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AN EXAMINATION OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE A FEMALE
WARDENS' EFFECTIVENESS AS A LEADER

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Wendy Dressler

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To: Dean Shlomi Dinar
School of International and Public Affairs

This dissertation, written by Wendy Dressler, and entitled An Examination of Factors that Influence a Female Wardens' Effectiveness as a Leader, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

Kristen Zgoba

Rosa Chang

Zoran Bursac

Derrick Schofield

Tim Goddard, Major Professor

Date of Defense: June 12, 2023

The dissertation of Wendy Dressler is approved.

Dean Shlomi Dinar, Steven J. Green
School of International and Public Affairs

Andrés G. Gil Vice President for Research and
Economic Development and Dean of the
University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2023

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Jonathon Dressler. I am forever thankful for your continued support, motivation, and encouragement. To my sons, Khalif and Koen, and my daughter, Zoe Alyna. I hope that one day, my work will inspire each of you to create your own paths with God's guidance. I leave you with the following words: "Do not go where the path may lead; go where there is no path and leave a trail."

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION
AN EXAMINATION OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE A FEMALE
WARDENS' EFFECTIVENESS AS A LEADER

Wendy Dressler

Florida International University, 2023

Miami, Florida

Professor Tim Goddard, Major Professor

Women employed in prisons have continued to evolve into a more significant proportion of the overall institutional workforce while growing exponentially from ten percent in 1970 to almost forty percent by 2010. However, even with the substantial increase, the shift towards promoting a gender-diverse correctional workforce has remained challenging as female staff continues to encounter numerous obstacles, including stereotypes, harassment, and opposition from male colleagues. Nevertheless, as the correctional workforce becomes increasingly diverse and the number of female executives is steadily rising, it becomes essential to examine the effectiveness of women in institutional leadership roles.

There are mixed findings on whether women are regarded as capable and effective as their male counterparts. Researchers have argued that physical strength and verbal aggressiveness continue to predominate the skills needed to succeed in a prison system. Further, evidence suggests that gender plays a significant role in the perceptions of how women carry out their jobs. Male characteristics are commonly associated with

effectiveness and embedded throughout initial and subsequent training, resulting in further challenges for females.

To interrogate this common perception, the present study explored the effectiveness of female wardens compared to male wardens as leaders throughout the United States penal system and attempted to identify the factors that influence their effectiveness. The purpose was to determine if US wardens who perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of transformational leadership characteristics also experience a positive professional orientation, lower levels of stress at work, and a higher level of job satisfaction, as well as whether these differences differ based on gender.

A questionnaire was created to obtain the respondent's perceptions. US wardens were targeted through a non-probability convenience sampling method. 71 wardens from city, county, state, and federal adult prisons completed the survey from ten US states. The findings from the regression analyses and a Mann-Whitney Wilcoxon Test indicated differences in perception based on gender and ethnicity. Taken together, this study contributes to scholarly literature by examining the influence of gender and leadership style and provides insight into those factors helping to advance correctional administration policies.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The number of adults incarcerated in the United States correctional facilities declined by thirty percent in over a 10-year period from 2011 to 2021 (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2022). In 2019, the U.S. correctional system held approximately 1,291,000 individuals in state prisons, 226,000 federal prisons (Federal Bureau of Prisons), and jails (U.S. Marshals), and 631,000 in local jails (Sawyer & Wagner, 2020). Of that number, the Prison Policy Initiative indicated that in 2019 women made up approximately 230,000 of the prison population (Kajstura, 2019). By the end of 2020, sixty-two percent of individuals were incarcerated in a state prison for a violent offense, while forty-seven percent² of individuals in a federal prison were serving a sentence for a drug offense and twenty percent for a weapon offense (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2022). Even with the decrease in the number of people incarcerated, the US continues to outpace most other countries in the number of people incarcerated, and many correctional institutions are at or near capacity. Further, women's incarceration has dramatically increased since 2009 compared to men in 35 states (Kajstura, 2019). The Prison Policy Initiative indicated that in 2019 women made up approximately 230,000 of the prison population (Kajstura, 2019). As such, correctional administrators and staff continue to face challenges since institutions hold many males and females (Russo et al., 2019).

Since corrections is a "people profession" (Russo et al., 20019) and a rapidly growing industry, administrators are increasingly in need of skilled and knowledgeable staff to care for a large population of incarcerated males and females behind bars (Seiter, 2017). Additionally, correctional professionals are responsible for protecting the public

from individuals who have been charged with or convicted of crimes, preparing individuals to lead successful, law-abiding lives in the community and supporting them during their reentry process (Russo et al., 2019). However, several correctional objectives often conflict. Ferdik and Smith (2017) contend that correctional work is inherently dangerous, placing staff at risk while they simultaneously are responsible for positively impacting the lives of incarcerated individuals. Having competing goals can result in stressors for correctional staff as they cope with crisis situations within a facility as well as secondary trauma associated with work overload, overtime demands, and role conflicts (Spinaris et al., 2012). As a result, the combination of overpopulated correctional facilities, laborious staff recruitment, and the unpredictable, complex correctional environment with dual missions—punishment and rehabilitation—individuals taking on leadership roles within corrections can often experience job stress and low job satisfaction (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Cullen et al., 1993a; Cullen et al., 1993b; Leip et al., 2017; Russo et al., 2019).

Moreover, aside from addressing staff challenges, it is the administrator's responsibility to handle overwhelming work demands, limited resources, and often the inability to offer competitive compensation compared to other sectors (Russo et al., 2019). Therefore, recruiting high performing 'competent' personnel is an ongoing challenge in correctional facilities. For instance, recruiting qualified candidates is hindered by low pay scales, leading to a small pool of candidates, often poorly educated, inexperienced, and lacking soft skills (Jacobs & Olitsky, 2014; Schofield & Parker, 2019). While economic, and demographic changes affecting the workforce have been a

constant challenge in corrections for many years, recent societal changes have magnified many of these challenges (Russo et al., 2019).

In 2019, the Bureau of Labor Statistics noted that the low unemployment rate in conjunction with the smaller labor force created an increased competition for talent (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). Additionally, Russo and colleagues (2019) noted that younger workers were more likely to change jobs than their predecessors, resulting in high turnover rates. Further, COVID-19 had an even more dramatic effect on the federal and state prison systems by 2020, as the number of individuals imprisoned in state, federal, and privately operated prisons were at risk of contracting the virus (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2022). COVID-19 infection rates during this period were 219 per 1,000 state incarcerated individuals, 298 per 1,000, and 2,500 individuals had died as a result of COVID-19-related causes (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2022). Meanwhile, over 94,100 staff tested positive for COVID-19 at least once during this same period, resulting in 261 cases per 1,000 correctional staff in state and federal prisons (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2022). 196 correctional staff members also succumbed to COVID-19, resulting in a crude mortality rate of 0.5 deaths per 1,000 correctional staff members (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2022). While vaccines became available, the issues created by COVID-19 had already caused significant problems in the correctional system, leading to even greater understaffing concerns (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2022). Consequently, in order to fulfill the complex correctional mission, correctional administrators are responsible for meeting and adapting to meet the challenges they face (Russo et al., 2019).

Furthermore, the US correctional system has undergone significant changes generated through social movements, judicial interventions, and legislation, which have

paved the way for more diverse workplaces (Hemmens et al., 2002). For instance, the face of corrections has shifted from the traditional White rural male (Jacobs, 1977) to a gradual race and gender shift with 57.2% White (Non-Hispanic), 23.8% Black (Non-Hispanic), and 11.8% Hispanic. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2021b), 71.3% of males and 28.6% of females make up the correctional staff in federal and state prisons. Nevertheless, the representation of women continues to be modest in executive and supervisory positions. Female correctional wardens of adult facilities in 2012 was 373 of 1,369 (or 27%) in state prisons and 29 of 106 (or 27%) in federal prisons (American Correctional Association, 2013).¹ The corrections workforce has struggled to catch up with the rapidly evolving 21st-century workplace developments (Russo et al., 2019). Considering the challenges that correctional administrators face, the importance of leadership styles in operating correctional institutions is increasingly significant and consequential.

The Importance of Warden Leadership Styles

As indicated in the previous section, prison management encompasses much more than maintaining a safe and secure environment; instead, prison operations are carried out continuously around the clock, incorporating human resources, staffing, and the concerns of incarcerated individuals and their families (Ruddell & Norris, 2008). Within this context, prison operations are influenced by many factors, including geography, custody level, and operating budget (Ruddell & Norris, 2008). In addition to these factors, the *leadership style* of the warden has a profound effect on their workforce, which has a

¹ The American Correctional Association publishes the National Jail and Adult Detention Directory with the most recent staff information every 10 years. The most recent directory published for 2013-2014.

direct influence on prison environments, inmates' experiences while incarcerated, and how well incarcerated individuals reintegrate into society after release. Therefore, a warden's leadership style is crucial to ensuring the safety and orderly operation of prisons, as well as the assurance that the staff members are trained to a high level of excellence—an essential component of the effectiveness of the institution (DiIulio, 1987; Schofield & Parker, 2019).

Contemporary theorists observe three main types of leadership styles among individuals in leadership positions. According to Bass (1998), the three main types of leadership are laissez-faire leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership. Of these, transformational leadership is becoming increasingly prevalent in US corrections (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013), a style that is often associated with leadership effectiveness, as influential leaders that utilize this method tend to better manage, change, transform organizations, and improve performance (Bass, 1998). Yet, it is unclear to what degree correctional leadership employs transformational leadership methods. Given this, this dissertation seeks to provide an answer to how widespread transformational leadership is in US corrections. Moreover, this study aims to extend this topic by examining female correctional executives and their leadership styles since they are rarely studied by scholars. Given this, the next section will discuss the importance of women in leadership roles within the correctional system.

Women in Correctional Leadership

Notwithstanding, women have occupied significant leadership roles in corrections for more than a century. In the late 1800s, Board of State Prison Directors routinely appointed woman to serve as matrons in women and children correctional facilities

(Hemmens et al., 2002). Further, Title VII in 1972 generated a shift within the corrections workforce and paved the way for women to work in male correctional facilities (Collica-Cox, & Schulz, 2019; Maghan & McLeish-Blackwell, 1991). The shift assisted women entering male institutions as correctional officers and provided upward mobility by offering positions outside children- and women-only facilities (Parisi, 1984). As a result, women have become a greater proportion of the correctional workforce in recent decades, increasing from ten percent in 1970 to almost forty percent by 2010 (Lambert, Altheimer & Hogan, 2010; Tewksbury & Collins, 2006).

However, the shift towards a gender-diverse correctional workforce in corrections has been challenging as the female staff has faced numerous obstacles, including stereotypes, harassment, and opposition from male colleagues (Griffin et al., 2005; Hemmens et al., 2002; Martin & Jurik, 2007; Tewksbury & Collins, 2006). Nevertheless, for nearly half a century women have been steadily climbing the ladder into executive positions (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019). Given this, it is somewhat surprising that women remain understudied, as only one study focused on female executives' leadership style—finding that most female executives anticipated the progression from archaic to therapeutic leadership (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2017). Therefore, the differences between men's and women's leadership styles are an area of interest that requires further exploration.

Similarly, female leadership effectiveness is still under question, as women continue to perceive opportunities for advancement as a challenge, facing perceptions by male peers that they cannot perform as well as them, as well as a belief that men are perceived to be more capable of effectively managing correctional job duties (Carlson et

al., 2004; Matthews et al., 2010). Additionally, female staff have been perceived differently by incarcerated individuals than male staff, but this might not necessarily be a negative factor, as it is often considered an advantage by women (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019). According to a female warden from the Northeast:

I actually found it easier to get inmates to follow my instructions, much more than my male counterparts. Whether it was their cultural respect for women or their personal respect for me because they knew I would not lie to them or spin them. If they had it coming, they got it. When they didn't have it coming, I didn't hesitate to say no, and I treated them with mutual respect by explaining why the answer was no" (as cited in Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019).

