argues and shows disrespect toward staff members. A big ball game is on television in an hour and you discover he is in possession of another offender's television. You also note the television belongs to another offender who rarely causes a management problem. The offender possessing the television also begs you to let him keep the television until after the game, promising better conduct in the future. You would:

1. Leave the television in the cell until after the game, telling him he owes you one.
  2. Advise the offender you have no choice but to immediately return the television to the rightful owner.
  3. Confiscate the television without further action.
  4. Write a disciplinary report against the offender who "borrowed" the television.
  5. Write a disciplinary report against both offenders for giving and loaning property.
  6. Other, please specify:
- 

C4. An older African American offender who you have worked with and supervised in the past is behaving in an unusual manner. You tell him to pick up trash in his cell, but he looks at you and ignores your instructions. You would:

1. Ignore his behavior on account of he probably is just having a bad day.
  2. A few minutes later, take the offender aside and discuss his attitude and reasons for not following your instructions.
  3. Immediately confront his behavior, reminding the offender that he generally follows your instructions and 'what gives?'
  4. After a period of no response to your instructions, approach the offender with an informal conduct report.
  5. Issue a formal disciplinary report for refusing your order.
  6. Other, please specify:
- 

C5. A newly-arrived young White offender is attempting to take a shower too close to count time. You tell him he doesn't have enough time to shower and will have to wait until after count clears. He complies with your order, but while walking back to his living area he says, "You're a real hard-ass fucking bitch." You would:

1. Ignore the comment since the offender complied with your order.
  2. Yell back to the offender to shut his mouth before he ends up in trouble.
  3. Seriously admonish him by telling him you neither deserved nor will tolerate such comments.
  4. Tell him he has an informal disciplinary report and twenty hours extra duty.
  5. Write a disciplinary report for insolence and vulgarity.
  6. Other, please specify:
-



C6. You are walking the range making your 3:30 count and an older Hispanic offender is using his toilet making no attempt to cover himself. You recall that you had warned this offender about this type of behavior some months earlier. You would:

1. Say nothing to the offender since he obviously doesn't care.
  2. Remind him again to cover himself.
  3. Very sternly tell the offender his behavior is disrespectful and inexcusable.
  4. Tell the offender he has been warned and issue a disciplinary report.
  5. Tell the offender you will contact the shift supervisor to ask to have him segregated.
  6. Other, please specify:
- 

C7. A White offender from your cellhouse is on the walk and you confront him concerning his reason for being on the walk. He claims he was released from the cellhouse to pick up his commissary. You are in the cellhouse later and the offender returns to the cellhouse with a laundry bag and no commissary. You would:

1. Say nothing since another staff member released him from the cellhouse in the first place.
  2. Confront the offender concerning his laundry and thoroughly shake down his bag.
  3. Challenge the offender for lying to you and tell him not to do it again.
  4. Confiscate his bag for inspection and tell him he will receive a disciplinary report for lying.
  5. Contact the yard sergeant to have the offender strip searched, followed by a disciplinary report.
  6. Other, please specify:
- 

C8. Several African American offenders with dreadlocks are found in a back classroom in education when no class activities are scheduled. You notice a Koran and several articles and other documents on the table that appear to discuss slavery, American History, and other academic material. You would:

1. Say nothing since their activity appears to be educational.
  2. Note the activity and advise the offenders they need approval from the Supervisor of Education to continue to use the education building for their information exchange.
  3. Document the names of the offenders and tell them to leave.
  4. Report the incident to the shift supervisor.
  5. Issue a disciplinary report for unauthorized gathering, and report the activity to the security threat group coordinator.
  6. Other, please specify:
-

- C9. The officer-in-charge has called count time for the cellhouse to be secured at the end of a long and tiring day. Several offenders are not in their assigned beds. You arrived on the range and note your usual "slow walkers" and one newly-arrived offender out of their cells. You would:
1. Get the offenders in their cells so as to not delay count any further.
  2. Yell at and admonish the offenders for not being in their cells on time.
  3. Give every offender an Informal Conduct Report with extra duty.
  4. Verbally reprimand the new offender and write-up the other offenders not in their cells.
  5. Draft Conduct Reports on all the offenders out of their cells after count had started.
  6. Other, please specify:
- 
- C10. Four African American offenders are out in the work area pushing each other, cursing and yelling at each other very loudly. You notice they are in aggressive stances, but when not seeing continuation of the interaction one would expect in a fight, you decide they are horse-playing. You call over and tell them to stop, but they continue acting like they don't hear you. You would:
1. Approach them and provide a similar demeaning response in the same manner as their interaction.
  2. Tell them to break up the gathering.
  3. Tell them this behavior is inappropriate since all offenders are affected by their loud boisterous display.
  4. Tell them to stand against the wall to be pat searched.
  5. Gather all four identification cards to write a disciplinary report for disorderly conduct.
  6. Other, please specify:
- 
- C11. You are working in a cellhouse and notice an older White offender attempting to use the telephone. You know he is on a telephone restriction from a prior disciplinary action. This offender has had some sporadic discipline problems, but has not been as difficult as other offenders in your house. He notices you approaching, so he hangs up the phone and walks away. You would:
1. Ignore the action since he did not force a confrontation.
  2. Call the offender over to you to ask him if he was still on restriction in order to let him know he is not getting away with 'games.'
  3. Call the offender over to 'shake him down' to see if he used another offender's PIN access number to circumvent the restriction.
  4. Issue an Informal Conduct Report for attempting to access the telephone while on restriction.
  5. Issue a formal Conduct Report for attempting to access the telephone while on restriction.
  6. Other, please specify:
-

