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A TASK ANALYSIS OF CORRECTIONAL WORK: IMPLICATIONS FOR MECHANISTIC AND ORGANIC ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

by

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

A major problem for American government and society involves reconciling the explosive demand for jails and prisons with declining fiscal resources (Hall, 1987). Budget cutbacks limit the resources available to staff institutions, and therefore administrators must be concerned with improving productivity and job performance. The professional demands on correctional staff increase as sophisticated classification systems are implemented, along with varied programs necessary for the diverse inmate population and operational concepts such as direct supervision and unit management (Rosen and Gilbert, 1987). These programs and procedures require better training for correctional staff, related clearly to these new challenges. As corrections enters an era of more demanding performance with reduced resources, one must ask if the role of the officer is clearly defined, and if that role varies in different types of institutions?

In the on-going debate of "What Works in Corrections?", we may overlook a very valuable resource, the officer, and how that officer functions in different organizational structures. The officer is in constant demand to provide supervision and related correctional services, yet many correctional officers lack proper training and support to accomplish their job responsibilities (Gilbert, 1987). According to recent research, the vast majority of training

conducted in the correctional facilities is not based on job-task analysis, which leads to uncertainty about its validity, and the actual job functions of correctional officers (Benton, 1988).

According to Samaha (1991), the selection of correctional officers in many systems gives high priority to physical standards, and yet empirical data do not indicate that correctional supervision requires this premium on physical strength. According to Hawkins (1976), the insistence on certain physical standards that restrict the selection of potentially qualified employees is a mistake. Hawkins goes further to state that the officer's control over an inmate depends primarily on his skills of persuasion and leadership, and that skill in interpersonal relations is crucial.

Correctional officers perform critical functions in all types of facilities, under varied conditions. According to Jacobs (1983), they supervise living, work, dining and recreation areas; transport prisoners to various locations; serve on disciplinary boards; and sit in towers and protect gates. According to Clear and Cole (1990, chap. 10) during recent decades, most correctional systems have had to contend with the fact that the role officers are expected to play is not clear, especially when both custodial and treatment goals are set. Is the concept of the correctional officer's role empirically based, or based merely on lore? If the officer is critical to the successful operations of

the facility, is it not critical to empirically determine the roles they perform, so that they can be better prepared for these roles?

Lombardo (1978) suggests that the correctional officer is likely to be assigned to one of seven types of positions, as follows: block officers; work detail officers; school and industrial shop officers; yard officers; administrative building officers; wall officers; and relief officers. However, Clear and Cole (1990), state that since 1970 most states have developed programs for new correctional officers, that are modeled on the police training academies. These programs give recruits at least rudimentary knowledge of their work and familiarity with the rules governing corrections, but the classroom work bears little resemblance to the problems that they will confront in the cell block and yard. The training literature reviewed by Gilbert (1987), states that much of the training in corrections is not based on job-task analysis, and the summary of the National Survey conducted in July of 1987, by Benton and Nesbitt showed that although 96% of those agencies surveyed provide on the average of 179 hours of initial or pre-service training, only 63% responded that this training was based on job-task analysis. Of the 92% who provide an average of 35 hours of annual inservice training, 47% responded that this training was based on job-task analysis. If much of the training is not based on job-task analysis and training academies are being modeled after police

academies, are correctional officers adequately prepared for their jobs, without the knowledge of the actual roles they play, and the tasks that they perform?

Today, correctional work and correctional organizations are still characterized in much of the professional and academic literature in terms that fit traditional mechanistic organizational theories: highly structured and authoritarian organizations, where the correctional officers perform routinized tasks. Much of the professional literature suggests however, that correctional organizations are in a process of fundamental change, as seen in the the operational concepts of unit management and direct supervision, where the facility is organized around units, (pods, modules, wing, ward, or other residential unit) and the officers in the units directly supervise and interact with the inmates on a regular basis.

This dissertation examines a basic feature of that change: the evolution of the structure of correctional organizations from traditional mechanistic to a complex and dynamic organizational structure, previously seen in hospital and other sophisticated, professional service-delivery systems. This change is mirrored in the work of correctional officers themselves.

This study will attempt to develop a reconceptualization of the correctional officer role as a complex set of speciality roles that interact, by answering the following research questions:

1. Can the implied role or the theoretical concept of types of positions reflected in the literature be identified empirically?

2. If these roles can not be identified empirically, can an alternative conceptualization of the correctional officer role be empirically derived, and if so, what implications might that have for training, job enrichment, job design, and organizational design?

3. Once identified, how do these roles vary among different types of institutions and different individual characteristics of officers? (Size, security level, level of education and gender of officer, etc.).

4. Do the predominant task attributes of the identified roles correspond to the functional processes associated with mechanistic or organic organizational structures? Do different roles imply different structural features?

The second chapter of this dissertation contains a review of the corrections literature, as well as organizational theory literature. Chapter three includes a discussion of the research methods used to conduct the study, as well as a description of the data. Chapter four provides a presentation and analysis of the data, and the concluding chapter discusses patterns found in the research and implications for current literature and training, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This dissertation will attempt to empirically validate the role of the correctional officer in the correctional institution, and examine how that role varies among different types of institutions. The implications for training, and areas such as job enrichment and job design may be numerous. Much of the current literature speaks to the issues of lack of clarity of the officer's role, and lack of assessment based training, but fails to examine the role(s), or examine how they may vary within different types of institutions, based on such variables as size, or security level.

The literature to be reviewed will include literature on organizational theory; the significance of the correctional officer's role in the institution; job design and job enrichment; and training literature. A review of organizational theory literature is necessary to explore how roles may differ, depending on the structure of the individual institution. The literature on the officer's role is critical to the main focus of the study, determining the actual role(s) of the officer in the institution. A review of the job design, job enrichment, and training literature is necessary in order to determine the implications for these areas, as a result of the research findings.

A. Organizational Theory

While the general literature on organizational theory,

particularly the major theories of Classical, Neo-Classical, Human Resource, Systems, and Modern Structural Theory provide context for this study, the Modern Structural theory seems to have particular relevance. Modern Structural theory has been influenced by Neo-classical, Human Resource, and Systems theories, and has its roots in the thinking of Fayol, Taylor, Galick, and Weber (Shafritz and Ott, 1992, pp. 201-216). Bolman and Deal (1984) identify the basic assumptions of the "modern" structural school as:

1. Organizations are rational institutions whose primary purpose is to accomplish established objectives; rational organizational behavior is achieved best through systems of defined rules and formal authority. Organizational control and coordination are key to maintaining organizational rationality.

2. There is a "best" structure for any organization- or at least a most appropriate structure - in light of its given objectives, the environmental conditions surrounding it (for example, its markets, the competition, and the extent of government regulation), the nature of its products and/or services (the "best" structure for a management consulting firm probably is substantially different from that for a certified public accounting firm), and the technology of the production processes (a coal mining company has a different "best structure" than the "high tech" manufacturer of computer microcomponents).

3. Specialization and the division of labor increase the quality and quantity of production, particularily in highly skilled operations and professions.

4. Certain problems in an organization result from the structural flaws and can be solved by changing the structure.

"Modern" structural organization theory addresses the practical issues that surround the question of how an

organization is structured, what does it look like, how will it work, and how will it deal with structural questions of specialization, departmentalization, span of control, and the coordination and control of specialized units? (Shafritz and Ott, 1992).

The literature by Burns and Stalker (1961) on the use of mechanistic and organic systems of organization is particularly relevant. The authors state that there are two management systems which represent the two polar extremes of the forms which organizational systems can take, and these are referred to as the mechanistic and organic systems.

The mechanistic form is seen when there are "stable" conditions, and it is characterized by a traditional pattern of hierarchy, reliance on formal rules and regulations, accompanied by standard decision-making. In more dynamic conditions, where the environment changes rapidly, there is less rigidity, more participation by staff, and more reliance on workers to define problems. This form is known as the organic form of organization. While organic systems are not hierarchic in the same manner as are mechanistic, they remain stratified. Positions are differentiated according to seniority - i.e. greater expertise.

According to Burns and Stalker a mechanistic management system is appropriate to stable conditions, and is characterized by:

(a) the specialized differentiation of functional tasks into which the problems and tasks facing the concern as a whole are broken down;

(b) the abstract nature of each individual task, which is pursued with techniques and purposes more or less distinct from those of the concern as a whole; i.e. the functionaries tend to pursue the technical improvement of means, rather than the accomplishment of the ends of the concern;

(c) the reconciliation, for each level in the hierarchy, of these distinct performances by the immediate superiors, who are also, in turn, responsible for seeing that each is relevant in his own special part of the main task.

(d) the precise definition of rights and obligations and technical methods attached to each functional role;

(e) the translation of rights and obligations and methods into the responsibilities of a functional position;

(f) hierarchic structure of control, authority, and communication;

(g) a reinforcement of the hierarchic structure by the location of knowledge of actualities exclusively at the top of the hierarchy, where the final reconciliation of distinct tasks and assessment of relevance is made.

(h) a tendency for interaction between members of the concern to be vertical, i.e. between superior and subordinate;

(i) a tendency for operations and working behavior to be governed by the instructions and decisions issued by superiors;

(j) insistence on loyalty to the concern and obedience to superiors as a condition of membership;

(k) a greater importance and prestige attachment to internal (local) than to general (cosmopolitan) knowledge, experience, and skill.

On the other hand, according to Stalker and Burns the organic form is appropriate to changing conditions, which give rise constantly to fresh problems and unforeseen requirements for action which cannot be broken down or

distributed automatically arising from the functional roles defined within a hierarchic structure, and is characterized by:

(a) the contributive nature of special knowledge and experience to the common task of the concern;

(b) the "realistic" nature of the individual task, which is seen as set by the total situation of the concern;

(c) the adjustment and continual redefinition of individual tasks through interaction with others;

(d) the shedding of "responsibility" as a limited field of rights, obligations, and methods. (Problems may not be posted upwards, downwards or sideways as being someone else's responsibility);

(e) the spread of commitment to the concern beyond any technical definition;

(f) a network structure of control, authority, and communication. The sanctions which apply to the individual's conduct in his working role derive more from presumed community of interest with the rest of the working organization in the survival and growth of the firm, and less from a contractual relationship between himself and a nonpersonal corporation, represented for him by an immediate superior;

(g) omniscience no longer imputed to the head of the concern; knowledge about the technical and cial nature of the here and now task may be located anywhere in the network; this location becoming the ad hoc center of control authority and communication;

(h) a lateral rather than a vertical direction of communication through the organization, communication between people of different rank, also, resembling consultation rather than command;

(i) a content of communication which consists of information and advice rather than instructions and decisions;

(j) commitment to the concern's task and to the

"technological ethos" of material progress and expansion is more highly valued than loyalty and obedience;

(k) importance and prestige attach to affiliations and expertise valid in the industrial and technical and commercial milieux external to the firm.