Nonetheless, as the correctional workforce becomes increasingly diverse and the number of female correctional executives are steadily increasing, it becomes essential to examine the effectiveness of women in leadership roles. Although most correctional employees and departments appear to be supportive of female leaders, there are mixed findings on whether women are regarded as capable and effective as their male counterparts (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019; Lambert et al. 2010; Lambert et al., 2022; Matthews et al., 2010; Shockley et al., 2017). Further research is required to come up with accurate conclusions. Consequently, this dissertation addresses this question. The following section provides an overview of the Importation-Differential Experiences Model, which served as the conceptual framework for this study, with gender as one of its key components.

Overview of the Theoretical Framework

Although factors influencing the effectiveness of wardens have been empirically examined, gender is often missing from the analysis. By adapting the theory of the Importation-Differential Experiences Model, which has previously been used to examine

the differences between male and female correctional officers, this study focuses on the differences between male and female wardens. The model extended by Sociologist Zimmer (1986), and Criminologists Van Voorhis, Cullen, Link and Wolfe (1991) poses that race, gender, age, and educational level impact a person's perceptions, views, attitudes, and behaviors. Further, men and women react differently in the workplace as a result of socialization differences (Lambert et al, 2010). For instance, Martin & Jurik (1996) claim that during childhood, boys and girls are encouraged to engage in activities that are based on gender-specific roles, which later influence their views, expectations, and behavior as adults. As a result of these gender roles, there are different work expectations, reactions, and outcomes for males and females (Zimmer, 1986).

Considering the model's hypotheses, women will be expected to play a nurturing, sensitive, and understanding role in society that will extend to the workplace (Pogrebin & Poole, 1997). As a result, it would be expected that factors associated with the work environment would have different outcomes for men and women (Lambert, Altheimer & Hogan, 2010). In Chapter 2, an in depth examination of the application and extension of the theoretical framework from correctional officers to wardens is presented focusing on the differences in leadership effectiveness between males and females.

Problem Statement

Considering correctional administrations are committed to diversity (Collica-Cox and Schulz, 2017), it is problematic that female correctional executives are understudied by researchers, resulting in a literature gap in our understanding of their effectiveness and importance. Given the changing culture of corrections, this needs to be addressed scientifically and practically. The central issue in this study is the *self-perception of*

effectiveness by male and female correctional executives and factors that influence effectiveness using data collected through a survey. Specific attention is given to understanding the gender differences in attitudes toward four areas: leadership *styles*, *professional orientation*, *job stress*, and *job satisfaction*.

According to Collica-Cox and Schulz (2017), among others, there is a need to better understand the differences in leadership styles between men and women. Thus, the present study examines whether prison wardens perceive themselves to use transformational leadership compared to other leadership styles and whether the leadership style is gender specific. Moreover, further investigation is needed to determine whether greater levels of transformational leadership characteristics lead to a positive professional orientation, reduced stress, and higher job satisfaction.

The study also sought to determine whether attitudes toward rehabilitation differ between male and female wardens. Earlier research by Kim et al. (2003) suggested that female wardens were more likely to support rehabilitation programs than their male counterparts. A third feature of the study was to understand the differences in job stress levels between female and male wardens, given that Collica-Cox and Schulz (2019) found that female wardens often ascribe job stress to the challenges related to balancing work and personal responsibilities of their roles within the department. Lastly, job satisfaction is the final variable that was evaluated, as women at the executive level have reported high levels of job satisfaction (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2021) but also face several challenges which may hinder their advancement through the correctional ladder (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2021).

Significance of the Study

The significance of the study is threefold. First, the study contributes significantly to the literature by examining the influence of gender and leadership style on effectiveness and the factors that contribute to the effectiveness. Second, the examination builds upon the criminological theory of Importation-Differential Experiences Model (Van Voorhis et al., 1991; Zimmer, 1986), extending the theoretical framework from correctional officers to wardens. Finally, while the convenience sampling technique limits the generalizability of the findings, this examination will provide insight into the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of wardens across the United States and the advancement of correctional administration policies.

Purpose Statement

This study explores the effectiveness of female prison wardens as leaders throughout the United States and the factors that influence their effectiveness. Additionally, this exploratory study aims to determine if wardens who perceive themselves to possess greater levels of transformational leadership characteristics also experience a positive professional orientation, lower levels of stress at work, and higher levels of job satisfaction and whether these differences are gender-based.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

1. Hypothesis one proposed prison wardens who perceive themselves to have high levels of transformational leadership characteristics are more likely to have a positive professional orientation, higher levels of job satisfaction, and lower levels of work-related stress.

The dependent variables of interest are leadership effectiveness factors, including professional orientation, job stress, and job satisfaction. The primary independent variable of interest is perceived transformational leadership skills. Participants were asked to answer the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5X-Short, Self-Survey) found within the survey to assess whether they perceived that they exhibited transformational leadership skills on a strongly agree to strongly disagree scale (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Further, the control and intervening variables(s), including gender, age, race, education level, correctional experience, and tenure, will be statistically controlled. Finally, a multivariable regression using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) is used to test this hypothesis.

Hypotheses 2-5

2. Hypothesis two proposed female prison wardens were associated with an increased probability of transformational leadership compared to their male counterparts.
3. Hypothesis three proposed female prison wardens will exhibit more positive attitudes toward rehabilitation than their male counterparts.
4. Hypothesis four proposed female prison wardens will have a greater likelihood of lower work-related stress than their male counterparts.
5. Hypothesis five proposed female prison wardens will have a greater likelihood of increased job satisfaction than their male counterparts.

A framework for hypotheses two, three, four, and five are developed using the criminological importation-differential experience model and tested with the Mann-Whitney U test. The test analyzed the differences between males and females (categorical-independent variable) and the individual Likert-type questions for leadership styles, professional orientation (attitudes towards rehabilitation), work-related stress, and job satisfaction (ordinal-dependent variable) (Arditi et al., 2013).

Overview of the Methodology

This study used a voluntary, anonymous, and confidential online survey to maximize data collection and speed up data compilation (Gideon, 2012). The respondents who completed the survey were US wardens from state and federal adult prisons and county and city jails and were targeted for this study through convenience sampling, a non-probability method. Therefore, the study mainly included individuals approved by their respective commissioners or secretaries of state (described in Chapter 3), which included a sample population from ten approved states spread throughout the United States. Additionally, to reach a broader audience, the study was posted on the researcher's LinkedIn profile, the LinkedIn profile of Wardens, Superintendents, Directors of Corrections, Governors, and Deputy Wardens/Administrators, and the Association of Women Executives in Corrections (AWEC). Further, the analysis was conducted utilizing linear regression and a series of Mann–Whitney U tests. A detailed description of the research method and design is found in Chapter 3.

Definition of Key Terms²

1. *Correctional Experience*: The number of years working in a correctional setting (jail, prison, probation, or parole).
2. *Correctional or Prison Administrator*: A high-ranking official overseeing a correctional facility (prison or jail), also referred to as a warden. However, some states or private entities use this title.

² Definitions derived from the American Correctional Association (2013).

3. *Commissioner or Secretary*: Appointed by the Governor, will ensure that the Department of Corrections operates by state statutes and has established goals as an integral part of the correctional system that state its Mission and sets its purpose. The commissioner or secretary also appoints and removes wardens.
4. *Custody level of a facility*: Each prison security level corresponds with the types of offenders assigned to the facility. In describing the types of offenders supervised within a correctional facility, the four primary custody levels are maximum, high/close, medium, and minimum.
5. *Director*: A high-ranking official overseeing a correctional facility (prison or jail), also referred to as a warden. However, some states or private entities use this title.
6. *Superintendent*: A high-ranking official overseeing a correctional facility (prison or jail), also referred to as a warden. However, some states or private entities use this title.
7. *Warden*: A high-ranking official overseeing a correctional facility (prison or jail).
The title varies from state to state.

Limitations

Limitations are matters and occurrences that arise in a study out of the researcher's control, limiting the study's extent and affecting the results and conclusions that can be drawn (Simon & Goes, 2013). However, limitations may not necessarily equate to diminished study validity; instead, they offer future research opportunities (Simon & Goes, 2013).

This study is not without limitations that will be briefly discussed in this section; however, more detailed explanations can be found in Chapter 3. Firstly, Schiff and Leip

(2019) pointed out that a survey conducted among a traditionally untapped population whose contact information is not readily available may only have limited generalizability. However, the difficulty of reaching the targeted population may not be as significant, given that similar challenges have been observed in previous studies.

Second, the sample includes wardens and superintendents in city and county jails, state correctional facilities, private correctional facilities, and federal correctional facilities. Each of these individuals has to abide by specific departmental regulations, budgets, policies, and procedures that govern the respective institutions they serve. Therefore, correctional facilities in different states often operate differently, which may impact the relationships examined in the present study. Third, the survey response rate was lower than expected. However, despite the lower than expected response rate at 49%, the targeted sampling method proved to be the most effective and systematic approach for identifying participants. Fourth, it is essential to note that the participants in this study consisted of a convenience sample of individuals who willingly participated; thus, there is an element of selection bias that was not accounted for by the covariates (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013).

A fifth limitation is the length of the original questionnaires, as a modified survey instrument was utilized for the present study. Although the survey questions are derived from all validated questionnaires, there are some concerns about the survey's reliability, particularly since the researcher did not have sufficient participants to pretest the survey before its administration. Despite this, the survey received positive feedback regarding its use of applicability, and it can serve as a foundational tool for future surveys. Lastly, the current study used only cross-sectional data rather than longitudinal data, so it is not

possible to examine leadership effectiveness over time. Nonetheless, cross-sectional data reflects the current opinions, attitudes, and experiences of a population that is difficult to survey (Kelly, 2021).

Overview of the Chapters

Chapter 2 begins with a discussion of challenges faced by women and the positive impact of Title IV on expanding promotional opportunities. Also, the chapter explores tokenism and expands on the importation-differential theory. Further, the chapter investigates the factors that influence wardens' effectiveness with an emphasis on gender, which includes a) leadership styles with a particular focus on transformational leadership, b) professional orientation, c) work-related stress levels, and d) job satisfaction. Finally, the chapter will conclude by identifying the gaps in the research literature.

Chapter 3 discusses the methodology used to conduct the current study. The study utilized cross-sectional data using convenience sampling, a non-probability sampling technique, of wardens who willingly participated in the study. Further, the targeted sampling method proved to be the most effective and systematic method for identifying participants providing the basis for future research designs. Additionally, a simple questionnaire was created using three survey tools to maximize data collection.

In Chapter 4, the findings of this study are detailed—the study used multiple linear regression analyses and Mann–Whitney U tests to evaluate leadership effectiveness of female wardens compared to male wardens. This chapter ends with a brief discussion of this study's findings, conclusions, and limitations.

Chapter 5 is the conclusion chapter. It discusses the study's results in more depth to ground the findings in the existing literature. The chapter also discusses policy implications for policymakers and practitioners in the United States.

CHAPTER 2

WOMEN IN CORRECTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Women have gradually climbed the correctional ladder into leadership positions (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019).³ Although historically women demonstrated leadership qualities in correctional settings, they were confined to traditional roles (i.e., matrons) and perceived to exhibit feminine traits, including an emotional and sympathetic nature (Pollock, 1995). The term ‘matron’ was used interchangeably for jail guards (Belknap, 2001), cottage officers, and cottage wardens (Hawkes, 1997). Given women's perceived sympathetic nature, they were relegated to teaching skills and values to ‘fallen’ women (Martin & Jurik, 1996). Still, a few women exceeded the sex-specific roles in the early part of the 20th century. For instance, Kate Bernard was the Commissioner of Corrections of New York from 1907 to 1915 and Clara Waters was the first female warden of an all-male correctional facility from 1927 to 1932 (Pollock, 1995).