C12. A couple of young Hispanic offenders are on the walk a short distance away from you, and you notice they are trying very hard not to be obvious about watching how close you are to them and what they are doing. It appears they exchange something between them and you call to them to stop. They start running and turn the corner of a building and stop just out of your sight. When you arrive they are laughing and standing there with their arms out waiting to be searched. You would:

1. Ignore the situation feeling they were purposely leading you on.
  2. Obtain their identification while shaking them down for contraband.
  3. Contact the yard staff to strip search the offenders.
  4. Strip search the offenders and have their cells searched for contraband.
  5. Write a Conduct Report.
  6. Other, please specify:
- 

C13. You approach two young White offenders carrying bags. You discover a *Walkman* has been disassembled and several blue and black pens in one of the bags. The other bag contains several magazines related to rock and roll stars, motorbikes, and tattoo artistry. You would:

1. Ignore the items as being inconsequential.
  2. Question the offenders about the disassembled *Walkman* and, if no reasonable response is provided, confiscate the *Walkman*.
  3. Have them remove their shirts to examine them for 'new starts,' outlines, or other tattoos.
  4. Forward the magazines and pens to the Security Threat Group Coordinator to determine if a S.T.G. violation was in progress.
  5. Write a Conduct Report for possession of tattooing paraphernalia, and copy your documents to the Security Threat Group Coordinator.
  6. Other, please specify:
- 

C14. You are doing a routine shake down of a middle-aged African American offender's cell. He is fairly quiet fellow and never interacts much with the other offenders. The offender used to work in the Dining Room but has been reclassified to another job for some time. As you proceed with your shake down you notice numerous items that have been altered to be used as tools and other non-threatening devices. You also notice he has a considerable amount of white clothing used by dining room workers that should have been returned after he left that job assignment. You would:

1. Ignore the excess property.
  2. Tell him to return the "whites" and confiscate the altered items.
  3. Confiscate the "whites."
  4. Issue an Informal Conduct Report for the unauthorized clothing.
  5. Issue a formal Conduct Report for the unauthorized clothing and the other altered items.
  6. Other, please specify:
-

C15. Offenders have been complaining about an older White offender in the shop. They have told you he never bathes, washes his clothes, or cleans his cell. You confront the offender and the smell of dirty clothing about takes your breath away. You would:

1. Arrange for new clothing to be issued to the offender and take him to the shower, making him use soap on his body. You further tell him you will follow up at least every other day to guarantee he remains clean.
2. Refer him to mental health.
3. Tell the offender he stinks and that he had better straighten up or the other offenders may do something to him.
4. Tell the offender his behavior and cleanliness is his responsibility and to force his compliance issue an Informal Conduct Report with 20 hours extra work cleaning the showers.
5. Issue a formal Conduct Report for being unsanitary.
6. Other, please specify:  
\_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this survey.**

# WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY



Human Subjects Institutional Review Board

Date: April 19, 2004

To: Susan Carlson, Principal Investigator  
William Hartley, Student Investigator for Dissertation

From: Mary Lagerwey, Ph.D., Chair

*Mary Lagerwey*

Re: HSIRB Project Number: 04-04-01

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project entitled "Importation and Prisonization Models of Corrections Workers' Attitudes and Behaviors: An Empirical Examination of Social Distance, Correctional Orientation, and Punitive Behavior within a Maximum Security Prison" has been approved under the expedited category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

Please note that you may only conduct this research exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date noted below. In addition if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: April 19, 2005

Walwood Hall, Kalamazoo, MI 49008-5456  
PHONE: (269) 387-8293 FAX: (269) 387-8276

# WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY



Human Subjects Institutional Review Board

Date: August 4, 2004

To: Susan Carlson, Principal Investigator  
William Hartley, Student Investigator for dissertation

From: Amy Naugle, Interim Chair

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Amy Naugle", is written over the printed name.

Re: HSIRB Project Number: 04-04-01

This letter will serve as confirmation that the changes to your research project "Importation and Prisonization Models of Corrections Workers' Attitudes and Behaviors: An Empirical Examination of Social Distance, Correctional Orientation and Punitive Behavior within a Maximum Security Prison" requested in your memo dated 8/3/2004 (Miami Correctional Facility as a second data collection site) has been approved by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board.

The conditions and the duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University.