In considering the corrections field, and the roles of the officers in the institutions, it is important to look at the structure of the institutions and the effect this may have on the actual role(s) of the officers in the facility. By looking at the various tasks that the officers perform, and matching these with attributes of mechanistic and organic forms of organization, one can learn a great deal about the influence of organizational structure on the role of the officer in the institution.

B. Significance of Correctional Officer Work

Studies have consistently recognized that many of the problems facing contemporary corrections involve personnel matters (Kerle and Ford, 1982). In Kerle and Ford's 1982 study of 2,600 jails, administrators listed personnel issues as the most serious problem facing their facility. While Benton (1988) observed that the problem of space was a major problem in the 1970's and 1980's, he predicted that the shortage of qualified and motivated personnel would be a critical problem for the 1990's.

According to Gondles (1987) the officer is a critical resource for the successful operations of the facility. Barrington (1988) states that correctional facilities run smoothly largely because of the actions of the correctional

officers. Bowker (1982, chap. 8) perceives correctional officers as the largest and most important category of staff members in correctional institutions. Morris (1988) tends to support these views, as he describes correctional officers as leaders and supervisors, working the front lines of the facility, supervising and directing inmates. It is obvious from the literature and the nature of corrections work that the correctional officer will have the most contact with the inmates on a daily basis, and therefore can be considered essential to the successful operations of the facility. The recruitment, development, and retention of staff is a critical challenge to administrators in the field. The significance of correctional officer work is well established in this literature.

C. Job Design and Job Enrichment

The implications for job enrichment and job design may be numerous. Enriched jobs would be more consistent within an organic system of organization. There is some evidence that correctional work can be redesigned to be more satisfying, and that it can be more productive as well. According to Poole and Pogrebin (1991), during the past decade correctional administrators have been faced with the pressures of functioning with reduced revenues, while expanding types and levels of services. They stress the need for reconceptualization of the correctional organization and management, as they relate to improved personnel utilization. This literature deals mainly with personnel

utilization in jails, as opposed to prisons, but some correlations to prisons are possible. Rosen and Gilbert (1987) stress that the correctional personnel are the most important resource of the agency, and they are capable, competent, and motivated people when provided with the opportunity to legitimately participate in the decision making process. Their literature does not discuss in detail how to redesign the work of the officer in order to achieve greater satisfaction. How do we redesign their work to get them more involved, so that the work is more satisfying, when much of the training literature implies that we know little about actual job roles, due to the lack of adequate job-task analysis? Most of the common role conceptualizations and job designs for correctional work, are inconsistent with the following literature on job design and enrichment.

According to Mitchell (1982) the concept of job enrichment entails both horizontal and vertical restructuring of jobs, in an effort to increase meaningfulness and satisfaction at work. The job is upgraded when new skills and abilities can be used. Mitchell describes the principle of vertical job loading as jobs in which the following conditions exist: there is less direct control of employees, with emphasis on results; personal accountability is increased, and the individual is responsible for his or her actions; whenever possible complete units are assigned, and individuals perform a whole task; there is greater

freedom on the job, and access to information; and the upgrading of employee skills is emphasized, with new and challenging tasks frequently assigned. The corrections literature to date has not established whether correctional officer work involves the responsibility of whole tasks.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) suggest in their theory of job enrichment that certain core job dimensions have an impact on the number of psychological states, which in turn relate to behavior on the job. According to Hackman and Oldman the job inputs (skill variety; task identity; task significance; autonomy and feedback), will create psychological states (meaningfulness of work, felt responsibility, knowledge of results), and these states will effect job outcomes (high levels of motivation and satisfaction, high levels of work performance, and low levels of absenteeism and turnover).

According to Mitchell in the enriched job, the employee has more responsibility and discretion: there is feedback on performance; communication is 2-way; and there is some attempt at having an individual do a whole job. Kantor (1981) supports this idea of "whole jobs" and states that whole tasks involve a clear territory, and can provide a sense of accomplishment; improved information flow; a chance to exercise responsibility for some decisions; and frequent and timely feedback about performance.

According to Rosen and Gilbert (1987) it is possible to determine just what jobs in an organization are dissatis-

fying and to redesign those jobs to make them more satisfying. This literature does not establish the results of any studies done in this area, but the authors suggest that it would be possible to determine those jobs that were dissatisfying, through the use of various questionnaires, interviews, and observations. According to Bradford and Cohen (1984) in most organizations task complexity and work interdependence already potentially exist, and have been either designed away or around. They state that much of what managers do can in fact be given to subordinates, who are closer to the problems, thereby enriching their jobs, and increasing job challenge and task interdependence. In corrections the line officer is most probably the closest to the problems, yet the preceding literature reveals that they have little job autonomy and satisfaction. This literature falls short of establishing whether this is from the intrinsic nature of the job, or from the job design. Based on Bradford and Cohen's work, it would be relevant to ask if task complexity exists in correctional work, but has been designed away?

D. Training

To reinforce a reconceptualization and redesign of the correctional officers work, correctional training will be a critical component. Training will have to be related to actual needs for skills and information, and will have to adapt to alternate designs and conceptualizations of

correctional work. According to the literature, there is a lack of training based on needs and job task analyses.

According to Gilbert (1987) staff supervision and training are the most important management tools for determining the quality of an individual's and organization's performance. Gilbert states that while the need for and importance of staff training has been established for corrections, there are many correctional agencies that do not conduct staff training as a critical management function. One of the major problems in the area of training in corrections is that the programs are often based on assumed needs, rather than on valid needs assessment and job task analyses (Benton, 1988; Gilbert, 1987). The literature by Gilbert is an excellent overview of the critical need for valid training programs in corrections, and establishes the fact that training has progressed over the years, but still has great room for growth.

The personnel literature and research surrounding training, suggests that training is critical to an employee's and organization's success. According to Mitchell (1982) training is basically learning, and an attempt by an organization to change the behavior of its members through the learning process, in order to increase effectiveness. Wehrenberg (1984) defines training as the effort to increase the level or range of skill of employees in order to improve their job performance. Leibowitz, Farrem, and Kaye (1986) found that training, development,

and education enable employees to update skills, acquire new capabilities, enrich current jobs, and in general pursue their career goals successfully. All of these authors stress the potential of training, if designed properly, for helping enhance worker productivity and job satisfaction.

The research indicates that training and development programs must be based on needs (Leibowitz et al., 1986; Walker, 1973). Leibowitz et al. (1986) also states that training, development, and education link clearly to a wide variety of specific needs and problems of certain target groups. If skills are not current, they need training so they can progress; if new technology is introduced, new skills are needed; and if an employee has reached a plateau with their job, training can be focused toward job enrichment, and new directions (Leibowitz et al. 1986).

According to Mitchell (1982) training should be based on job task analyses, and if designed properly, can increase the skills and abilities of employees, and it can increase their motivation by increasing their sense of commitment, and by encouraging people to develop and use new skills. Training according to Mitchell is a powerful tool, and has the ability to increase both productivity, and morale if properly designed and used. These studies strongly indicate that the reconceptualization and redesign of correctional training programs must be based on job task analysis and needs assessments.

Job enrichment and training data has enjoyed much success in many organizations. Although job enrichment results tend to indicate a stronger influence on job satisfaction, than productivity, some studies have also shown productivity results (Ford, 1973; Hackman, 1977; Lawler, 1968; Mitchell 1982).

E. Summary and Conclusion

A review of the literature reveals a need for future studies relating to the conceptualizations of correctional work, as there are critical implications for training, and possibly for job enrichment and job design. The following chapter will discuss the research questions and hypotheses that are put forward, as well as a description of the data and the statistical procedures used in the study.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

A. Research Questions

Training curricula, as well as academic and textbook literature, assume a unitary concept of correctional work: that all correctional officers perform generally similar tasks and that therefore they can all be trained alike. This dissertation examines an alternate conceptualization of correctional work: that correctional work actually consists of a range of types of work, including: interactive tasks; logistical tasks; administrative tasks; surveillance tasks; enforcement tasks; and technical tasks. This conceptualization is consistent with organizational theory about contemporary organizations.

The purpose of the dissertation is to: (1) apply this conceptualization to self-report data on correctional tasks (by identifying tasks as predominantly associated with one of the categories); (2) classify individual correctional officer respondents according to the conceptualization, as generalists, or as specialists in one or more task categories (by identifying the percentage of tasks that each officer identifies as being performed once per week or more); and (3) examine the prevalence of these correctional worker orientations in relation to independent variable such as institutional security level, institutional size, longevity of officer employment, rank of officer, shift worked, education attained by officer, and gender of officer.

B. Hypotheses

Main hypothesis one: The proportion of officers who are specialized is greater in larger institutions as compared to smaller institutions. This is consistent with larger institutions being more mechanistic.

Hypothesis two: The proportion of officers who are specialized is greater in high security institutions as compared to low security institutions. This would be consistent with high security facilities having more mechanistic qualities.

Hypothesis three: The proportion of specialist officers will increase as the longevity of officer employment increases. As officers are on the job longer, they will have more discretion in chosing job assignments, and will select posts that involve the type of work they prefer. **Sub-hypothesis (a):** The proportion of specialist officers will increase with the rank of the officer. The senior correctional officers will choose job assignments over the correctional officers, and choose tasks they prefer. **Sub-hypothesis (b):** The proportion of specialist officers will vary by shift worked.

Hypothesis four: The proportion of specialized officers will increase as education of the officer increases. This is consistent with the training literature and observations about the relationship between education and specialization.

Hypothesis five: A greater proportion of female officers will be classified as administrative, as compared

to male officers. This is more consistent with historical perspectives than theoretical perspectives. **Sub-hypothesis:** Female officers will not be as specialized in the enforcement, surveillance, and logistical tasks as male officers.

C. Description of Data

The data for this study was collected in 1985. In 1985, in an effort to look at and identify training needs for Massachusetts correctional officers, the Massachusetts Criminal Justice Training Council asked for assistance from the National Institute of Corrections (N.I.C.) to conduct a job-task analysis. The job-task questionnaire was designed by N.I.C., and the stated purpose behind the survey process was to: provide justification of the Basic Training Program; identify training needs areas; provide credibility in court; and increase the effectiveness of the Division of Staff Development and Training. The questionnaire was distributed and collected, but prior to this study none of the responses had been analyzed.

N.I.C. provided technical assistance (NIC 84-3374) for this project by developing the task analysis questionnaire, providing an Action Plan for the distribution, and also facilitated in the training of the training officers in the principles of Job Task Analysis. The Task Frequency questionnaire consists of 628 questions, and state and county correctional officers were surveyed. Twenty-five percent of correctional officers were targeted for the questionnaire.

The questionnaires were distributed on all shifts, on July 8, 1985, during roll call. One out of every four officers were given a questionnaire to complete. The questionnaire required no monitoring and officers were allowed to complete it during work hours. The questionnaire was returned to the facility training officer in a sealed envelope, and the training officer was responsible for returning all completed questionnaires to the Training Academy.