Efforts by reformers continued throughout the early 1900s to move away from gender work roles; however, correctional historical accounts neglected to document the impact of women in corrections during this timeframe, particularly the reformatory movement in correctional policy development (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2017). Therefore, for much of the 20th-century, women’s “image of femininity” such as nurturing, and caring, remained engrained in corrections (Martin & Jurik, 1996, p. 159).

³ Leadership is “the process of influencing people in a way that motivates them to contribute to the achievement of group goals” (Haslam et al., 2011). Four elements comprise the definition; first, leadership is not something a person possesses, but it is something they do (Haslam et al., 2011). Second, a person does not carry out leadership alone; leadership involves a group of people over which the leader exerts influence (Haslam et al., 2011). Third, evidence of leadership is not a leader's vision but the followership of the individuals they influence (Haslam et al., 2011). Finally, leadership includes influencing others, such as winning others, whereas others willingly and enthusiastically complete tasks (Haslam, 2011)

One of the most noteworthy events took place in the 1970s when the progressive reformers challenged the formal restrictions that prevented institutions from hiring women in male correctional facilities and, in turn, helped to advance occupational opportunities. For instance, the case of *Dothard v. Rawlinson* (1977) held that the height and weight restriction by the Alabama Department of Corrections (ADOC) disqualifying women from corrections officers' positions was unreasonable and a clear violation of Title VII (Batton & Wright, 2019; Smith & Loomis, 2013). Additionally, the courts ruled that the State of Alabama failed to prove a connection between physical requirements and their ability to exercise suitable control over incarcerated individuals (Potts, 1983). Consequently, the amendments to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act in 1972 generated a shift within the corrections workforce and paved the way for women to work in male correctional facilities (Collica-Cox, & Schulz, 2019). In addition, to Title VII providing workplace opportunities, it also protected women from harassment and abuse in correctional workplaces. In particular, female officers were safeguarded from predatory behavior from incarcerated individuals, such as undermining their authority, and male co-workers' sexual harassment (Smith & Loomis, 2013).

Within just ten years of the federal mandate requiring equal employment opportunities under Title VII, women rapidly began to be hired in male prisons. Indeed, by the end of 1981, women worked in male correctional facilities in approximately forty-six states (Smith & Loomis, 2013). Although Title VII led to equal employment rights, the doctrine did not account for the other issues women experience in male-dominated professions or the coping mechanism they would adopt to assimilate into the culture (Smith & Loomis, 2013). For instance, the policies around gender-neutrality varied from

state to state, including the type of work women were permitted to carry out, e.g., they were excluded from maximum security posts and housing posts and certain maximum-security prisons (National Institute of Corrections, 1991). The restrictions on the type of work women were allowed to do in correctional facilities negatively impacted the opportunities for women to be promoted into leadership positions (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019). As a result, for much of the 20th century, few women were in leadership positions.

Regardless of the gender disparities in leadership, Batton and Wright (2019) contend that the correctional sector is moving toward a more gender-neutral environment. Kim, DeValve, DeValve, and Johnson (2003) posit that there is a new attitude toward females in corrections that is more accepting of “alternative images of competence emphasizing women’s unique capacities...” (p. 408). Furthermore, some scholars contend that the increase of women working in male prisons challenges the correctional sector to examine the skills and attributes needed to succeed in corrections (Lambert et al., 2017).

The dynamics of female correctional officers working in female correctional facilities stand in stark contrast to female officers in male institutions. Women working in female prisons are regarded as effective because of their "feminine" characteristics; however, they may not be seen as effective in male prisons, e.g., a masculinized profession (Collica-Cox and Schulz, 2019). For instance, while female officers are perceived as having a more nurturing and calming effect on incarcerated individuals than male correctional officers (Poole & Pogebrin, 2017), supervisors often connect the nurturing characteristics with the officer's inability to execute the requirements of the positions (Burdett, Gouliquer & Poulin, 2018; Zimmer, 1986). Correctional institutions

essentially bring forth a competitive, hostile, and potentially dangerous environment giving a general perception that males are better equipped to complete the job tasks (Bobbitt-Zeher, 2011). Women are in a double bind, as both women who exhibit stereotypical male traits and those that conform to the female gender construct are perceived in a negative light (Tyler & Cohen, 2010).

It follows, therefore, that male correctional officers are often in charge of overseeing the routine supervision of inmate activities, while female correctional officers are relegated to low-level administrative positions, which, in turn, prevent them from overseeing the activities of incarcerated individuals in housing units (National Institute of Corrections, 1991; Martin and Jurik 2007; Smith & Loomis, 2013). Jurik and Musheno (1986) note that despite the reforms that have taken place in corrections since the late 1970s, physical strength and verbal aggressiveness will continue to predominate the skills necessary to accomplish the job tasks in penitentiaries effectively (Gouliquer, 2011). Considering this, females often face greater challenges when entering the correctional workplace in terms of their ability and capacity to perform their duties than their male counterparts (Hemmens et al., 2002; Lambert et al., 2007). Researchers studying gender-related issues have found strong evidence that gender influences feelings about who women are, what they do, and how they do the job (Martin and Jurik, 2007) in a correctional environment.

Accordingly, there is little debate that male attributes are often associated with effectiveness⁴ in corrections and embedded throughout initial and subsequent training

⁴ Effectiveness is the degree to which a designated collective goal is accomplished (Wood, Meister, Liu, 2021).

(Britton,1997; Griffin et al., 2005). These perceptions will cause further limits on female officers within the paramilitary structure⁵, e.g., sexual discrimination in the competition for a promotion or token assignments (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Consequently, women who work in male-dominated fields face additional burdens as a result of gender stereotypes, creating a role conflict (Burdett et al., 2018; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Often as a result, females will experience a questioning of their physical, emotional, and intellectual capabilities to accomplish their job duties (Poole & Pogrebin, 2016). As pointed out by Collica-Cox and Schulz (2019), the right to equal employment does not guarantee that women will be provided with equal and fair access to resources, networks, and advancement opportunities.

In summary, even though women have traditionally shown leadership qualities within correctional settings for much of the 20th century they were confined to traditional roles. For much of the century women's stereotypical image of femininity of nurturing and caring persisted as the prevailing image in correctional facilities. However, by 1972 amendments to Title IV of the Civil Rights Acts enabled women to gain employment in male facilities at an accelerated rate helping to raise the glass ceiling and increasing the opportunity for promotions (Rabe-Hemp, 2017). It is important to note, however, that state policies prevented women from working in all prison types and prison housing posts, which had a significant impact on the promotion and advancement of women into leadership roles. Nonetheless, despite the fact that there is a gender disparity in

⁵ Correctional agencies operate utilizing a paramilitary structure which includes key operational functions from the military model of command, e.g., correctional officers wear uniforms, ranks such as sergeants, lieutenants, and captains (Seiter, 2017). Additionally, the chain of command is understood by staff and offenders (Seiter, 2017).

corrections, some scholars believe that the corrections system is moving toward becoming an environment that is more inclusive for women as a whole rather than one in which they are marginalized. As a result, the increase in the number of women who are employed in male prisons *raises the question of what skills and attributes are needed to succeed in this sector*. The effectiveness of women working in female prisons has previously been thought to be attributed to the women's feminine characteristics, however, many have doubted the effectiveness of women working in male prisons since they lack the masculine characteristics that are often considered necessary in a masculinized prison environment.

Considering this, researchers have argued that while the prison system has undergone many reforms over the years, characteristics such as physical strength and verbal aggressiveness continue to predominate when it comes to the kinds of skills needed to be successful in a prison system. Thus, there is evidence to suggest that gender plays a significant role in the perceptions of how women carry out their jobs. Male characteristics are commonly associated with effectiveness and embedded throughout initial and subsequent training, resulting in further challenges for females. To integrate this common perception, the present study examines female wardens' effectiveness compared to male wardens as leaders and the factors that influence effectiveness. The breadth of the factors examined in the literature that influence leadership effectiveness in correctional administration includes *leadership styles, professional orientation, job satisfaction and job stress*.

The next section examines tokenism in greater depth to determine if female correctional employees are exposed to heightened visibility, increasing their performance pressure, and impacting their ability to advance within the organization (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2020).

Tokenism

The idea of tokenism derived from Kanter's (1977) research on women in a nontraditional business setting that examined the link between being a minority and the challenges to promotion.⁶ The basic concepts of tokenism include an employee appearing different from the larger group, i.e., gender, race, ethnicity, and sexual orientation, increasing the token employee's visibility and leading to high scrutiny and expectations of work performance (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2020). These expectations can lead to negative perceptions of the token employees and isolation from the "inner circle," such as females experiencing isolation in male correctional facilities (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2020; Lambert et al., 2007).

While there is broad agreement that women experience tokenism in male correctional facilities, Zimmer (1988) found that the concept is "inadequate for understanding and solving gender problems in the workplace because it ignores the content of the relationship between males and females in a society plagued by sexism" (p. 65). Zimmer (1988) argues that the focus on tokenism hinders women's advancement and detracts from sexism in the workplace. Much of the debate over sexism has revolved around women reporting that in contrast to males entering an all-female workforce, e.g.,

⁶ Kanter (1977) defined a non-traditional occupation as less than 15% of the workforce in an organization.

social work and nursing, men reported no opposition from female staff or supervisors (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2020; Zimmer, 1988). In contrast, male correctional professionals have resisted the entrance of women into the correctional sector and particularly after the enactment of new laws requiring inclusion (Carlson, Thomas, & Anson, 2004; Tewksbury & Collins, 2006; Zimmer, 1988). These examples suggest that being the "few" in a highly skewed work group leads to different experiences for males and females (Zimmer, 1988). Kanter (1977) suggested that tokenism impacts "significant types" of employees, and tokenism might differ by "specific kinds of people..." (pp. 212).

Collica-Cox and Schulz's (2020) findings indicate that female wardens experience different tokenism levels, such as high visibility, but other factors such as isolation did not hamper their careers. For instance, despite the challenges in a nontraditional occupation faced by women in corrections, they report high levels of job satisfaction (Collica-Cox and Schulz, 2020). Collica Cox & Schulz (2020) recently found that women are optimistic about their promotional prospects and have fewer challenges every step up the promotional ladder. The study is consistent with the existing literature emphasizing that as women advance up the promotional ladder, the perception of their effectiveness becomes more widely accepted (Rabe-Hemp, 2009).

Although tokenism can explain some challenges women face as they move up the career ladder, tokenism does not appear to be a significant concern for females entering leadership roles in US correctional facilities (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2020). As such, researchers have theorized that a competing model, the importation-differential theoretical framework, is more accurate at explaining the differences between males' and

females' attitudes influenced by their prior socialization, e.g., family roles (Jurik and Halemba, 1984; Lambert et al., 2017). The following section delves into the importation-differential theoretical framework.

Importation-Differential Theoretical Framework

Correctional work, originally designed to control an offender population, embodies the idea of masculinity more than most other professions (Bobbitt-Zeher, 2011). Nonetheless, Title VII provided a legal basis for women to secure equal employment rights, opening the doors to being hired on an equal basis in men's prisons; as such, this allowed the research community to examine if differences existed among male and female correctional personnel and to determine the reasons for the differences (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019; Maghan & McLeish Blackwell, 1991).

Numerous scholars have proposed that the importation-differential theory can help explain the individual gender differences in how correctional employees approach their job and how they perceive supervisory and organizational support (Belknap, 1991; Carlson, Anson, & Thomas, 2003; Crouch & Alpert, 1982; Griffin, 2006; Griffin et al., 2005; Lambert et al., 2017; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). In its simplest form, the theory suggests that female attitudes differ from those of males due to prior socialization (VanVoorhis et al., 1991). A typical example would be "women place a greater emphasis than men on how they relate to others in their work environment" (Jurik & Halemba, 1984, p. 554). Additionally, the theory further adds that given the fact that men constitute the vast majority of supervisory and administrative personnel, females perceive supervisory and organizational support as limiting (Britton, 1997; Griffin, 2006). It is often the case that women are excluded from informal social networks, commonly known

as "old boy" networks, which prevent them from advancing in their careers (Pelletier & Bligh, 2008; Van Voorhis et al., 1991), which often prevent them from advancing opportunities.