Please note that you may only conduct this research exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date noted below. In addition if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: April 19, 2005

**WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY**  
**Human Subjects Institutional Review Board**  
 WMU Mail Stop: 5456 Phone: (269) 387-8293

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MAR 18 2005

**APPLICATION FOR CONTINUING REVIEW OR FINAL REPORT FORM****H.S.I.R.B.**

In compliance with Western Michigan University's policy that "the HSIRB's review of research will be conducted at appropriate intervals but not less than once per year," the HSIRB requests the following information:

**I. PROJECT INFORMATION**

**PROJECT TITLE:** Importation and Prisonization Models of Corrections Workers' Attitudes and Behaviors: An Empirical Examination of Social Distance, Correctional Orientation, and Punitive Behavior within a Maximum Security Prison

**HSIRB Project Number:** 04-04-01

Previous level of review: ☐ Full Board Review ☒ Expedited Review ☐ Administrative (Exempt) Review

Date of Review Request: 03/08/05

Date of Last Approval: 04/19/04

**II. INVESTIGATOR INFORMATION****PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR OR ADVISOR**

Name: Susan M. Carlson

Department: SOC Mail Stop: 5257

Electronic Mail Address: susan.carlson@wmich.edu

**(1) CO-PRINCIPAL OR STUDENT INVESTIGATOR**

Name: William J. Hartley

Department: SOC Mail Stop:

whartley@mcf.doc.state.in.us

Electronic Mail Address:

**(2) CO-PRINCIPAL OR STUDENT INVESTIGATOR**

Name:

Department:

Mail Stop:

Electronic Mail Address:

**III. CURRENT STATUS OF RESEARCH PROJECT**

Please answer questions 1-4 to determine if this project requires continuing review by the HSIRB.

1. The project is closed to recruitment of new subjects.  
☒ Yes (Date of last enrollment: 10/04) ☐ No (Project must be reviewed for renewal.)
  2. All subjects have completed research related interventions.  
☐ Yes ☒ Not Applicable ☐ No (Project must be reviewed for renewal.)
  3. Long-term follow-up of subjects has been completed.  
☐ Yes ☒ Not Applicable ☐ No (Project must be reviewed for renewal.)
  4. Analysis of data is complete.  
☐ Yes ☒ No (Project must be reviewed for renewal.)
- If you have answered "No" to ANY of the questions above, you must apply for Continuing Review. Please complete numbers 5-12 on page 2. If you need to make changes in your protocol, please submit a separate memo detailing the changes that you are requesting.
  - If you have answered "Yes" or "Not Applicable" to ALL of the above questions, the project may be closed.
  - If your protocol has been open for three years and you still want to collect or analyze data, you must close this protocol by filing a final report using this form and apply for approval of a new protocol using an Application for Initial Review. Please make a Final Report on your project by completing numbers 5-9 on page 2.

IV. ☒ Application for Continuing Review

V. ☐ Final Report

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HSIRB Project Number: 04-04-01

5. Have there been changes in Principal or Co-Principal Investigators? ☐ Yes ☒ No  
(If yes, provide details on an "Additional Investigators" form (available at the HSIRB web site, [http://www.wmich.edu/research/compliance/hsirb/hsirb\\_2.html](http://www.wmich.edu/research/compliance/hsirb/hsirb_2.html).)
6. Has the approved protocol been modified or added to with respect to:  
(If yes to any item below, provide the details on an attached sheet.)
- |                    |                              |  |
|--------------------|------------------------------|--|
| a. Procedures      | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No |
| b. Subjects        | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No |
| c. Design          | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No |
| d. Data collection | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No |
7. Has any instrumentation been modified or added to the protocol? ☐ Yes ☒ No  
(If yes, attach new instrumentation or indicate the modifications made.)
8. Have there been any adverse events that need to be reported to the HSIRB? ☐ Yes ☒ No  
(If yes, provide details on an attached sheet.)
9. Total number of subjects approved in original protocol: 00995
10. Total number of subjects enrolled so far: 00199  
If applicable: Number of subjects in experimental group:      Number in control group:
- If this is a FINAL REPORT you may stop here and return the form electronically.
  - If this is an APPLICATION FOR CONTINUING REVIEW continue with numbers 10-12 below.
11. Estimated number of subjects yet to be enrolled: 00000
12. Verification of Consent Procedure: Provide copies of the consent documents signed by the last two subjects enrolled in the project. Cover the signature in such a way that the name is not clear but there is evidence of signature. If subjects are not required to sign the consent document, provide a copy of the most current consent document being used.
13. If you are continuing to recruit subjects for this project, please remember to include a clean original of the consent documents to receive a renewed approval stamp.

Principal Investigator/Faculty Advisor Signature

Date

3-15-05

Co-Principal or Student Investigator Signature

Date

3-10-05

Approved by the HSIRB:

HSIRB Chair Signature

Date

3-21-05

Western Michigan University  
Human Subject Institutional Review Board - Mail Stop 5456

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