The state sent out 500 questionnaires, and collected 261 responses from state correctional officers. The counties sent out 325 questionnaires, and collected 176 responses from county officers. Of the fourteen counties, twelve are represented in the survey. It is impossible to determine at this date why approximately 40% of the officers selected did not respond to the questionnaire at the time it was distributed, but the response rate must be taken into consideration when generalizing the findings. This dataset was made available in SPSS format, and had never been analyzed for any purpose. Sampling and statistical measures were taken to insure that the respondent officers are representative of the universe of officers eligible to reply to the questionnaire.

D. Research Design and Statistical Procedures

The approach taken required the following procedures: First, each questionnaire item was classified by the principle investigator as corresponding to one of the six

categories of tasks. The tasks are described as follows:

> **INTERACTIVE:** Not separated physically from inmate or other person; greater than just observation; must involve interpersonal interaction. (i.e. supervise; respond; conduct; request; assist; train; evaluate; interview; instruct; talk).
>
> **LOGISTICAL:** Movement and distribution of persons and/or supplies; transportation; support of movement of inmates and/or materials. (i.e. guarding off-site; distribution of supplies).
>
> **ADMINISTRATIVE:** Not in the presence of inmates; and not observing persons; and must involve such things as: planning; organizing; reporting; scheduling; assigning; collecting; purchasing; sorting; coordinating; filing; assisting; typing; and reviewing.
>
> **SURVEILLANCE:** Solely observation; must be physically separated from the inmate or other person by some distance; or physical barrier; no interpersonal interaction. (i.e. monitor, observe).
>
> **ENFORCEMENT:** Tasks involved or associated with: checking; verifying; investigating; disciplining; guarding; inspecting; searching; identifying; controlling of inmates or others.
>
> **TECHNICAL:** Involves tasks that require special knowledge and techniques. (i.e. food service; first aid; CPR; fingerprinting; photography).

While each questionnaire item had been classified as corresponding to one of the six task categories, the 10 questionnaire items that best represented each task were subsequently chosen for actual use in the study. An important consideration was to eliminate items that represented more than one task category based on the investigators initial ratings of the items, as well as actual correlations of items in the dataset. Each task is now represented by 10 questionnaire items. Tables 1-6 show the ten questionnaire items that represent each of the six task

dimensions, and the percent of officers scoring from 0 - 5 for each of the ten questionnaire items.

For each correctional officer, based on their responses to the individual questionnaire items, a score for each officer, on each task dimension was calculated. This was accomplished by adding up the officers responses to each of the 10 questionnaire items for each task dimension. The officer could potentially score from 0 - 50 for each task dimension. Each item is coded as follows:

0 = I have never done this task

1 = I have done this but not in the past 12 months

2 = A few times in the past 12 months

3 = Monthly

4 = Weekly

5 = Daily or more than daily

The scores were then calculated, and an ANOVA was run on each of the six task dimensions and for each of the seven independent variables. This procedure provided information on the observed means, standard deviations, and the F probability for the equality of means across groups.

The scores (0-50) used in the ANOVA were then collapsed into categories suitable for crosstabulation, as follows. First, Z-scores were calculated and further transformed into scores having a mean of six and a standard deviation of two, by multiplying each Z-score by two, and adding six. The resulting scores were then truncated. Categories below four were collapsed into category four, and

Table 1

Interactive Task Dimension, Percent of Officers Scoring 0 - 5 for Each Questionnaire Item (N=422)

Questionnaire Item	0	1	2	3	4	5
Q 15	4.5	6.6	30.1	14.5	24.6	19.7
Q 16	18.2	15.4	36.0	8.8	12.3	9.2
Q 285	57.3	15.2	15.4	4.0	5.2	2.8
Q 357	27.3	7.6	23.7	9.7	13.7	18.0
Q 371	66.1	7.3	9.2	5.2	3.6	8.5
Q 400	32.5	5.0	14.5	6.6	9.0	32.5
Q 405	22.5	8.8	23.0	13.5	11.1	21.1
Q 407	34.4	17.1	30.8	7.6	5.2	5.0

Note. 0 = Never did this task
1 = Not in past 12 months
2 = Few times a year
3 = Monthly
4 = Weekly
5 = Daily of more

Q 15 Resolve conflict between inmates verbally.
Q 16 Resolve conflict between inmate and staff member verbally.
Q 285 Interview witnesses to incidents in detention facility.
Q 357 Talk with inmates concerning personal problems.
Q 371 Instruct or assist inmates in learning work-related skills.
Q 400 Answer inquiries concerning prisoners or from prisoners.
Q 405 Talk with prisoners about ways they can use their time.
Q 407 Take action when a fellow officer is angry with an inmate.
Q 421 Instruct inmates in use and care of tools and equipment.
Q 564 Brief new employees on operating rules and regulations.

Table 2

Logistical Task Dimension, Percent of Officers Scoring 0 - 5 for Each Questionnaire Item (N=422)

Questionnaire Item	0	1	2	3	4	5
Q 18	1.4	4.5	16.1	7.1	17.5	53.3
Q 20	13.0	5.9	10.9	4.7	11.1	54.3
Q 54	27.7	12.6	17.5	6.9	11.6	23.7
Q 77	8.8	13.5	40.8	16.4	12.6	8.1
Q 78	12.3	6.9	27.5	10.0	17.1	26.3
Q 80	20.9	23.0	36.3	11.4	4.7	3.8
Q 81	44.3	18.5	23.9	5.0	5.9	2.4
Q 83	37.9	15.9	24.9	9.5	5.7	6.2
Q 165	19.9	16.4	24.2	10.2	14.0	15.4
Q 213	17.3	16.4	45.3	13.0	4.3	3.8

Note. 0 = Never did this task
1 = Not in the past 12 months
2 = Few times a year
3 = Monthly
4 = Weekly
5 = Daily or more

Q 18 Escort inmates within the facility.
Q 20 Approve movement within the facility.
Q 54 Issue detention facility keys.
Q 77 Escort inmate in motor vehicle.
Q 78 Escort inmate on foot.
Q 80 Transport injured persons.
Q 81 Transport mentally ill inmates.
Q 83 Prepare or complete trip report or travel record
Q 165 Issue clothing and bedding to inmates.
Q 213 Transport inmate to outside medical facility for treatment.

Table 3

Enforcement Task Dimension, Percent of Officers Scoring 0 - 5 for Each Questionnaire Item (N=422)

Questionnaire Item	0	1	2	3	4	5
Q 2	17.3	13.0	26.1	7.6	14.0	22.0
Q 5	7.1	10.2	28.2	10.2	15.6	28.7
Q 9	20.4	13.7	16.6	6.4	13.7	29.1
Q 21	4.0	8.3	12.8	4.3	14.9	55.7
Q 23	21.3	9.0	8.1	5.0	10.9	45.7
Q 24	7.3	8.1	11.1	1.9	12.8	58.8
Q 31	2.8	8.5	20.4	17.1	30.6	20.6
Q 37	10.2	19.4	37.2	14.2	10.2	8.8
Q 73	2.4	8.1	13.7	5.0	12.6	58.3
Q 74	4.7	6.2	10.0	1.7	7.1	70.4

Note. 0 = Never did this task; 1 = Not in past 12 months; 2 = Few times a year; 3 = Monthly; 4 = Weekly; 5 = Daily or more

Q 2 Inspect vehicles and/or containers entering or leaving the facility.
Q 5 Identify contraband items.
Q 9 Control inmate shower and shaving activities.
Q 21 Control inmate movement during dining.
Q 23 Examine inmate passes to ensure proper movement.
Q 24 Control inmate movement in or into housing areas.
Q 31 Conduct periodic searches of inmate cells.
Q 37 Seize contraband and/or weapons.
Q 73 Conduct cell check.
Q 74 Conduct head or institutional count.

Table 4

Surveillance Task Dimension, Percent of Officers Scoring 0 - 5 for Each Questionnaire Item (N=422)

Questionnaire Item	0	1	2	3	4	5
Q 1	73.0	5.0	6.2	1.2	5.7	9.0
Q 41	14.5	25.1	23.5	9.2	11.1	16.6
Q 42	16.6	19.2	22.5	9.2	15.4	17.1
Q 43	15.9	21.6	23.2	8.1	16.4	14.9
Q 66	60.2	8.3	10.2	3.3	9.0	9.0
Q 69	11.8	6.4	13.3	5.7	10.4	52.4
Q 323	14.7	24.2	26.3	7.8	12.6	14.5
Q 325	19.2	17.8	21.8	10.0	15.2	16.1
Q 326	25.4	17.5	20.9	8.3	11.8	16.1
Q 327	26.5	18.7	23.9	7.1	9.0	14.7

Note. 0 = Never did this task; 1 = Not in past 12 months; 2 = Few times a year; 3 = Monthly; 4 = Weekly; 5 = Daily or more

Q 1 Monitor booking and detention facilities by remote surveillance devices.
Q 41 Patrol perimeter of the facility.
Q 42 Maintain surveillance of the perimeter fence, clear zone, or exclusion areas from a fixed post (such as guard tower etc.).
Q 43 Inspect the perimeter fence or guard posts.
Q 66 Monitor closed circuit television.
Q 69 Monitor movement within the facility.
Q 323 Search visiting room before or after visits.
Q 325 Observe visitors and inmates during contact visits
Q 326 Observe visitors and inmates during non-contact visits.
Q 327 Identify suspicious visitors.

Table 5

Technical Task Dimension, Percent of Officers Scoring 0 - 5 for Each Questionnaire Item (N=422)

Questionnaire Item	0	1	2	3	4	5
Q 56	80.1	6.9	7.3	1.2	2.8	1.7
Q 147	90.0	2.8	3.1	1.4	1.2	1.4
Q 148	93.1	1.7	1.7	1.9	.2	1.4
Q 153	72.3	6.2	8.1	4.7	4.5	4.3
Q 179	77.0	5.9	7.3	5.2	1.7	2.8
Q 182	91.0	2.8	2.1	1.9	1.2	.9
Q 232	63.7	21.6	10.7	1.7	.9	1.4
Q 243	64.0	20.1	11.4	1.7	.7	2.1
Q 441	70.4	8.8	10.7	2.8	1.9	5.5
Q 549	91.9	2.4	1.2	1.7	1.2	1.7

Note. 0 = Never did this task
1 = Not in past 12 months
2 = Few times a year
3 = Monthly
4 = Weekly
5 = Daily or more

Q 56 Repair/replace locks or keys.
Q 147 Classify fingerprints.
Q 148 Compare fingerprints and/or palmprints to verify identification of inmates.
Q 153 Take photographs (mug shots) of inmates.
Q 179 Photograph identifying scars, marks, tattoos.
Q 182 Operate urinalysis machine.
Q 232 Apply first aid to control bleeding.
Q 243 Apply first aid to treat for seizure.
Q 441 Prepare meals for inmates.
Q 549 Process photographic film.