The importation-differential model serves as guide in this study, which hypothesizes that individual and demographic factors, such as gender, may have a strong influence on a person's perceptions, views, attitudes, and behaviors in their workplace (Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Indeed, empirical research indicates that male correctional staff members perceived that women employed in corrections are not as capable as males (Matthews, Monk-Turner, & Sumter, 2010; Rader, 2007). In addition, the theory proposes that while correctional officers share the same occupation, there will also be differences in attitudes based on demographic factors, since external factors such as the work environment affect the attitudes of correctional officers (Castle, 2008; Lambert et al., 2010; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). In fact, Hemmens and colleagues (2002) reported that other individual factors such as military background and age, e.g., male officers over fifty, lead to a less favorable view of female correctional officers' ability to perform the job effectively when compared to their male counterparts.

The importance of understanding the full spectrum of factors influencing correctional officers' beliefs about gender in correctional settings cannot be overstated, namely, that these perceptions are influenced by external factors such as department types and geographical regions (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2020), as well as facility security levels (Hemmens et al., 2002). For instance, Griffin, Armstrong, and Hepburn (2005), using a self-administered Quality of Work Life Survey, found that males in a Southwestern correctional facility were significantly more likely to perceive that their

organization was supportive of equality and diversity policies than females. Dobrin, Smith, Peck, and Mascara (2016), on the other hand, conducted a survey of employees' perceptions of their work environment at a jail in the South and found that women correctional officers perceived that women had fair opportunities to advance based on their merit and work performance. Alternatively, Hemmens and colleagues (2002) by means of a questionnaire given in person at each facility, determined that an institution's security level negatively influenced male correctional officers' perceptions of female correctional officers.

There is also evidence that perceptions held by male officers toward female officers often lead to sexual discrimination when they are competing for promotions within correctional institutions (Helfgott, et al., 2018; Rader, 2007). A number of researchers (Carlson et al., 2004; Matthews et al., 2010; Nicholas, 2012) pointed out that women "report experiencing high rates of sexual harassment, challenges in balancing work and family life, perceptions that they cannot perform as well as men, and an overall belief that male workers are perceived as more capable in managing correctional job duties" (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2018, p. 5). Similarly, in her 1986 qualitative study on New York and Delaware correctional systems, Zimmer outlined women's adverse job experiences, including sexual harassment, intimidation, degradation, and inadequate training.

It appears, therefore, that Van Voorhis and colleagues (1991) contention continues to be the case thirty years later that merely having equal employment opportunities is not sufficient to ensure that women and minorities will have adequate access to needed resources in order to assure both job satisfaction and advancement in the

workforce. The researchers voice concern that strain is often placed on female correctional officers with a lack of training and support, leading to role ambiguity, role conflict, and stress (Lambert, Altheimer, & Hogan, 2010; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Additionally, women are reluctant about promotion, given that they perceive limited promotional opportunities since few women hold executive positions (Lambert et al., 2007). Despite the general misconception that there are few women in correctional leadership positions, the percentage of women promoted to executive positions in state and federal prisons is 27%. Although the percentage of women in front-line positions remains lower than those of women in executive positions, it is nevertheless sufficient to allow researchers to evaluate their influence on the correctional sector.

In summary, a number of scholars have suggested that the importation-differential theory may offer an explanation for the differences between how males and females in corrections approach their jobs, how they perceive supervision, and how they perceive the support offered by their organizations. Additionally, this model observes that despite correctional officers sharing the same occupation, there will be differences in attitudes across demographic factors; this is because external factors such as the work environment influence the attitudes of these officers toward their occupation. There are also other factors that impact the perceptions of correctional officers regarding gender in correctional settings, such as department types and geographical regions. These perceptions may lead to male officers acting in a discriminatory manner towards female officers. It is therefore important to note that merely asserting that there are equal employment opportunities does not imply that equal employment is guaranteed, as females frequently experience difficulty advancing in their careers.

Wardens

Shifting the focus to correctional wardens from correctional officers, this dissertation posits that previous researchers have often overlooked ways in which the importation-differential experience framework applies to female correctional executives. As far as the researcher is aware, only one study has evaluated the extent of the theoretical framework and wardens. In a study by Criminologists Cullen, Latessa, Burton, and Lombardo (1993a), the theory was applied to prison wardens emphasizing that job satisfaction is influenced by individual factors, age, race, and education, as well as organizational factors, including the classification of the facility, i.e., state or federal. However, Cullen et al. (1993a) neglected to include gender in the instrument, found that age was correlated with another variable, and did not find any significance for the education variable.

Studies that did focus on female wardens, e.g., Kim, DeValve, DeValve, and Johnson (2003), put forward Noddings' (1984) "caring ethic" model hypothesizing that females have a natural caretaker inclination. This framework theorizes that female wardens demonstrate early female predecessors' "caring ethic" characteristics (Noddings', 1984; Merlo & Pollock, 1995). Their study of female wardens, where they employed the National Corrections Executive Survey (NCES_95), a nationwide survey designed to collect data on wardens of state adult correctional facilities, found support for the notion that Noddings' caring ethic, particularly in rehabilitation and choice to support amenities for human enrichment such as college education (Kim et al., 2003).

Conversely, Altendorf's (2018) theoretical framework argues that gender is a social construct that begins at birth, it is rooted in the socialization practices throughout a

person's life course and further perpetuated later in life in places like the workspace (Altendorf, 2018). The process of gender socialization is different for women and men, and its primary function is to maintain male privilege by "shaping and restricting the occupational choices" for males and females (Altendorf, 2018, p. 597). For instance, when women step into leadership positions, they are often labeled as deviant for rejecting femininity and following a masculine template for success in the workplace (Altendorf, 2018). Altendorf (2018) argues that gender socialization can be "a mechanism of social control that limits people's potential and perpetuates gender inequality, or it can be a resource that expands opportunities and allows people to realize their full potential" (Altendorf, 2018, p. 611). To evaluate this gender construct model, she interviewed twenty-nine female wardens and superintendents, documenting their life experiences and factors that shaped their occupational choice (Altendorf, 2018). Altendorf (2018) concluded that female wardens and superintendents who participated in the study demonstrated overcoming gender socialization.

Focusing on the relationship between female leadership effectiveness and gender bias, Collica-Cox and Schulz (2019) found that although women can achieve leadership ranks, bias remains within the corrections culture, especially with career trajectories, e.g., the treatment staff is not viewed as prestigious as operations staff.⁷ They explained that gender bias is further complicated when combined with race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender identity, class, and religion (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019). Collica-

⁷ Treatment staff often referred to as professional staff, are required to have a college degree and certifications. Professional staff provides rehabilitation services, such as education, vocational training, substance abuse, and mental health issues. In comparison, the operations staff referred to as uniform staff, is responsible for overseeing the housing units, recreational areas, such as the yard or gym, or service areas, such as the kitchen (Seiter, 2017).

Cox & Schulz (2019) propose a model of intersectionality that highlights "gender dichotomies" and other factors that restrict a woman's opportunity for success.

Recent research by Collica-Cox and Schulz (2020), as previously discussed, suggested "tokenism" as an alternative model to examine perceptions of women in correctional leadership positions. They focused on the female correctional leaders' views of opportunities for upward mobility, whether their peers viewed them as tokens, and whether those views impacted their decision to pursue promotional opportunities (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2020). Specifically, that it may not always be adequate for understanding gender problems in the workplace given that both males and females will experience being the few, i.e., the token, different from one another (Zimmer, 1988).

While studies focused on female wardens have incorporated a variety of theoretical approaches to examine the differences between gendered approaches, this study seeks to contribute to existing research by examining the role of importation-differential theory for female leaders in corrections. A theoretical framework was provided that illustrates the importance of gender in this study, but no evidence of what factors contribute to leadership effectiveness. In the next section, the variables that have been used in this study to measure leadership effectiveness will be outlined, beginning with leadership style, moving to professional orientation (attitudes towards rehabilitation), job stress, and finally job satisfaction.

Prison Warden Leadership: Determinants of Effectiveness

Correctional Management versus Leadership Effectiveness

The states' central administration holds correctional administrators accountable and uses their work performance as a measure of their effectiveness in implementing a

range of correctional components and administering a wide array of administrative functions (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). As asserted by Ruddell and Norris (2008), wardens are generally responsible for a variety of duties, such as coordinating safety and security operations, resolving critical incidents, managing public relations, planning and implementing safety and security plans, as well as managing inmate programs, among other things. There have been numerous studies that examine management practices in prisons, which include the management of prison gangs (Marchese, 2009; Winterdyk & Ruddell, 2010), the provision of amenities to incarcerated individuals (Johnson, Bennett & Flannagan, 1997), the overcrowding of prisons (Cox & Rhodes, 1990), the management attitudes of prison staff (Bennett & Johnson, 2000) and the physical location of the wardens' office (Smith, Lombardo, Ranson, & Sylvester, 1996). Comparatively, fewer studies have attempted to assess the effectiveness of prison wardens based on individual characteristics and organizational factors, such as the leadership style of the warden, professional orientation (attitudes toward rehabilitation), the level of job satisfaction, and work-related stress (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Cullen, Latessa, Kopache, Lombardo, Burton, 1993; Flannagan, Johnson, & Bennett, 1996b). Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) note that although this field of research has primarily focused on correctional officers, it remains remarkably relevant to wardens, given that prolonged high levels of stress and low levels of satisfaction negatively affect both individuals and organizations.

In this study, the literature is extended by investigating a range of factors that influence the leadership effectiveness of wardens, including their leadership style, professional orientation, work-related stress and job satisfaction. Since correctional

facilities maintain a predominantly masculinized culture, this study is particularly focused on female wardens given that it may be more difficult for women to be perceived as effective in these institutions (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019). Accordingly, in the subsequent section, the focus is on leadership styles, since, according to Heaton and Atherton (2008), in order to lead an effective and efficient correctional system, wardens must convey a clear vision for the organization, and they must inspire their staff to achieve that vision. Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) also propose that leadership styles, particularly varying levels of transformational leadership, can offer a protective factor against a prison warden's experience of job stress which leads to increased job satisfaction. By utilizing their hypothesis to frame the first research question, the following section provides an overview of leadership styles and how transformational leadership contributes to a warden's effectiveness. Further, the literature will expand upon Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong's (2013) hypothesis by investigating whether these factors can be attributed to a difference in gender.

Leadership Styles

DiIulio (1987) contends that the leadership style of the warden is the most critical determinant of safe, orderly institutions providing effective services, i.e., amenities and rehabilitation services, to individuals behind bars. He put forth a few broad observations he considers critical to the role of a prison executive (DiIulio, 1987). First, he argues that successful prison directors are in the office long enough to learn the job, make plans, and implement them (DiIulio, 1987). Second, he adds that wardens should be hands-on and proactive, paying close attention to details and in-tuned with the inside (cellblocks) and the outside (state legislatures) of the penitentiary (DiIulio, 1987). Finally, wardens should

always project a positive image of themselves, should be dedicated and loyal to the agency, and see themselves as individuals engaged in a noble profession (DiIulio, 1987). Although DiIulios' work has been controversial, it brought forth the importance of the wardens' leadership style in improving correctional systems (Cullen et al., 1993b).

Contemporary theorists utilize a methodical approach and distinguish between three broad approaches to leadership styles among prison wardens. To begin with, Bass (1998) explains that laissez-faire is a leadership style that has an adverse effect on desired outcomes and generally creates the opposite of what was intended by the person in a leadership position⁸ (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The use of laissez-faire, for example, means avoiding getting involved when critical issues arise, being absent when needed, delaying making decisions, and not responding to urgent matters (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Alternatively, individuals with a more active leadership style utilize transactional leadership, which emphasizes each employee's role and responsibilities within the organization, along with work objectives that help to identify the individual's capabilities.⁹ In addition to that, individuals utilizing transactional leadership style make sure that standards are set, errors are monitored, and that employees are rewarded accordingly, usually with an increase in salary or promotions, for those who exceed expectations (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Skeptics of transactional leadership include Srithongrung (2011), who asserts that transactional rewards have an ephemeral effect by simply appeasing the employees' financial security needs. In fact, Bass and Riggio (2006)

⁸ Laissez-faire is a hands-off management style where tasks are delegated with little to no direction (Goodnight, 2004).

⁹ Transactional leadership is a task-oriented style with clearly defined goals (Bass,1985; Burns, 1978).

indicated that transformational leadership is more sustainable than transactional leadership because the latter relies more heavily on financial incentives to motivate the staff. It should be noted, however, that transformational leadership complements transactional leadership by utilizing rewards while positively influencing the attitudes and behaviors of employees (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Wright & Pandey, 2010).

Transformational leadership exhibits four components: idealized influence (attribute and behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass and Riggio, 2006).¹⁰ According to Bass and Riggio (2006), transformational leaders exhibit each component at different levels, fostering the desired organizational outcomes through their followers. With the shift from management to leadership in the prison administration, transformational leadership is becoming increasingly prevalent in the corrections field, resulting in a more participative and people-oriented approach to management (Bartollas & Miller, 1978; Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). To illustrate, Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) determined that prison wardens who exhibit transformational leadership characteristics have a significant impact on their leadership effectiveness as they are able to provide highly satisfactory supervisory support to their staff and, as a result, receive reciprocal benefits in the form

¹⁰ Idealized influence (attribute) includes instilling pride in employees by pointing to the good of the group, building respect from the employees, and exhibiting a sense of power and confidence (Bass & Riggio, 2006). While idealized influence (behavior) centers on values and beliefs, creating a strong sense of purpose, developing ethical consequences, and emphasizing the importance of a strong collective mission (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

On the other hand, inspirational motivation looks to the future optimistically, discussing goals enthusiastically, sharing a compelling vision of the future, and expressing confidence that the goals will be achieved (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Further, intellectual stimulation helps the leader evaluate ideas and values and re-examine critical assumptions, i.e., question whether they are appropriate, aspire for and embrace diverse perspectives for problem-solving, and offer new strategies for completing tasks (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Finally, individualized consideration pivots to mentorship, where the leader assists employees to reach their full potential, and new opportunities are created in the organization for their continued growth.

of reduced employee stress. It is also noted by Schofield and Parker (2019) that an increase in job satisfaction for correctional staff is strongly related to a warden's leadership style, particularly transformational leadership.

Further illustrating this point, empirical studies focused on correctional officers indicated that staff with high levels of leadership support are more likely to perform well at work (Armstrong & Griffin, 2004; Cullen et al., 1985). The finding is vital since numerous studies have determined that correctional officers with high levels of stress displayed low levels of job performance and social problems, e.g., burnout, divorce, mental health problems, and illness (Griffin et al., 2010; Salami et al., 2010; Woodruff, 1993). Wardens are tasked with motivating and inspiring staff by diminishing the suffrage of intensive job tasks that often lead to job stress while maintaining their own mental and physical health (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). According to various studies work-related stress can also be a significant factor in affecting the effectiveness of a warden and negatively impacting the organization (Lambert, Hogan & Griffin, 2007; Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Lambert, Barton, and Hogan (2002) argue that for females in corrections there is a significant difference in stress levels that extends to work-family conflict that negatively impacts job satisfaction.

Considering the increasing presence of women in corrections, it is important to note that another essential characteristic not discussed in the scholarly literature is the leadership style of female correctional executives (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2017). Based on one of the only studies that focused on leadership styles of female correctional executives, Collica-Cox & Schulz (2017) report that most women interviewed believed the correctional administration leadership would evolve from an archaic structure to more

therapeutic in the future. Based on the limited empirical research that has been conducted, it is evident that the differences between leadership styles between men and women continue to be an area of interest that requires further exploration (Collica-Cox and Shulz, 2017). It is the purpose of this study to extend the literature in examining if there are any differences between the leadership styles of men and women.

In addition, while a leader's effectiveness is defined by their ability to manage change, transform organizations, and improve performance using effective leadership styles, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) emphasizes that for effective organizational change to occur within outdated and antiquated prison systems, it requires the cooperation of a variety of staff levels, an outstanding administrative staff, and the involvement of external organizations. Despite this, it is essential to understand that an important aspect of operating a prison is providing humane treatment to incarcerated individuals (UNODC, 2010), and this includes making sure they are offered programs to assist them in enhancing their behavior before and after their release to the community (Duwe, 2017). As most individuals eventually return to their respective communities, offering humane services that include programming is more than just a public safety concern, it is also an integral part of evaluating the effectiveness of a prison's leadership (Duwe, 2017). In view of this, the next determinant of leadership effectiveness in the following section, namely professional orientation (attitudes toward rehabilitation), which is another essential factor that contributes to the effectiveness of leaders. In view of this, a subsequent essential factor that contributes to determinant leadership effectiveness, professional orientation (attitudes toward rehabilitation), is examined in the following section.

Professional Orientation: Attitudes of Wardens towards Rehabilitation

It is often the case that stakeholders and the community measure a warden's effectiveness based on his or her response to a facility's safety, security, and operations (Cullen et al., 1993a); although the responsibilities of a prison warden are extensive and include a long list of priorities as previously described (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). It should be noted, however, that while correctional administrators have a wide range of responsibilities, they often view rehabilitation programs as imperative for institutional management as they have been shown to decrease inmate "idleness" and enhance the inmate adjustment to prison life (DiIulio, 1987). Adding to this, administrators utilize in-prison rehabilitation programs to create positive opportunities for the inmate community and as a tool to reward positive behavior (DiIulio, 1987). A general belief among wardens is that approximately 25% of incarcerated individuals have the potential to be rehabilitated (Cullen et al., 1993a).

There are, however, *organizational factors* that influence the wardens' views, such as, Cullen and Colleagues (1993a) found that wardens of state facilities support rehabilitation more than wardens of federal facilities, and wardens from the southern US states are less supportive of rehabilitation. While Kim and colleagues (2003) point to differences in attitudes towards rehabilitation between female and male wardens when they examine *individual factors*, for example, female wardens strongly support rehabilitation programs and amenities more than male wardens. Even though wardens believe that rehabilitation is an important function, they often need to prioritize concerns involving custodial order and security (Cullen et al., 1993a). A more appropriate way to frame this paradox, according to Cullen and colleagues (1993a), would be to emphasize

that wardens are not advocates for harsher conditions within correctional facilities, but rather that their primary focus is on preventing the escapes of incarcerated individuals from those facilities.

Due to the complexity of the wardens' role, wardens are subjected to a great deal of stress (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). According to Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013), some wardens find a dynamic work environment to be quite enjoyable because it offers them a challenging work environment, but for others, such environments can only serve to increase the level of job stress that already exists. Consequently, wardens in the latter category are likely to be less malleable in their philosophical approaches to their role as prison administrators, and organizational change may be perceived as taxing (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). In this regard, the next determinant of leadership effectiveness, namely work-related stress, is another significant factor in determining a leader's effectiveness.

Work-Related Stress

The work environment in prisons is demanding and can often result in severe work-related stress, and negatively significantly impact job satisfaction (Cullen et al., 1993b). Within the correctional literature, job stress is generally defined as “feelings of job-related hardness, tension, anxiety, frustration, worry, emotional exhaustion and distress” (Atkin Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Cullen, Link, Wolfe, & Frank, 1985; Lambert, Keena, & Cheeseman, 2017; Tewksbury & Higgins, 2006; Triplett, Mullings, & Scarborough, 1999). In addition, job stress is often the result of the strain employees endure from the work environment (Armstrong & Griffin, 2004). As the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (1999) has also noted, a person can endure

stress when they experience harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the job requirements are not in line with their abilities, skills, resources, or needs.

Furthermore, as a result of work-related stress, there are significant consequences that may lead to medical and psychological problems, social and familial problems, and a shortened lifespan (Griffin, Hogan, Lambert, Tucker-Gail, & Baker, 2010; Lambert, Keena, & Cheeseman, 2017; Salami, Ojokuku & Ilesanmi, 2010). Job stress can have a negative impact on the effectiveness of a warden, which can negatively have an impact on the organization (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Lambert, Hogan & Griffin, 2007). According to Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013), the role of the warden is to motivate and inspire staff, to help reduce the burden of intensive job tasks that are known to lead to job stress, while at the same time maintaining their own mental and physical wellness.

However, it must be noted that there are limited empirical studies addressing wardens, with most of them focusing on correctional officers. Nevertheless, it is important to note that some research has been conducted on the differences between male and female correctional officers that make them worth mentioning. Particularly, given one of the hypotheses of this study is to determine if there are any differences between males and females when it comes to work-related stress.

There is evidence from the correctional empirical literature that female correctional officers experience more job stress than male correctional officers (Armstrong & Griffin, 2004; Cullen et al., 1985; Lambert et al., 2007). As an example, Van Voorhis et al. (1991) used a questionnaire to collect data on the levels of job stress among Southern correctional officers and concluded that female correctional officers reported higher levels of job stress than their male counterparts. A similar finding was

made by Lovrich and Stohr (1993), who, through observation, a job diagnostic survey, and an analysis of archival data, found that female correctional officers in a jail environment reported higher levels of job stress than their male counterparts.

In contrast, Triplett, Mullings, and Scarborough (1999) found that work-related stress for correctional officers of a medium security facility in a large southwestern state had been observed in both sexes but for distinctly different reasons. Using a questionnaire, Triplett, and colleagues (1999) found that work-family conflict was a significant predictor of work-related stress for women, while role overload was a significant predictor for men. Griffin (2006), on the other hand, conducted an examination of work-related stress in an adult state prison in a southwest state and found that both males and females experienced work-related pressures, but it was male correctional officers who were more likely to perceive positive organization support. Alternatively, Lambert, Altheimer and Hogan (2010) mailed a survey to over 200 correctional officers employed in a Midwest maximum security facility and determined that females who faced work-family conflicts were more likely to experience increased levels of job stress than their male counterparts.

Despite these results, the studies on correctional officers provide inconsistent evidence when it comes to the impact of demographic factors such as gender and work-related stress (Auerbach, Quick, & Pegg, 2003; Blau et al., 1986; Dowden & Tellier, 2004). When it comes to prison wardens, only a limited number of studies have been conducted, among them Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013), concluded that prison wardens do not show any gender differences when it comes to work-related stress. While

Collica-Cox and Schulz (2017) found that female wardens often attribute job stressors to the demands of balancing their work and personal lives.