Table 6

Administrative Task Dimension, Percent of Officers Scoring 0 - 5 for Each Questionnaire Item (N=422)

Questionnaire Item	0	1	2	3	4	5
Q 50	53.1	12.8	11.8	5.7	7.3	9.2
Q 154	58.8	11.1	10.2	4.0	7.8	8.1
Q 173	80.3	4.5	4.7	3.6	2.1	4.7
Q 483	74.4	5.7	5.5	2.6	5.7	6.2
Q 490	76.1	8.3	5.2	3.1	2.6	4.7
Q 542	86.3	4.5	3.6	2.6	1.7	1.4
Q 546	71.8	9.2	9.7	2.6	3.3	3.3
Q 550	67.5	7.8	9.0	3.8	4.7	7.1
Q 552	52.8	8.3	16.6	6.6	6.6	9.0
Q 555	51.7	7.3	13.5	7.1	9.0	11.4

Note. 0 = Never did this task
1 = Not in past 12 months
2 = Few times a year
3 = Monthly
4 = Weekly
5 = Daily or more

Q 50 Assist in preparing or updating post orders.
Q 154 Review documents of arrest and commitment before accepting new inmate into the detention facility.
Q 173 Record outstanding warrants on arrest sheet.
Q 483 Establish a file for an inmate.
Q 490 Update booking and commitment records of inmates in detention facility.
Q 542 Review records for parole or pardon recommendations.
Q 546 Transfer paperwork to other divisions or agencies.
Q 550 Prepare documents for filing (e.g., label alphabetize, etc.).
Q 552 Type reports.
Q 555 File and retrieve documents in record system (e.g., name cards, reports, etc.).

those above category eight were collapsed into category eight. Crosstabulations were then run with the independent variables for each of the six task categories.

Each officer was classified as either a generalist, or as a specialist in each of the six task categories by using the crosstabulation method described above. If the officer scored above the mean (that is, in category seven or eight) they are considered a specialist in that task. If they scored below the mean (category four or five) they are considered a generalist in that task area.

The hypotheses were then tested, based on the prevalence of these types of officers (generalist or specialist), in relation to the independent variables (size of institution, seniority of officer, security of facility, etc.).

E. Ethical and Legal Issues

The study does not violate any human subject provisions, as the data had already been collected, and no respondents have been identified. The Massachusets Department of Correction has given permission, and encouragement for this study to take place, and have provided access to the data and to the staff at the Training Academy.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Descriptive statistics and narrative for each of the independent variables will be presented first. This will be followed by a presentation of each hypothesis and its sub-hypotheses and a discussion of findings and conclusions.

The six task dimensions: enforcement; surveillance; logistical; interactive; administrative; and technical are each represented by ten items from the questionnaire, as described in chapter three. Descriptive statistics, including the N, the mean, and the standard deviation for each of the task dimensions are highlighted in Table 7.

The independent variables are described as follows:

a. Institutional Size: The state institutions that held 500 or more inmates at the time the survey instrument was given are classified as large institutions. There were six institutions that were classified as large. The state institutions that held less than 500 inmates were classified as small. There were 14 facilities that were classified as small. The county facilities were not included in the analysis of size or security level.

b. Institutional Security Level: The only state institution classified as maximum security at the time of the survey was MCI-Cedar Junction at Walpole. In maximum security a secure perimeter (wall) is designed and staffed to prevent escapes and the introduction of contraband. Inmate movement and interaction is controlled by physical barriers, and inmates are subject to direct supervision by staff at all time. At the time of the survey twelve facilities were classified as minimum security, including the pre-release facilities. In minimum security the perimeter is marked by non-secure boundaries. Physical barriers to movement and interaction are either non-secure or non-existent, with the exception of barriers designed to direct inmate and visitor traffic past the officer's station.

Table 7

Mean Scores for Task Dimensions (N = 422)

Task Dimension	Mean	SD
Enforcement	26.10	10.57
Logistical	25.36	9.69
Surveillance	21.25	10.08
Interactive	19.05	10.16
Administrative	8.82	10.28
Technical	4.32	7.21

c. Time worked in corrections: This variable relates to the amount of time that an officer has worked in the corrections field overall. Some of this employment may have been with other correctional agencies, prior to their employment at the Massachusetts Department of Corrections. The four categories are as follows: employment of less than one year; employment of one to four years; employment of 5 - 15 years; and those officers with more than 15 years of experience.

d. Rank of correctional officer: This variable relates to the title of the officer. The officers are either at the rank of correctional officer, or at the rank of senior correctional officer.

e. Shift worked: This represents the shift that the officer has worked most often in the past 12 months. The three shifts that are represented are the morning, afternoon, and night shifts. Not included in the analysis are the split, swing, and rotation shifts as the number of officers who responed that they worked these shifts were very small.

f. Education level of officer: This variable represents the highest level of education for the officer at the time of the survey. Although the survey had eight potential categories, for the purposes of analysis, the results were collapsed into the following categories: those officers who completed some high school; officers who completed some college; and those officers that have an associates degree or higher.

g. Gender of officer: This relates to the gender of the correctional officer, either male or female.

The first hypothesis states: <u>the proportion of officers who are specialized is greater in larger institutions than smaller institutions.</u> This is operationalized by looking at each of the six individual tasks as they relate to size of institution. The large institutions are those state institutions that had an inmate population of five hundred or more at the time of the questionnaire, the small

institutions are those who had an inmate population under five hundred at the time of the original questionnaire.

Summary statistics from the ANOVA on state facility size and each of the tasks are presented in Table 8. The percentage of officers for large and small institutions who scored above the mean is presented in Table 9 and Figure 1.

The mean task scores could potentially range from zero to fifty. For each correctional officer, based on their responses to the individual questionnaire items, a score was calculated for each task dimension. This was accomplished by adding up the officers responses to each of the 10 questionnaire items for each task dimension, and the officers could potentially score from 0 - 50. Once a score was recorded for each individual officer, the mean was calculated for all officers.

As Table 8 shows there are significant differences between groups at the .05 level on all of the tasks except the enforcement task. (The surveillance, logistical, and administrative tasks are also significant at the .01 level), with the group means being higher for the smaller institutions as opposed to the larger institutions.

Table 9 and Figure 1 show that the percentage of officers scoring above the mean (specialists) was higher in every task for the smaller state institutions as opposed to the larger state institutions.

In conclusion, the first hypothesis, that the proportion of officers who are specialized is greater in larger

Table 8

Mean Task Scores, by Category and Institutional Size, for State Correctional Facilities

Task Dimension	Large (N=202)	Small (N=51)	F Prob
Enforcement	31.48	32.96	.3226
Surveillance	18.60	24.29	.0000
Logistical	19.55	26.15	.0000
Technical	2.50	3.54	.0359
Interactive	16.19	19.68	.0251
Administrative	5.91	8.68	.0053

Note. N = the number of correctional officers, not the number of facilities.

Table 9

Percent of Correctional Officers Scoring Above the Mean on Task Scores, by Category and Institutional Size, for State Correctional Facilities

Task Dimension	LARGE (N=202)	SMALL (N=51)
Enforcement	28.8	29.4
Surveillance	15.3	51.0
Logistical	14.8	45.1
Technical	6.4	15.7
Interactive	20.3	29.4
Administrative	11.9	19.6

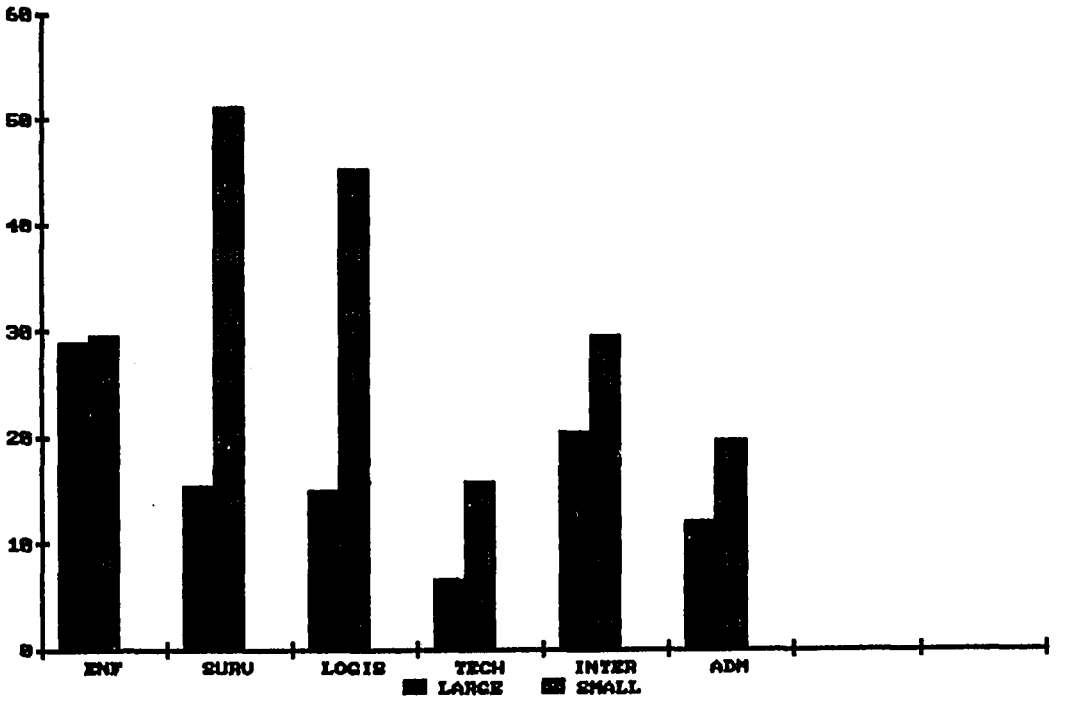

Figure 1. Percent of officers scoring above the mean for on task scores, by category and institutional size, for state correctional facilities.

institutions than smaller institutions, is rejected for each of the tasks at the .05 level, except for the enforcement task. The means for the officers in the small institutions were also higher (significant at the .01 level) for the surveillance, logistical, and administrative tasks. In each of the task categories, the officers in the small institutions had a greater percentage who scored above the mean (specialists) than those officers in the large institutions, with the smallest difference again being in the enforcement task.

The rejection of the first hypothesis may be related to the way in which the original hypothesis was constructed. The original hypothesis had been framed with the concept of proportion of tasks, when in retrospect it would have been better to discuss the absolute volume of tasks, in order to better understand what tasks officers are performing on a regular basis. In considering the absolute volume of tasks, it makes sense that smaller (more organic) structures will be characterized by a greater volume of tasks due to the nature of the institution, i.e. the smaller institutions are also those institutions which are low security, which allows for fewer restrictions and greater movement of inmates, which in turn allows officers to be more involved in greater numbers of tasks.