This section documents the limited research on wardens and their job stress, with far more empirical evidence available on correctional officers. In view of the limited data available for wardens, the following section focuses on job satisfaction and continues to draw on the literature from correctional officers. Having said that, it is important to note that job satisfaction and job stress are two concepts that are often intertwined, as there is evidence that suggests that correctional officers who experience less job stress are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction, indicating that the level of job stress is a contributing factor to job satisfaction among correctional staff (Grossi, Keil, & Vito, 1996; Hepburn & Knepper, 1993; Lindquist & Whithead, 1986; Van Voorhis, Cullen, Link, & Wolfe, 1991). Further, of interest, the factors that lead to an increase in stress and lower job satisfaction for correctional officers are often less associated with overseeing incarcerated individuals (Britton, 1997; Cheek & Miller, 1983), and more associated with being dissatisfied with leadership, lack of participation in the decision-making process, and job autonomy (Cullen, Link, Wolfe, & Frank, 1985; Dowden & Tellier, 2004; Hepburn & Knepper, 1993; Jurik & Winn, 1987; Lindquist & Whitehead, 1986). Thus, the next section will address the final determinant that influences leadership effectiveness: job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction

Extensive research has been carried out on the factors associated with job satisfaction in correctional settings (Byrd, Cochran, Silverman, & Blount, 2000; Griffin, 2001; Jurik & Halemba, 1984; Lambert & Hogan, 2009; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton,

2002; Whiteacre, 2006). Within the correctional literature, job satisfaction is defined as “a person's reaction to his or her job based on the comparison of actual outcomes against those that are expected, wanted, and needed from his or her role within a correctional institution” (Griffin, Hogan, Lambert, Tucker-Gail, and Baker, 2010, p. 242).¹¹ Furthermore, a significant body of empirical research in the field of corrections has established a strong association between organizational variables, often referenced in the literature as procedural justice, and job satisfaction¹² (Dowden & Tellier, 2004; Lambert et al., 2002). According to Peterman and colleagues (2021), procedural justice at the organizational level is an important contributor to understanding how interactions between supervisors and staff within the work environment have a significant impact on behavior. For example, there is evidence to suggest that correctional officers who experience procedural justice are more likely to have higher job satisfaction, including an increase in their commitment to their organization, experiencing less burnout, and less intent to leave their jobs, as well as experiencing an overall greater sense of life satisfaction (Byrd, Cochran, Silverman, & Blount, 2000; Jurik & Winn, 1987; Lambert & Hogan, 2009; Lambert, Altheimer, & Hogan, 2010; Whitehead & Lindquist, 1986; Wright, 1993).

¹¹Multiple aspects influence an employee's ability to be satisfied at work, such as salary, job duties, co-workers, and leadership; the result is that one dimension of an employee's overall job satisfaction can be summarized and measured in order to demonstrate their overall level of satisfaction at work as a whole (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Cranny et al., 1992; Camp, 1994).

¹²Procedural justice within the work environment is defined as fairness in the decision-making procedures in the treatment of individuals (Peterman et al., 2021). Four components make up procedural justice: voice and fairness, the neutrality of decision-making, respectful treatment, i.e., appreciation for the person's dignity and the perception of trustworthiness' (Tyler, 2006).

To further explore job satisfaction, Lambert (2003) distributed a survey to 270 correctional officers' and found that procedural justice was associated with a significant positive effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Several years later, Taxman and Gordon (2009) conducted a larger study that sampled over 1,200 correctional officers and concluded that an association exists between job satisfaction and procedural justice which often results in low job stress, low perception of fear of incarcerated individuals, high acceptance of change, and strong commitment to the organization. Thereafter, Lambert, Hogan, Altheimer, and Wareham (2010) carried out a survey of 160 prison correctional officers and discovered that procedural justice was associated with a reduction in burnout and turnover intentions along with increased job satisfaction among private prison staff.

Moreover, even though the leader's job satisfaction is associated with significant negative consequences for both the individual and the organization (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2002; Tewksbury, 2004), the literature on warden's job satisfaction continues to be limited than that of correctional officers. While it is crucial to study correctional personnel, assessing the challenges experienced by wardens and their job satisfaction is equally important to examine, given that wardens not only influence the culture of an organization, but also the climate, employee satisfaction, and the well-being of incarcerated individuals (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Dial et al., 2010; Finn, 2000; Spinaris et al., 2012; Schiff & Leip, 2019).

Therefore, regarding wardens, Kelling and Schenk (1971) formulated one of the earliest discussions that identified the factors that negatively impact job satisfaction and increase job stress, which include the decline in job autonomy resulting from pressures

from stakeholders, the legal system, and the media. More than two decades later, Cullen, Latessa, Burton, and Lombardo (1993b) mailed a questionnaire to 375 prison administrators across the country in order to determine how they viewed professional orientation. Interestingly, Cullen and colleagues (1993b) found that wardens who preferred rehabilitation of offenders were more satisfied with their job, and unlike correctional officers, the number of years worked in corrections, i.e., tenure, increased wardens' job satisfaction. In a more recent study Leip, Stinchcomb, and Schiff (2019) analyzed the results of data collected from a national survey of prison wardens, and in agreement with previous findings they found that lower stress levels and greater job autonomy are associated with decreased levels of work-related stress among prison wardens.

Regarding females and job satisfaction, in continuing to draw from the correctional officer literature, Britton (1997) observed through a qualitative study of 35 female federal correctional officers, that White correctional female officers were more satisfied with their jobs and perceived that the quality of supervision was better than that of male counterparts. It is worth noting that the female correctional officers' job satisfaction was often associated with the management's leadership style (Britton, 1997; Griffin, 2001) and job stressors (Britton, 1997). Further, based on a survey of all detention officers in Maricopa County, Arizona, Griffin (2001) determined that female jail officers often report higher levels of job satisfaction when compared to male jail officers.

Conversely, the literature on job satisfaction and female wardens is even more limited. First, in an often-cited study by Cullen et al. (1993b) focused on wardens, the

study examined differences in job satisfaction but failed to include gender. Although the researchers attempted to decipher gender by linking names to the American Correctional Association (ACA) directory, the researchers did not feel the methods utilized to collect the data for the variable were accurate (Cullen et al., 1993b). Despite this, Collica-Cox and Schulz (2020) have begun to make significant inroads in the examination of females in corrections administration through the use of surveys and interviews with members of the Association of Women Executives in Corrections (AWEC). So far, the researchers found that women at the executive level report high levels of job satisfaction (Collica-Cox and Schulz, 2021). However, these experiences are often accompanied by challenges they face in a male-dominated field, such as tokenism which can prevent women from advancing (Collica-Cox and Schulz, 2020).

Chapter Summary

It was a step forward for women when Title IV of the Civil Rights Acts amendments came into effect in 1972, allowing them to work in male facilities and giving them the opportunity to be promoted (Maghan & McLeish-Blackwell, 1999). Despite this, they encountered challenges because state-by-state policies differed, preventing them from working in all positions within correctional institutions. There was, however, a gradual increase in the number of women occupying leadership positions over time; approximately 18% of women lead state correction agencies (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2019). This increase led to scholars exploring whether concepts such as tokenism increased performance pressure and further impacted advancement. However, scholars such as Zimmer (1988) argued that tokenism hampers the advancement of women in the workplace and contributes to the emergence of sexism. The importation-differential

theory has been argued to be more accurate at explaining differences between males' and females' attitudes influenced by their previous socialization (Jurik and Halemba, 1984). Given this, in the present study, the importation-differential model is utilized, hypothesizing that gender has an influence on an individual's perceptions in the workplace (Van Voorhis et al., 1991).

First, it is evident, based on the limited empirical research conducted, that the differences between leadership styles between men and women continue to be a topic of interest that requires further investigation (Collica-Cox and Schulz, 2017). As such, the present study investigates whether wardens perceive themselves as using transformational leadership as opposed to other styles of leadership, as well as whether their leadership style is gender specific.

Second, while a leader's effectiveness is measured by leadership styles, another important aspect of operating a prison is offering humane treatment to incarcerated individuals, including treatment programs (Duwe, 2017; UNODC, 2010). It is important to emphasize that the purpose of this study is to investigate whether there is a difference in attitudes toward rehabilitation, as observed by Kim and Colleagues (2003), who found that female wardens tend to support rehabilitation programs more than their male counterparts in a prison setting. Specifically, what is relevant to this study is whether there are gender-specific differences in attitudes toward rehabilitation among wardens.

The final predictors examined in this study for leadership effectiveness were job stress and job satisfaction. While a dynamic workplace may appeal to some wardens as it provides a variety of challenges, for others, the dynamic environment may result in

excessive stress and a lack of job satisfaction. Therefore, there is a need to evaluate the challenges experienced by wardens as well as their job satisfaction in light of the fact that wardens have a significant impact on the organization's culture, climate, employee satisfaction, and the well-being of incarcerated individuals (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Dial et al., 2010; Finn, 2000; Spinaris et al., 2012; Schiff & Leip, 2019).

Accordingly, the present study aimed to determine whether wardens experience different levels of job stress and job satisfaction and whether they differ based on their gender.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology that was employed to conduct the present study. The chapter discusses the following: (a) purpose of the study, (b) research philosophy and design, (c) research questions and hypothesis, (d) methodological approach, (f) variable measurement, (g) data analysis plan, (h) strengths and limitations of the research design and (i) a summary.

Purpose of the Study

This quantitative study aimed to explore the relationship between female wardens' leadership effectiveness and the factors that influence effectiveness.¹³ The breadth of the factors examined in the literature that influence leadership effectiveness in correctional administration included *leadership style, professional orientation (attitudes toward rehabilitation), job stress, and job satisfaction*. The significance of the study is threefold. First, this study advances the literature by focusing on the influence of gender, leadership style, and other factors that contribute to the effectiveness of prison wardens. Second, this dissertation expands on the criminological theory of the importation-differential experiences model (Van Voorhis, Cullen, Link, & Wolfe, 1991), extending the theoretical framework from correction officers to wardens. Lastly, despite the limitation in generalizability due to the convenience sampling technique, the study will nevertheless shed light on the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of wardens across the United States and assist in advancing correctional policy in the future.

¹³ Wood, Meister, Liu (2021) define effectiveness as the degree to which a designated collective goal is accomplished.

Research Philosophy and Design

Based on the research paradigm of *positivism*,¹⁴ the present study employed a quantitative approach. Studies aligned with the doctrine of positivism tend to emphasize identifying causal relationships through quantitative methods (Bryman, 2012).

Qualitative methods were not used in this study since they generally involve using open-ended questionnaires or interviews with respondents to describe a phenomenon (Cozby & Bates, 2014). As such, a quantitative research approach was more appropriate for this study due to the considerable amount of numerical data collected through surveys that allowed for more generalizations (Cozby & Bates, 2014).

In addition, this study tests the importation-differential experiences model, thereby contributing to the scholarship about how reactions to work can result from bringing different types of experience to the workplace (Cullen et al., 1993a). The model is usually operationalized by evaluating whether status characteristics such as gender is a proxy for the social experiences that affect outcome measurements (Cullen et al., 1993a). Therefore, based on the knowledge within a particular area of study and the theoretical considerations within that area, the researcher had the opportunity to form these hypotheses that will be subjected to empirical evaluation (Bryman, 2012). The hypotheses were then deduced and interpreted in terms of their practical application (Bryman, 2012).

Furthermore, this study employed a cross-sectional research design that is primarily exploratory and descriptive to explore possible relationships between

¹⁴ A primary goal of positivist inquiry is to generate explanatory associations or causal relationships that ultimately lead to prediction and control of the phenomena in question.

variables¹⁵ (Maxfield & Babbie, 2017). In particular, this study used a cross-sectional survey (Maxfield & Babbie, 2017) to examine what factors may contribute to the effectiveness of male and female wardens. A survey was the optimal method of gathering data to gain a greater understanding of wardens' leadership effectiveness since it is a highly structured design that provides a straightforward way of obtaining data (de Vaus, 2014) about individual demographics, attitudes, and perceptions (Ruel, Wagner, & Gillespie, 2016). Since surveys are derived from research inquiries, the following section describes the research questions, hypotheses, and rationale for formulating these items.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Transformational Leadership. Transformational leadership is increasingly becoming an integral component of the correctional sector as prison administrators shift from managing employees to taking on a leadership approach (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). According to the research outlined in Chapter 2, particularly studies of job stress and job satisfaction (Bartollas & Miller, 1978; Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013), leaders in the correctional space who adopt a transformational leadership approach experience greater success in the organization. Essentially, Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) suggest transformational leadership has the potential to serve as a protective factor against a prison warden's experience of job stress, which may lead to greater job satisfaction overall. In addition, research has indicated that individuals in leadership positions in correctional settings who are less stressed in their everyday work routines

¹⁵ Cross-sectional studies involve a one-time effort over a short period using a sample from the population of interest. They can be used to generate hypotheses and examine multiple outcomes and characteristics at the same time (Pituch & Stevens, 2015).

tend to exhibit transformational leadership characteristics, such as optimism, confidence in achieving objectives, and an overall positive outlook toward rehabilitating offenders.