The second hypothesis is as follows: <u>the proportion of officers who are specialized is greater in high security institutions than in low security institutions.</u>

Based upon the structure of the data set this analysis is very difficult to form, as the cases included in the first hypothesis (size of institution), are also in many cases included in the data set for the second hypothesis. The institutions that are classified as small are also classified as minimum in all cases but two. The institutions that are classified as large are six in number, yet only one of these facilities is maximum security. Also, the N for this hypothesis is extremely low, as there are only 33 officers from a maximum security facility and 24 officers from minimum security represented in the survey. Therefore it is difficult to analyze size of the institution and security of the institution separately. It may be that the independent variable may actually be size/security, and this area needs further exploration in the future, as there are many implications for both pre-assignment and inservice training. If all new employees are given the same academy training, are they being well-prepared for their jobs, if their assignments will vary by size/security of the institution they eventually work in?

The summary statistics from the ANOVA on state facility security levels and each of the tasks are presented in Table 10. The percentage of officers for each level of security who scored above the mean is presented in Table 11. Due to the reasons stated above, the presentation of data will not be followed by discussion.

Table 10

Mean Task Scores, by Category and Security Level, for State Correctional Facilities

Task Dimension	Max (N=33)	Min (N=24)	F Prob.
Enforcement	30.51	34.62	.1140
Surveillance	18.75	26.50	.0017
Logistical	16.66	26.12	.0000
Technical	2.75	2.58	.8359
Interactive	14.66	21.45	.0142
Administrative	5.12	10.20	.0079

Note. N = the number of correctional officers, not the number of facilities.

Table 11

Percent of Correctional Officers Scoring Above the Mean on Task Scores, by Category and Security Level for State Correctional Facilities

Task Dimension	Max (N=33)	Min (N=24)
Enforcement	21.2	45.8
Surveillance	15.2	66.7
Logistical	3.0	41.6
Technical	6.0	8.4
Interactive	18.2	37.5
Administrative	12.2	29.1

Note. N = the number of correctional officers, not the number of facilities.

The third hypothesis states: the proportion of specialist officers will increase as the longevity of officer employment increases. This main hypothesis can be further operationalized by looking at several sub-hypotheses as follows: (a) the proportion of specialist officers will increase with the rank of the correctional officer; (b) the proportion of specialist officers will vary by shift worked.

Summary statistics from the ANOVA on the longevity of officer employment and each of the tasks are presented in Table 12, and Figure 2. The percentage of officers for each category of "time worked in corrections" who scored above the mean is presented in Table 13, and Figure 3.

As Table 12 shows there are significant differences between groups at the .05 level (and .01 level) for all tasks except the enforcement and surveillance tasks.

Table 13 shows that for every task category except enforcement, the percentage of officers scoring above the mean was higher for those officers who have been employed in corrections for five to more than fifteen years.

In conclusion, the third (main) hypothesis, that the proportion of specialist officers will increase as longevity of officer employment increases is generally supported with officers with more longevity scoring higher means (significant at .05 and .01) for every task, except the enforcement and surveillance tasks. In every task category except enforcement, the officers who have five to more than

Table 12

Mean Task Scores, by Category and Time Worked in Corrections

Task Dimension	Less 1 yr (N=46)	1-4 (N=190)	5-15 (N=155)	15+ (N=25)	F Prob.
Enforcement	30.32	33.13	32.91	29.88	.1285
Surveillance	20.00	21.07	21.82	21.36	.7350
Logistical	18.41	22.70	26.20	23.52	.0000
Technical	2.84	4.02	5.21	8.96	.0009
Interactive	15.02	18.25	21.07	20.60	.0015
Administrative	4.86	8.43	10.85	13.28	.0003

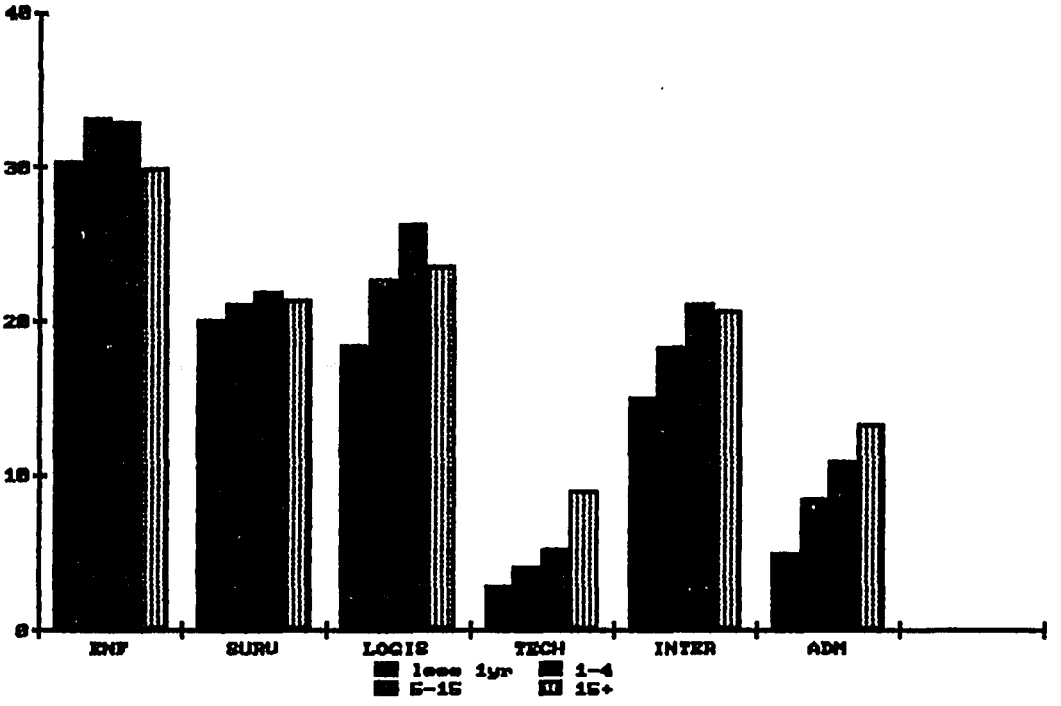

Figure 2. Mean task scores, by category and time worked in corrections.

Table 13

Percent of Correctional Officers Scoring Above the Mean on Task Scores, by Category and Time Worked in Corrections

Task Dimension	Less 1yr (N=46)	1-4 (N=190)	5-15 (N=155)	15+ (N=25)
Enforcement	23.9	33.2	34.8	28.0
Surveillance	23.9	27.4	34.8	32.0
Logistical	13.0	28.5	39.3	32.0
Technical	13.0	17.4	18.7	32.0
Interactive	19.6	24.2	38.7	40.0
Administrative	10.8	20.5	25.8	36.0

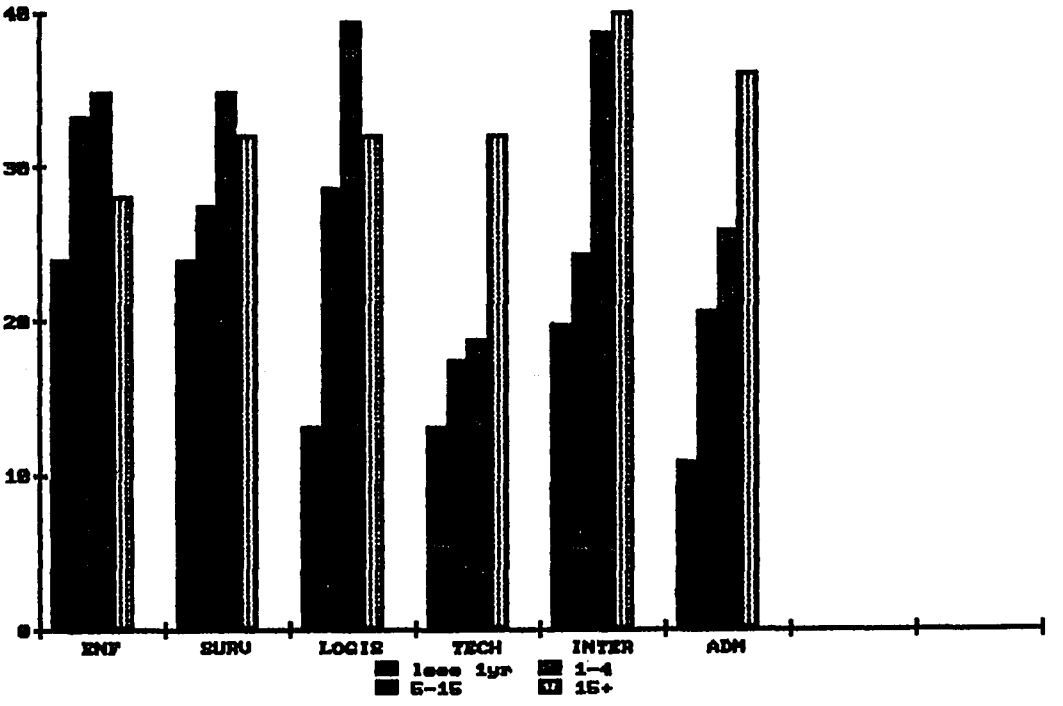

Figure 3. Percent of correctional officers scoring above the mean on task scores, by category and time worked in corrections.

fifteen years of experience had a greater percentage of officers score above the mean.

The hypothesis is based on the idea that as officers are on the job longer, they will select posts that involve the type of work they prefer. As they become senior officers they will choose job assignments and shifts over the correctional officers, and choose those assignments and shifts that they prefer.

The analysis also shows that officers with over fifteen years of experience score very high in technical tasks as compared to those with less experience. The analysis also shows that officers with over fifteen years of experience tend to participate in the enforcement task less than those with one to four years, or five to fifteen years of experiience, but somewhat more often than those officers with less than one year of experience.

The first sub-hypothesis for this main hypothesis states: the proportion of specialist officers will increase with the rank of the correctional officer, i.e. senior correctional officers will be more specialized than the correctional officers.

Summary statistics from the ANOVA on the rank of correctional officers and each of the tasks are presented in Table 14, and Figure 4. The percentage of officers for each rank (co/senior co) who scored above the mean is presented in Table 15, and Figure 5.

As Table 14 shows there are significant differences

Table 14

Mean Task Scores, by Category and Rank of Correctional Officer

Task Dimension	Senior CO (N=29)	F (N=393)	Prob.
Enforcement	34.41	32.38	.2593
Surveillance	24.34	21.02	.0864
Logistical	31.58	22.94	.0000
Technical	11.79	4.07	.0000
Interactive	25.55	18.56	.0003
Administrative	19.41	8.38	.0000

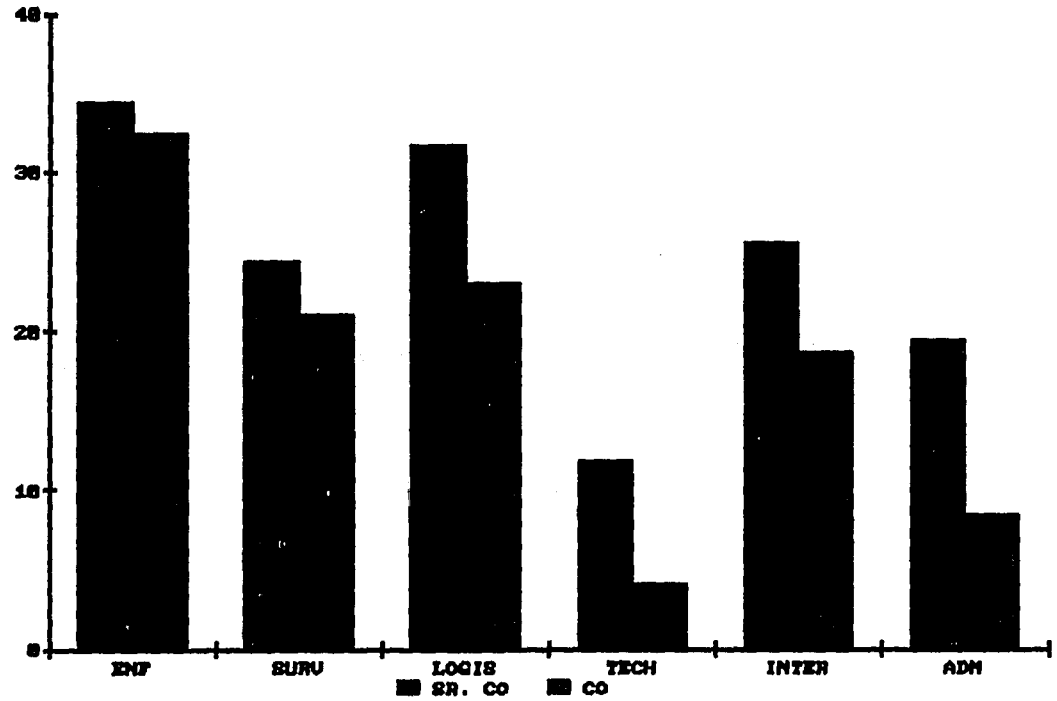

Figure 4. Mean task scores, by category and rank of correctional officers.

Table 15

Percent of Correctional Officers Scoring Above the Mean on Task Scores, by Category and Rank of Correctional Officer

Task Dimension	Senior CO (N=29)	(N=393)
Enforcement	41.4	31.8
Surveillance	51.7	28.2
Logistical	62.1	28.5
Technical	48.3	16.0
Interactive	65.5	27.2
Administrative	58.6	19.4

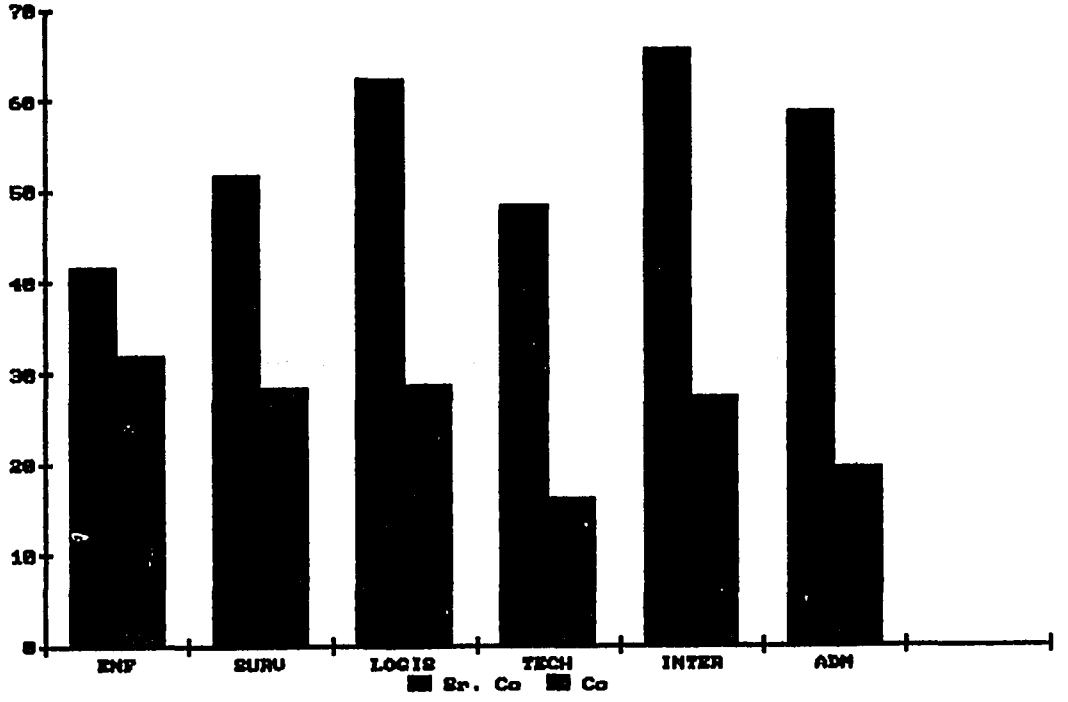

Figure 5. Percent of correctional officers scoring above the mean on task scores, by category and rank of correctional officer.

between groups at the .05 level (and the .01 level) on all of the tasks except enforcement and surveillance, and that the direction of the differences are consistent with the hypothesis.

Table 15 shows that the percentage of officers scoring above the group mean (specialists) is higher for the senior correctional officers in every task category, and special note should be taken of the differences for the logistical, technical, administrative, and interactive task dimensions.

In conclusion, the sub-hypothesis (1), that the proportion of specialist officers will increase with the rank of the officer, has been confirmed for all of the tasks except the enforcement and surveillance tasks at the .05 and the .01 level, and the percentage of officers scoring above the mean was greater for senior officers in each of the task categories.

This finding further confirms the main hypothesis, that as officers are on the job longer, and increase in rank/ title, they are involved in the various tasks at very different rates than those officers with less experience, and/or rank. This also indicates some very strong implications for training, which will be discussed in chapter 5.

Sub-hypothesis (2) states: <u>the proportion of specialist officers will vary by shift worked.</u> The shifts included for this analysis are the morning, afternoon, and evening shifts. The rotation, swing, and split shifts were not included in the analysis, as the N's for these shifts were

quite small. The summary statistics from the ANOVA on shift worked and its relationship to the task categories is presented in Table 16, and Figure 6. The percentage of officers who scored above the mean for each shift worked is presented in Table 17, and Figure 7.

Table 16 shows that there are significant differences between groups at the .05 level for all of the tasks except the technical task.

Table 17 shows that for the enforcement task, the proportion of specialists is greater on the afternoon, morning, and night shifts, in that order. The proportion of specialists for the surveillance task are greatest in numbers on the afternoon, morning, and night shifts. The proportion of specialist officers for the logistical task are greatest in number on the morning, afternoon, and night shifts. The proportion of specialist officers for the technical task are greatest on the afternoon, morning, and night shifts. The proportion of specialist officers for the interactive task are greatest in number on the morning, afternoon, and night shifts. For the administrative task they are greatest on the morning, afternoon, and night shifts.

The sub-hypothesis (2), that the proportion of specialist officers will vary by the shift worked has been confirmed by the data.

This finding suggests that specialization occurs when institutional activity is greater, and is less prevalent

Table 16

Mean Task Scores, by Category and Shift Worked

Task Dimension	AM (N=117)	PM (N=115)	Night (N=81)	F Prob.
Enforcement	33.19	34.86	28.28	.0000
Surveillance	21.01	24.01	17.74	.0001
Logistical	24.87	24.27	20.91	.0050
Technical	4.52	4.93	4.18	.7412
Interactive	21.20	17.75	14.87	.0000
Administrative	10.14	8.46	6.87	.0354

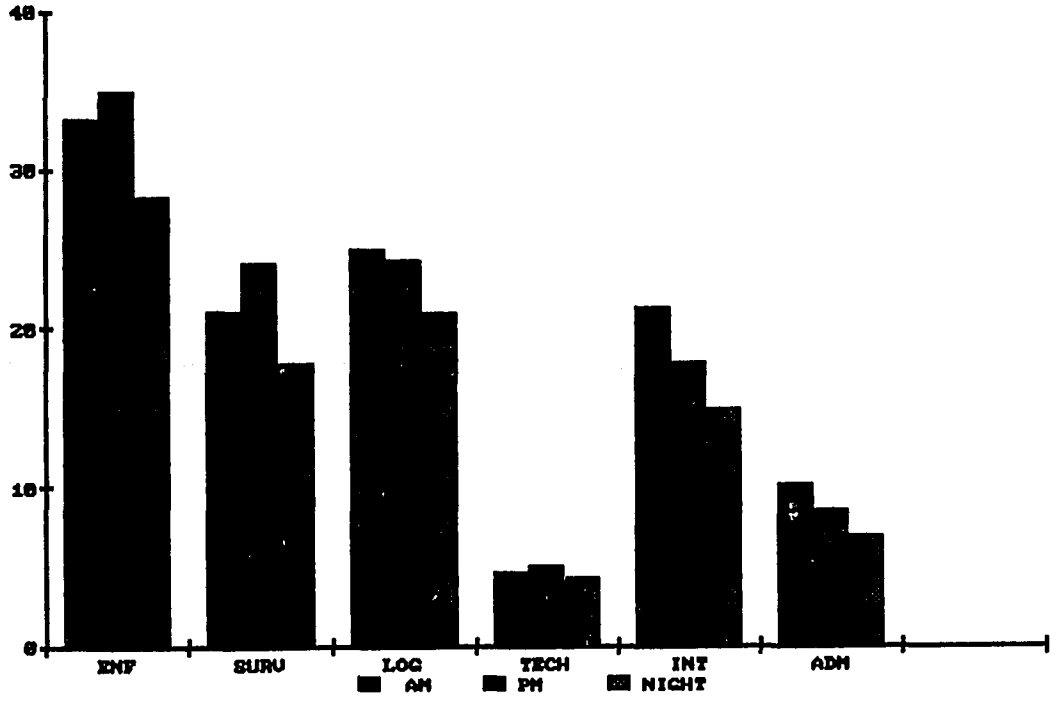

Figure 6. Mean task scores, by category and shift worked.