Despite this promising association, a review of previous literature indicates that researchers have not commonly focused on all measurements of effectiveness, i.e., leadership style, professional orientation, work-related stress, and job satisfaction. For instance, Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong (2013) examined transformational leadership and job stress. The findings indicated that wardens who perceived themselves as displaying higher levels of transformational leadership also experienced lower levels of job stress and higher job satisfaction. While research by Leip, Stinchcomb, & Schiff (2017) suggested an association between lower job stress and higher job satisfaction, their study failed to identify the warden's leadership style. In their most recent study, Schiff and Leip (2018) did examine the effects of job expectations, workloads, and autonomy on work-related stress for prison wardens, but they did not consider the influence of job satisfaction or leadership style. Alternatively, Cullen, Latessa, Burton, and Lombardo (1993) examined the professional orientation of prison wardens and found that those who prioritized supportive services to incarcerated individuals had a higher degree of job satisfaction than those who did not prioritize supportive services.

Considering the unprecedented number of incarcerated individuals in American correctional facilities (Prison Policy Initiative, 2023), there are still unclear conclusions of how correctional leadership impacts the correctional system given the dearth of research on wardens with a few notable exceptions (DiIulio, 1987; Jacobs, 1977). Therefore, the neglected focus on examining prison administration in the literature, as discussed in the previous chapter, has led to fundamentally flawed conclusions about

corrections (DiIulio, 1987). Additionally, even though studies by Cullen, Latessa, Burton, and Lombardo (1993), Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013), Leip, Stinchcomb, & Schiff (2017), as well as Collica-Cox and Schulz (2017; 2019) have made significant advances in the study of wardens, most of the research has focused on fragments of the variables that contribute to effectiveness.

Therefore, this dissertation aimed to fill the literature gap by focusing on wardens as critical actors in a correctional environment. The study examined multiple factors related to the effectiveness of wardens, including leadership style, professional orientation, work-related stress, and job satisfaction. Accordingly, given the results mentioned earlier from empirical studies, the expectation was to find notable associations between these factors. Taking into consideration what is known about the factors that influence wardens' effectiveness as leaders, the following first research question and hypothesis are proposed.

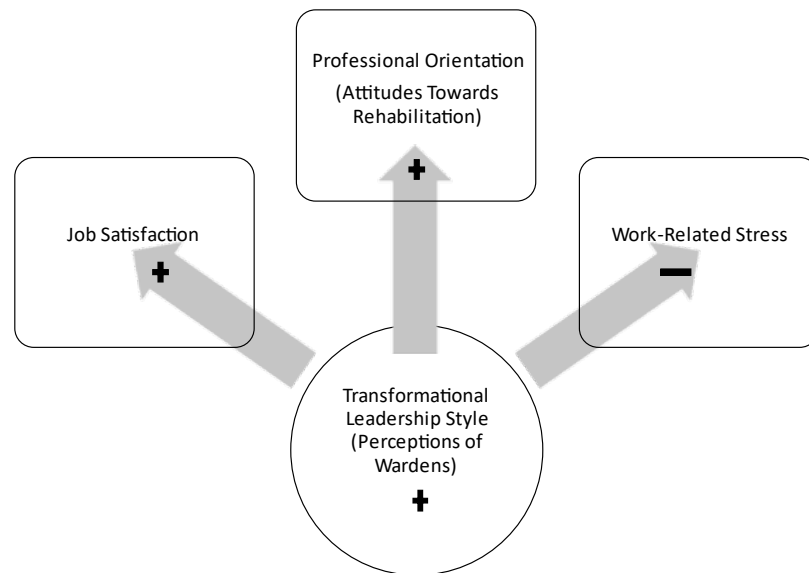
Research Question 1. Do wardens who perceive themselves as having higher levels of transformational leadership characteristics also experience a positive professional orientation, less job stress, and higher job satisfaction?

Hypothesis 1. According to the null hypothesis (H_{01}), no significant association exist between prison wardens who perceive themselves to have high levels of transformational leadership characteristics (IV) and professional orientation (DV), job satisfaction (DV), and work-related stress (DV).

While the alternative hypothesis (H_1) proposed prison wardens who perceive themselves to have high levels of transformational leadership (IV) characteristics are more likely to have a positive professional orientation (DV), higher levels of job

satisfaction (DV), and lower levels of work-related stress (DV). In other words, a positive perceived transformational leadership style will positively affect professional orientation. In addition, wardens who adopt transformational leadership will have a positive effect on job stress (decrease) and a positive effect (increase) in job satisfaction (see Figure 1). These assumptions are based on the findings of previous research that have investigated the positive effects of perceived transformational leadership.

Figure 1. Hypothesized Model for the Effect of Perceived Transformational Leadership Styles on Professional Orientation, Job Stress, and Job Satisfaction



Gender and Measurements of Effectiveness—Leadership Styles. As discussed in Chapter 2, the importation-differential experiences theory provides insight into differences in the ways that correctional employees approach their jobs and their perceptions of supervision and organizational support based on their gender (Belknap, 1991; Carlson, Anson, and Thomas, 2003; Crouch & Alpert, 1982; Farkas, 1999; Griffin, 2006; Griffin et al., 2005; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Furthermore, the theory suggests that since most supervisory and administrative employees are men, females perceive

supervisory and organizational support as limiting (Britton, 1997). Therefore, it is important to note that simply stating that there is an equal employment opportunity does not imply that equal employment is an obtainable reality, as women often face challenges in their careers due to a lack of advancement opportunities. This has led several scholars to suggest that the importation-differential experiences theory can be used to explain how male and female correctional employees approach their jobs and perceive supervision and organizational support.

As a result, scholars who draw on the importation-differential experiences model hypothesize that individual and demographic factors, such as gender, may significantly influence a person's perceptions, views, attitudes, and behaviors in the workplace (Van Voorhis et al., 1991). For instance, physical strength and verbal aggressiveness remain major indicators of skills required for advancement in prison positions, despite significant reforms within the institutional settings in recent decades. Thus, there is a tendency for male characteristics to be heavily associated with effectiveness and are embedded both in the initial and ongoing training process, presenting challenges for females to advance.

Still, a growing number of women have progressed up the ladder in the correctional system; however, the leadership styles of women executives have not been adequately understood or studied (Collica-Cox & Schulz, 2017). Therefore, it becomes even more imperative to test the importation-differential experiences theoretical model by applying it to female correctional professionals at the leadership level. Of one of the only studies that has primarily focused on the leadership styles of female correctional executives, Collica-Cox & Schulz (2017) found that the majority of the women interviewed in the study believed that correctional administration leadership would

evolve from an archaic structure to one that would be more therapeutic in the future. It is evident from the limited empirical research that has been conducted that the differences between men's and women's leadership styles warrant further exploration (Collica-Cox and Schulz, 2017). Therefore, hypothesis two examines the differences in leadership style by gender.

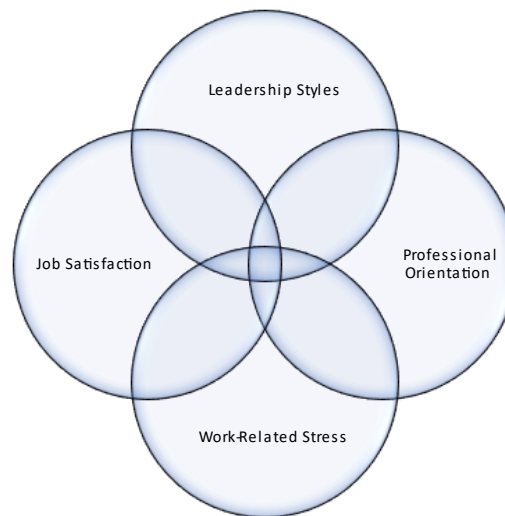
Research Question 2. Does the leadership style of the warden vary by gender?

Hypothesis 2. According to the null hypothesis (H_{02}), no significant differences exist between female and male prison wardens' leadership styles. While the alternative hypothesis (H_2) proposed that female prison wardens were associated with an increased probability of transformational leadership compared to their male counterparts.

Therefore, the statistical test examined whether there were significant differences in leadership styles between males and females.

The result of limited research indicates that gender differences may be present in leadership style (Collica-Cox and Schulz, 2017), but further investigation is warranted.

Figure 2. Model for the measurements of warden leadership effectiveness.



Gender and Measurements of Effectiveness—Professional Orientation. As with the previous hypothesis and in accordance with the theoretical framework of the importation-differential experiences model, the gender of the leader is taken into consideration along with professional orientation (namely, attitudes towards rehabilitation). While leaders' effectiveness is determined by their abilities and leadership styles, effective organizational change also requires the humane treatment of incarcerated individuals (UNODC, 2010). Considering most previously incarcerated persons return to their communities after their time in prison, Duwe (2017) points out that one of the aspects of assessing the effectiveness of prison leadership is the provision of programming services offered in an institutional setting that allows for the successful reentry and the reintegration of returning citizens.

Correctional administrators are often of the opinion that rehabilitation programs are of significant importance to the management of their facilities since they have been

proven to reduce the idleness of incarcerated individuals and ease the adjustment to prison life more effectively (DiIulio, 1987). In fact, according to the general perception of prison wardens, approximately 25% of all incarcerated individuals can be rehabilitated if they are given the proper guidance (Cullen et al., 1993a). It is important to note that the process of wardens bringing their pro-treatment views into prison settings will have a profound effect on the culture, including the willingness to accept the developments in treatment and rehabilitation that will result from their support for rehabilitation (Andrews et al., 1990; DiIulio, 1991).

Further, when it comes to gender differences in attitudes toward rehabilitation, a few significant research efforts have been conducted. For instance, Kim and colleagues (2003) found that female wardens were significantly more supportive of rehabilitation programs and amenities than male wardens. Hence, the subsequent hypotheses explore whether there are differences between the male and female wardens regarding professional orientation.

Research Question 3. Do the attitudes of wardens towards rehabilitation differ by gender?

Hypothesis 3. According to the null hypothesis (H_{03}), no significant differences exist between female and male prison wardens' attitudes toward rehabilitation. While the alternative hypothesis (H_3) proposed that female prison wardens will exhibit more positive attitudes toward rehabilitation than their male counterparts. Thus, the statistical analysis tested whether there was a significant difference between females' and males' attitudes towards rehabilitation.

Gender and Measurements of Effectiveness— Work-Related Stress. In agreement with the previous hypothesis and in line with the theoretical framework of importation-differential, several studies suggest that female correctional officers experience more job stress than their male counterparts in the correctional system (Armstrong & Griffin, 2004; Cullen et al., 1985; Lambert et al., 2007). However, despite these results, some studies on correctional officers provide inconsistent evidence when it comes to the impact of demographic factors such as gender on work-related stress (Auerbach, Quick, & Pegg, 2003; Blau et al., 1986; Dowden & Tellier, 2004).

On the other hand, a limited amount of research has been conducted regarding prison wardens; Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) found no gender differences in work-related stress among prison wardens. Nevertheless, Collica-Cox and Schulz (2017) concluded that female wardens attributed job stress to the pressure of juggling their work and personal commitments rather than the actual nature of their work. Accordingly, the following hypotheses investigated whether there were differences in the experience of work-related stress related between male and female wardens.

Research Question 4. Do wardens' job stress levels differ by gender?