Table 17

Percent of Correctional Officers Scoring Above the Mean on Task Scores, by Category and Shift Worked

Task Dimension	AM (N=177)	PM (N=115)	Night (N=81)
Enforcement	35.0	41.8	18.5
Surveillance	27.6	40.9	14.8
Logistical	35.0	33.1	23.5
Technical	16.4	24.3	11.1
Interactive	37.9	22.6	16.0
Administrative	24.3	22.6	16.0

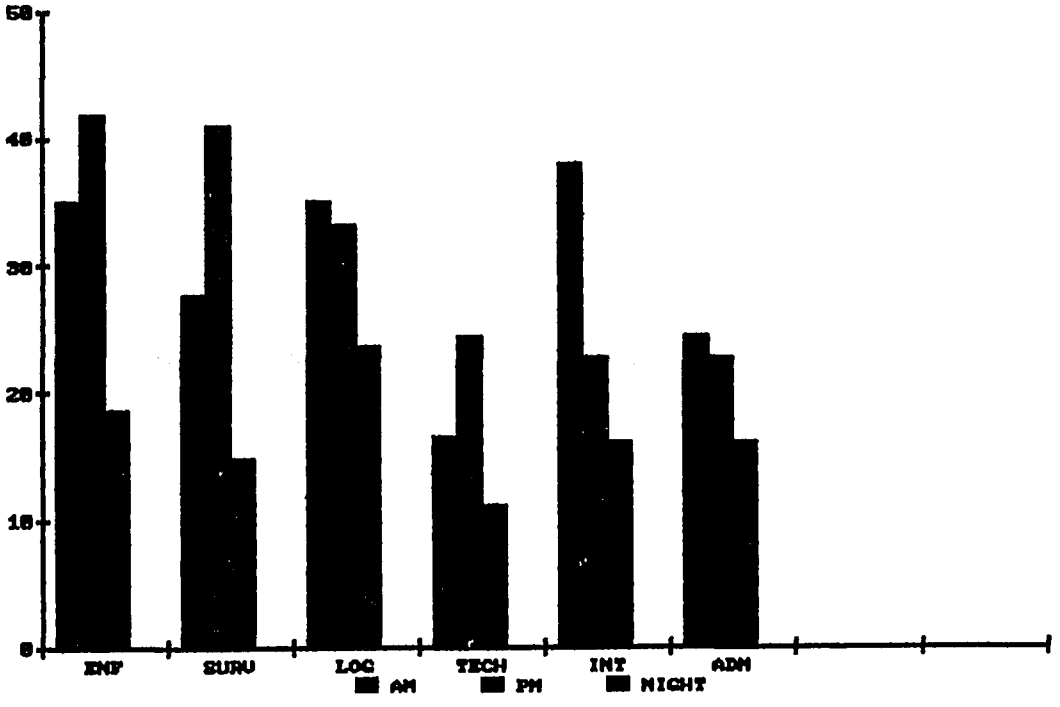

Figure 7. Percent of correctional officers scoring above the mean on task scores, by category and shift worked.

during the shifts such as the night shifts, when activity levels are low. It also suggests an "activity factor", that officers engage in the specialized tasks when the institution is active. This is consistent with the true characterization of the organic organization, but suggests that correctional facilities may vary by time of day, i.e. organic by day and mechanistic by night.

The fourth hypothesis states: the proportion of specialized officers will increase as the education of the officer increases. Summary statistics from the ANOVA on education level of officers and the six tasks are presented in Table 18 and the percentage of officers who scored above the mean is presented in Table 19 and Figure 8.

As Table 18 shows there are no significant differences between groups at the .05 level for any of the tasks.

While the findings are not statistically significant, for group means, Table 19 and Figure 8 suggest a possible area for future research. In general the officers with a college degree appeared to score higher (above the mean in greater percentages) in all of the categories than those officers who do not have completed college degrees, with the exception of with the logistical task dimension. In the logistical task the percentage of officers scoring above the mean appears slightly higher for those officers with some college education. The greatest increases for the percentage of officers who would be considered specialists, (scoring above the group mean) seems to appear in the technical and

Table 18

Mean Task Scores, by Category and Correctional Officers Education Level

Task Dimension	someHS (N=167)	someColl (N=145)	College (N=95)	F Prob.
Enforcement	31.41	33.55	32.22	.1285
Surveillance	20.65	20.90	21.74	.6941
Logistical	22.49	23.88	23.44	.3918
Technical	3.71	4.06	4.52	.4961
Interactive	17.56	19.33	19.57	.1686
Administrative	7.48	9.09	10.18	.0620

Table 19

Percent of Correctional Officers Scoring Above the Mean on Task Scores, by Category and Officers Education Level

Task Dimension	some HS (N=167)	some coll (N=145)	college (N=95)
Enforcement	27.0	33.1	37.8
Surveillance	26.4	28.2	32.6
Logistical	23.4	33.8	32.6
Technical	12.6	14.5	26.3
Interactive	22.2	31.7	33.6
Administrative	17.4	18.6	29.5

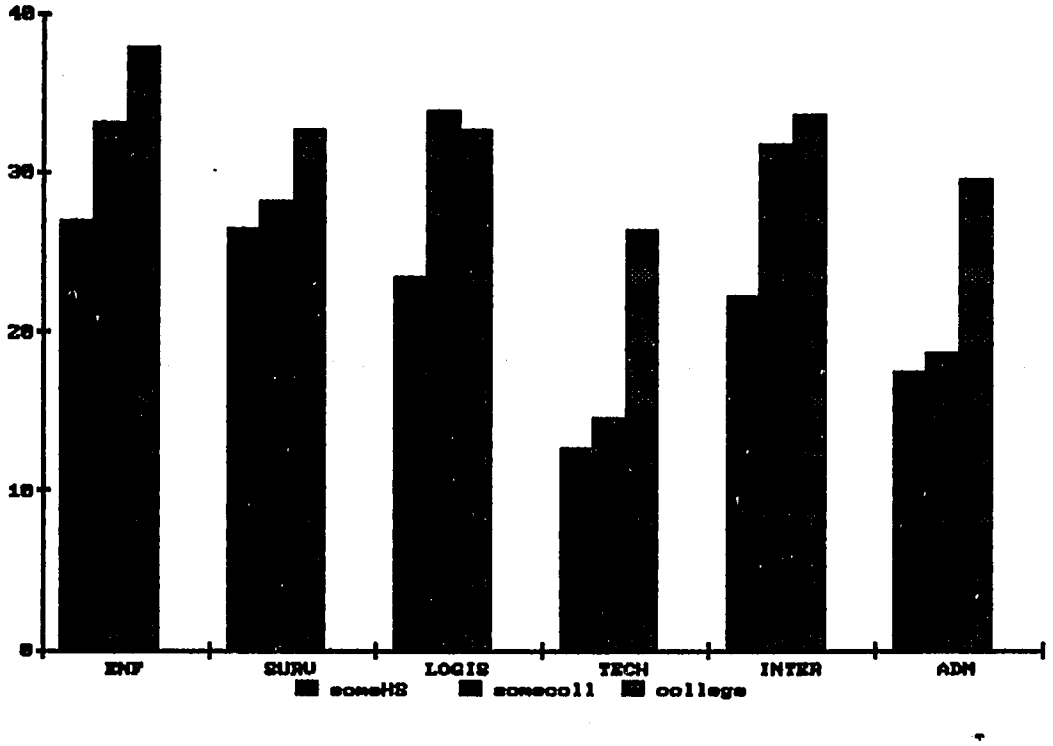

Figure 8. Percent of correctional officers scoring above the mean on task scores, by category and officers education level.

administrative task dimensions. This is an area that warrants further study.

The fifth hypothesis states: a greater proportion of female officers will be classified as administrative than male officers. This main hypothesis can be further operationalized by a sub-hypothesis. The sub-hypothesis states: female officers will not be as specialized in the enforcement, surveillance, and logistical tasks as male officers.

Summary statistics from the ANOVA on female and male officers and administrative task are presented in Table 20. The percentage of officers who scored above the mean for females and males is presented in Table 21.

There are not significant differences at the .05 level between female and male officers, and the percentage of female officers scoring above the mean (specialists) is only slightly higher than that of the male officers. In conclusion, the fifth hypothesis, that a greater proportion of female officers will be classified as administrative is not supported by the data.

Where there are significant differences is with the following sub-hypothesis. The sub-hypothesis states: female officers will not be as specialized in the enforcement, surveillance, and logistical tasks as male officers. Summary statistics from the ANOVA are presented in Table 22 and Figure 9. The percentage of female and male officers scoring above the mean in the enforcement, surveillance, and logistical tasks are presented in Table

Table 20

Mean Task Scores, by Administrative Task and Gender of Officer

Task Dimension	Females (N=32)	Males (N=382)	F Prob
Administrative	10.28	8.95	.4658

Table 21

Percent of Correctional Officers Scoring Above the Mean on Task Scores, by Administrative Task and Gender of Officer

Task Dimension	Female (N=32)	Male (N=382)
Administrative	25.0	21.8

Table 22

Mean Task Scores, by Enforcement, Surveillance, and Logistical Tasks and Gender of Officer

Task Dimension	Female (N=32)	Male (N=382)	F Prob
Enforcement	26.59	32.92	.0002
Surveillance	19.03	21.41	.1946
Logistical	19.87	23.80	.0233

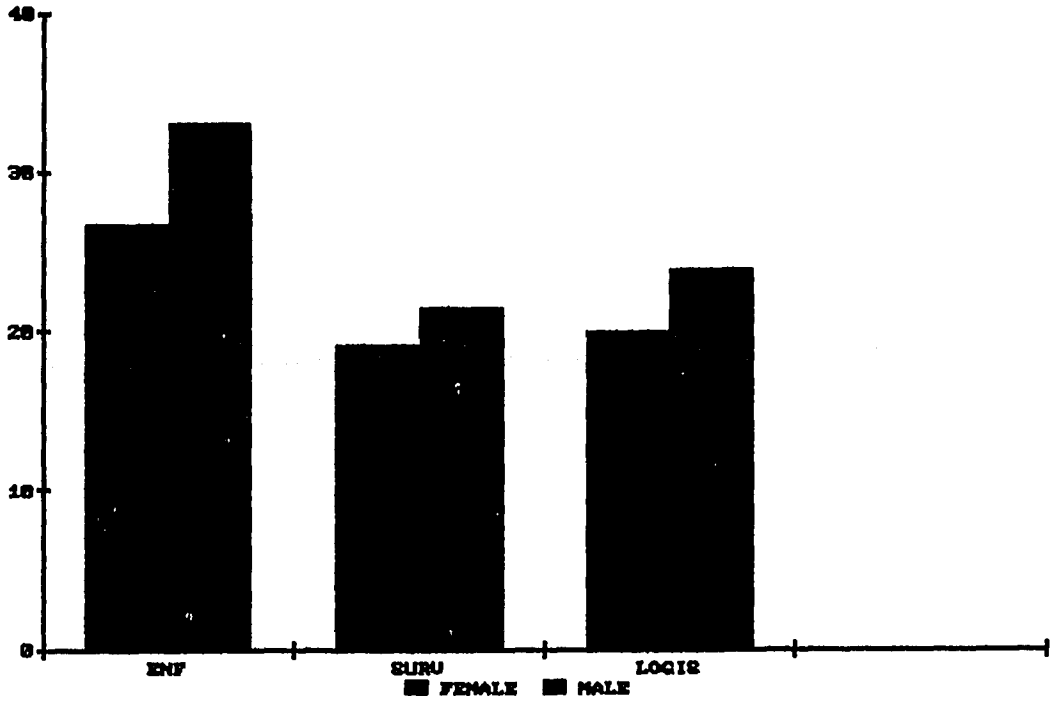

Figure 9. Mean task scores, by enforcement, surveillance, and logistical tasks and gender of officer.

Table 23

Percent of Correctional Officers Scoring Above the Mean on Task Scores, by Enforcement, Surveillance, and Logistical Tasks and Gender of Officer

Task Dimension	Female (N=32)	Male (N=382)
Enforcement	12.6	33.3
Surveillance	21.9	30.4
Logistical	15.6	31.9

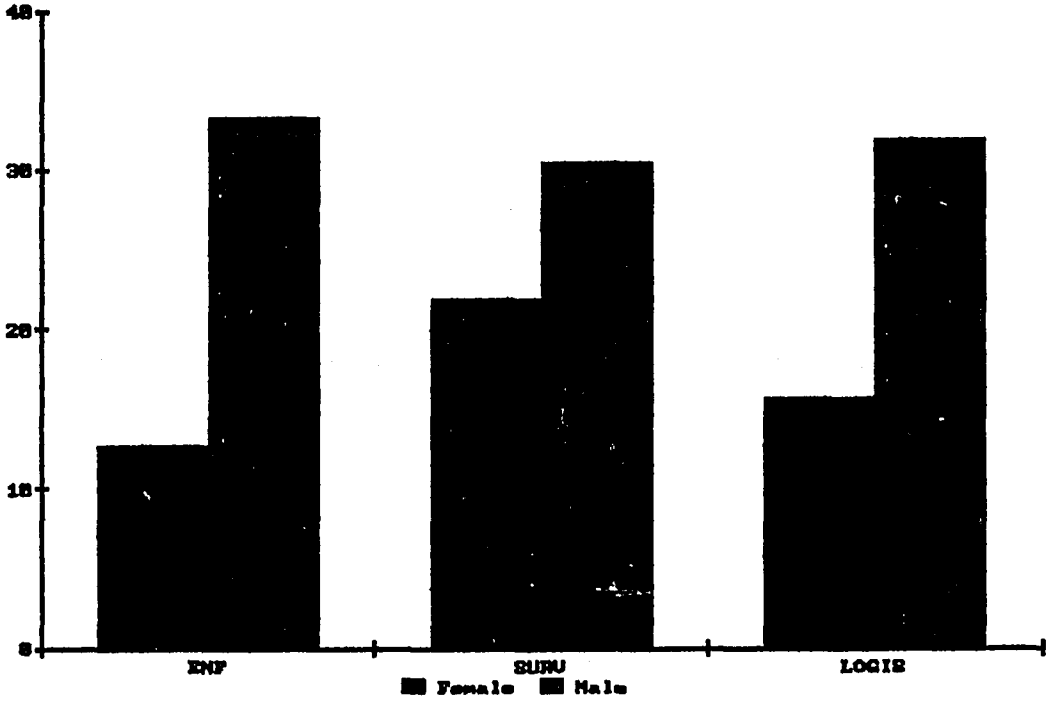

Figure 10. Percent of correctional officers scoring above the mean on task scores, by enforcement, surveillance, and logistical tasks and gender of officer.

23 and Figure 10.

Table 22 and Figure 9 show that there is significant difference between groups at the .05 level for the enforcement and logistical tasks. There is some difference between the female and male officers for the surveillance task, but it is not significant at the .05 level.

As Table 23 and Figure 10 show, a greater percentage of male officers scored above the mean for the enforcement, surveillance, and logistical tasks. The greatest differences are with the enforcement and logistical tasks, with a smaller difference between female and male officers with the surveillance task. The sub-hypothesis: female officers will not be as specialized in the enforcement, surveillance, and logistical tasks as male officers is generally confirmed.

The data shows that in general the male officers scored higher on these tasks than females, and that the male officers are performing these tasks at much greater frequency than female officers. There is a need for future research in this area. Are female officers choosing not to participate in the enforcement and logistical tasks? Are female officers denied those posts that require these tasks, and if so, why? If female and male officers are being trained alike at the academy, why are they not performing the same tasks once on the job?

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The analysis of tasks performed by correctional officers has been the focus of this study. This chapter will consider the results of those analyses in terms of overall patterns across several hypotheses. In addition, implications for existing literature, training, and future research will be discussed.

Findings Consistent Across Hypotheses

The findings suggest a general connection between size and possibly security of institution, and task categories. There were greater percentages of officers scoring above the mean in the smaller facilities and also in the minimum security facilities. This suggests that smaller, low security facilities tend to operate more as organic organizations, where according to Burns and Stalker (1961) there are more dynamic conditions and the environment changes rapidly. This lends itself to an environment that is less rigid, and offers more opportunity for participation by staff, and more reliance on workers to define problems.

The analyses also indicate that the larger, maximum security institutions are more mechanistic in their organization style. According to Burns and Stalker (1961) mechanistic structures occur where there are more stable conditions, characterized by a traditional pattern of hierarchy, reliance on formal rules and regulations, and accompanied by standard decision-making.

Connections also appear to exist between officer experience, title, and education. In general, those officers that had more experience, a senior correctional officer title, or had obtained some college education, scored higher in the majority of the task categories than their peers. When considering job experience, the officers with five to fifteen years of experience in corrections scored above the mean in all of the task categories except enforcement, compared to those officers with less experience. The senior correctional officers scored above the mean at much greater percentages than correctional officers in every task category. In general, the officers with some college, or with an associate's or bachelor's degree scored higher than their peers in most categories, and they scored much higher in the technical and administrative tasks if they had completed an associate's or bachelor's degree. These patterns indicate that job experience, title, and education play an important role in the tasks that officers perform on the job.

Implications for Established Literature

According to the literature by Samaha (1991) and Hawkins (1976) the selection of correctional officers in many systems gives high priority to physical standards, and this insistence on physical standards may restrict the hiring of potentially qualified personnel. Hawkins also states that the officer's control over an inmate actually depends to a greater extent on skills of persuasion and

leadership, and that skill in interpersonal relations is crucial. Consistent with this past research, the majority of task categories that were included in the study do not necessarily require a great deal of physical strength and agility. The only task categories that would require some physical strength, at times, are the enforcement and logistical task categories (i.e the enforcement task includes the "controlling of movement" and the logistical task includes the "transporting" of inmates, which may require physical strength). The interactive, surveillance, technical, and administrative tasks do not require physical strength, but do require such things as: interpersonal communication skills; conflict resolution skills; observation and judgement skills; first aid skills; technical skills; and organizational and administrative skills.

Much of the current and historical corrections literature points the correctional officer's role as unitary in nature, i.e. that all officers basically do the same type of things, regardless of type of institution or individual characteristics of officer. According to Jacobs (1983): they supervise living, work, dining and recreation areas; transport prisoners to various locations; serve on disciplinary boards; and sit in towers and protect gates. Lombardo (1978) suggests that the officer is likely assigned to one of the following types of positions: block officers; work detail officers; industrial shop and school officers; yard officers; and relief officers. This study reveals that

there are in actuality, a wide variety of tasks, that can be categorized as enforcement, logistical, surveillance, interactive, technical, and administrative. Officers participate in these various tasks at very different rates, depending on such independent factors as type and size of facility, and individual characteristics ranging from gender, to education, title, and job experience.

Training Implications

According to current corrections literature (Barrington, 1987; Bowker, 1982; Gondles, 1987; and Morris, 1988) the correctional officer is a critical resource for the successful operation of the institution, working the front lines of the facility. They may in fact be the most important category of staff members in the facilities. Yet, according to other current corrections literature (Benton, 1988; Gilbert, 1987) correctional officers lack proper training and support to accomplish their job responsibilities, and the vast majority of training is not based on job-task analysis, which leads to uncertainty about its validity. Clear and Cole (1990) state that, since 1970, most states have developed training programs for new correctional officers modeled on curricula designed for the police training academies. Crouch and Marquart (1980) found that pre-work training for correctional officers consists largely of practical rather than theoretical topics, with such subjects as first aid, riot control, disciplinary report writing, legal rights of officers, weapons mainte-

nance, and tactics for performing shakedowns taking up most of the time in training curriculum. Allen and Simonsen (1992) state that training is directed to the mission of security, and there is little if any emphasis on interaction with inmates. If officers are critical to the institutions functioning properly, is it not critical to train them for the tasks that they will actually perform?

The personnel literature and research surrounding training, suggests that training is critical to an employee's and organization's success. According to Mitchell (1982) training should be based on job task analyses, and if designed properly, can increase the skills and abilities of employees, and it can increase their motivation by increasing their sense of commitment, and by encouraging people to develop and use new skills. Training according to Mitchell is a powerful tool, and has the ability to increase both productivity, and morale if properly designed and used. In a time when administrators of correctional facilities are concerned with improving productivity and job performance, while budget cutbacks limit resources available to staff institutions, training that is needs based could help increase productivity.

This study has clearly identified six task categories, which gives us a better idea of the role(s) that the officer plays in the facilities. It has also established that there are many differences based on the type and size of the institutions and the individual characteristics of the

officers. The structural conceptualization of correctional work implicated in this study could provide a basis for restructuring future training of officers. Training must be designed around the characteristics of the institutions and of the officers, and we can no longer assume that all institutions require the same type of training for their officers, or that all officers need to be trained exactly alike. One must also question the validity of modeling correctional training academies after police academies.

If officers with different levels of job experience, titles, and education are participating in very different types of tasks, they need to be trained differently than their peers. The implications are especially clear for inservice training that takes place in the years after the original academy training. There are also implications for institutions based on their size, and possibly security level. This analysis indicated that those officers working in smaller facilities were much more involved in all of the tasks, at greater rates, than the officers in larger facilities. The research also indicates that female officers do not participate in the enforcement, logistical, and surveillance tasks at the same rate of male officers. Further investigation of this finding is warranted to determine whether the difference has persisted since 1985 when the data was collected, or whether female officer tasks now more closely correspond to those of male officers, as women are now more fully involved in all aspects of

correctional work.

Future Research

Based on the results of this study there are numerous areas of concern for future research. There is a need to further look at the differences between the roles of male and female officers in the institutions, and discover why there seems to be great disparity between the work done by male officers as compared to female officers, and determine if these findings would exist using more recent data.

Future research is needed in the area of job design and job enrichment in corrections. How might the results of this study effect the potential to redesign correctional work so that it is inherently more satisfying to workers? If the design of the correctional officer job is changed, will this improve performance? One could also further question how size and security of institutions effects job design, (i.e. could different job designs improve operations at various levels of security or at different size facilities?). One may further seek to discover if these findings are true within new generation jails and prisons, as they utilize such concepts as direct supervision and unit management.

There is a need to further study the structure of prison and jail organization, in light of mechanistic and organic organizational qualities, and modern structural theory. Correctional institutions could be analyzed by time of day, to discover if the mechanistic and organic qualities of

organization in corrections facilities are more governed by time (i.e. more mechanistic at night when activity is low, and more organic by day when activity is high). This may lead to the question of "can large, maximum security facilities function successfully with an organic organizational form and is this the better form of organizational management for prisons in general?

Finally, as this study was based on data collected from the state of Massachusetts, a future study could look across institutions from several jurisdictions. One may also wish to consider a future study that along with self-report data, would include other methods of gathering information, such as the use of officer observation, or the compiling of information from various written reports available from the institutions.

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