Hypothesis 4. According to the null hypothesis (H_{04}), no significant differences exist between female and male prison wardens for work-related stress. In contrast, the alternative hypothesis (H_4) proposed that female prison wardens will have a greater likelihood of lower work-related stress than their male counterparts. Hence, the statistical analysis tested whether there was a significant difference between females' and males' job stress levels.

Gender and Measurements of Effectiveness—Job Satisfaction. Based on the importation-differential experiences theoretical framework and in accordance with the previous three hypotheses, the gender of the leader, along with their level of job satisfaction, were measured. While it has been shown that the leader's job satisfaction is associated with significant consequences for both the individual and the organization (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2002; Tewksbury, 2004), the literature regarding wardens' job satisfaction remains limited compared to that of correctional officers. Given the importance and common expectation for wardens to bear the responsibility of shaping the organization's culture, climate, employee satisfaction, and the well-being of incarcerated individuals (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Dial et al., 2010; Finn, 2000; Spinaris et al., 2012; Schiff & Leip, 2019), it was crucial to examine the challenges experienced by wardens and their satisfaction with their job (e.g., higher job satisfaction level of a warden moderate the relationship between employee satisfaction and job performance).

In addition, there have been limited studies on the job satisfaction of female wardens. For example, despite the study by Cullen et al. (1993b) being focused on wardens, gender was not considered when considering job satisfaction. Furthermore, due to not including a question regarding the gender of wardens in their survey, the researchers were unable to identify the gender of the warden using the ACA directory (Cullen et al., 1993b). The most recent efforts to examine females in correctional administration have been made by Collica-Cox and Schulz (2020) using surveys and interviews that examined female executives in corrections. According to their findings, women at the executive level reported high levels of job satisfaction, but their experiences were often accompanied by challenges they faced in a male-dominated field.

Therefore, the following hypothesis investigated whether there were any differences in the experience of job satisfaction between males and females.

Research Question 5. Does wardens' job satisfaction differ by gender?

Hypothesis 5. According to the null hypothesis (H_{05}), no significant differences exist between female and male prison wardens for job satisfaction. In contrast, the alternative hypothesis (H_5) proposed that female prison wardens will have a greater likelihood of increased job satisfaction than their male counterparts. Accordingly, the statistical analysis tested whether there was a significant difference between females' and males' job satisfaction levels.

Methodology

This section presents the population, sampling, and sampling procedures used in this study. There is also a discussion of the sample size calculation used to determine the minimum number of participants necessary for the study. Lastly, a detailed discussion of the recruitment and data collection procedures is provided.

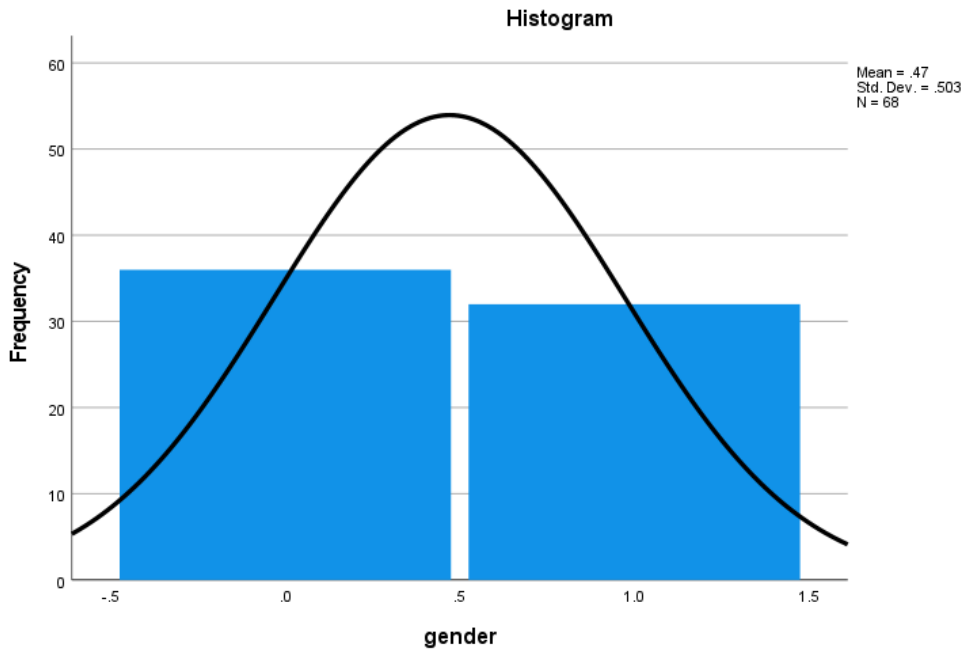
Target Population and Sample

Initially, 200 wardens of state and federal prisons and those serving in county or city jails were targeted for this study through convenience sampling, a non-probability method. This study, however, could only examine individuals from agencies who had their requests to participate approved by their respective commissioners or secretaries of state (described below). Therefore, it was typical for a lengthy and multi-level review and approval process by the appropriate agency officials, resulting in a lower-than-expected number of individuals approved to participate in the study despite multiple attempts to secure the proper authorization.

Despite the lower-than-expected survey response, a G*Power tool was used to compute statistical power to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses with a recommended sample size according to the research questions (Cohen, 1988).¹⁶ The power analysis involves several factors that should be considered, including the specific analysis, expected effect size, alpha, and power. A moderate effect size by convention for the analysis suggests the relationship should be apparent when visibly examined (Cohen, 1988). With an alpha level of .05, power of .80, and a moderate effect size, the required sample size to find proposed effects with the Mann–Whitney U test was at least 53 participants. Although a minimum of 200 participants was chosen to account for attrition and increase the test's power, ultimately, 71 participants completed the survey. Among the respondents to the survey were 36 females, 32 males, and 3 individuals who preferred not to disclose their gender, comprised of wardens from state and federal adult prisons and county and city jails. The distribution of male and female wardens that responded to the survey follows the typical bell curve pattern for all normal distributions. The mean for the survey responses includes a mean of .47, and a standard deviation .503 (n=68). Therefore, the frequency of females and males were 36 (51%) and 32 (45%) respectively.

¹⁶ Power refers to the probability of rejecting a false null hypothesis.

Figure 3. The normal distribution of male and female wardens.



Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Before extending communication to the various agencies and collecting data, approval was obtained from Florida International University's (FIU) Institutional Review Board (IRB). Due diligence was made to secure permission from various Commissioners and Secretaries from all fifty states and the Federal Bureau of Prisons (BOP) to obtain the proper permission to extend communication to male and female wardens from their respective agencies nationwide. After reviewing the parameters of the study, the BOP declined to participate in the study. To expand the pool of participants and similar to the research conducted by Leip et al. (2017), the American Correctional Association (ACA) professional membership directory was used to obtain the names, email addresses, and general contact information of state commissioners and secretaries who are registered with ACA.

Similarly, permission was requested from each Department of Corrections (DOC) agency representative to conduct the research for each state that voluntarily agreed to participate in the study. In addition, the researcher provided a research proposal that outlined the purpose and importance of engaging in the study while ensuring that it met the guidelines established by the state DOC for research projects. To facilitate and coordinate the survey, each DOC's research department was responsible for coordinating the process.

Overall, ten states agreed to participate in the study, four states received a proposal but could not provide approval within the timeframe of this study, six states did not wish to participate, and thirty states did not respond to the email communications. Six agencies that failed to respond to communications generated a bounce-back email to the researcher indicating that the email address was inactive.

Table 1. Response rates of 50 US Department of Corrections Commissioners/Secretaries.

Responses	# Of States
Approval of the DOC Proposal and participation in the study.	10
After multiple follow-ups, the research departments for states' DOC did not approve the proposal within the study's timeframe and facility time constraints. ¹⁷	4
Declined to participate	6
Did not respond to the original email and follow-up emails.	24
Generated a bounce back e-mail	6

Upon the approval of the study by the commissioner or secretary of the DOC, the researcher proceeded to email the wardens with an informational letter explaining that the study was voluntary, anonymous, and confidential (see Appendix A), as well as providing the link to the online survey in Qualtrics accompanied with a copy of the

¹⁷ The responses varied; some were non-responsive, while others specified a lengthy time frame.

survey for reference (see Appendix B). Before engaging in the survey, each participant had to agree to the informed consent online before they were provided with access.

It is important to note that, under the instruction of the research department for some states, the instructions and the link to the survey were provided to the agency's research department, who then forwarded the information to each respective warden. However, the DOC's research department, if applicable, did not have access to any of the responses submitted by the participant. All responses were compiled via a secure link within Qualtrics. To ensure that the participants had ample time to complete the survey, the link to the survey was retained as active and valid after the email was delivered to the recipients work email address.

Data Collection Method

Instrumentation and Administration of the Survey

For this study, a survey was utilized to maximize data collection, speed up data compilation, and ensure measurement reliability (Gideon, 2012). Further, surveys have proven to be a highly effective method of assessing social and behavioral phenomena since well-designed surveys can be extremely efficient and effective in generalizability (Ruel, Wagner, Gillespie, 2016). Moreover, to minimize respondent burden, increase response rates, and collect better-quality data, Ruel et al. (2016) recommend shorter surveys. Therefore, a fast, simple, and clean questionnaire was created using three survey tools (Ruel, Wagner, and Gillespie, 2016).

As previously stated, the wardens received an email invitation that included a letter providing information about the survey and instructions on how to complete it correctly. The letter also had a brief statement explaining the purpose of the study, how

the results will be reported, a confidentiality statement guaranteeing participants will not be identified and that all survey responses will be kept anonymous, and an online consent to participate in the study.

After completing a review of the original surveys, it was determined they contained many open-ended questions, a modified version of the questionnaires was used in this study to capture the data without compromising the integrity of the study. The final survey consisted of approximately 88 questions, which took the wardens approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. The majority of the questions selected for the questionnaire were drawn from a national survey conducted, administered, and validated by Leip, Stinchcomb, and Schiff (2017) funded by the National Institute of Corrections (NIC) that examined demographics, job stress, and job satisfaction in the workplace. Further, since the previous survey did not include questions related to professional orientation (attitudes toward rehabilitation), questions were borrowed from the National Corrections Executive Survey (NCES_95) (Kim, DeValve, DeValve, & Johnson, 2003), a nationwide survey designed to collect data on wardens of state adult correctional facilities.

A third tool, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire™ 3rd Edition (MLQ 5X), was used to determine leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The strength of the MLQ 5X lies in its ability to capture several leadership styles within one measurement instrument (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Among the nine scales included in this model, five measured transformational leadership, three measured transactional leadership, and one measured laissez-faire leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 2004). It should be noted that

the questionnaire is a proprietary instrument of Mind Garden, and the exact wording of the questions cannot be disclosed, but the results can be shared (see *Appendix C*).

It is also important to point out that MLQ 5X is considered to be one of the most widely used instruments to assess a leader's effectiveness and has been used in numerous studies over the years to examine general leadership theories in industrial, educational, governmental, and military settings at all organizational levels (Avolio & Yammarino, 2003; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1996; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Deluga, 1988). Additionally, several meta-analyses have been conducted that have evaluated and confirmed the psychometric properties and the effectiveness and validity of the MLQ (Leong & Fischer, 2011; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Harms & Credé, 2010; Kuopplala, 2008).

Finally, including demographic and organizational variables in the multivariate analysis is also imperative since some have displayed ambiguous results in different research studies (Leip, Stinchcomb, & Schiff, 2017). Considering this, several demographic variables were examined, including gender, age, race, educational level, correctional experience, and job tenure. Additionally, organizational variables were considered, such as the facility demographics, including the type of facility (jail, state, or federal), the level of security, and the number of incarcerated individuals.

Variable Measurements

Dependent Variables

Professional orientation, work-related stress, and job satisfaction are the dependent variables for hypothesis 1. First, three questions focused on professional orientation (attitudes toward inmate programs) on a 5-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)*, which include: (1) "Rehabilitation programs have an

important place in my institution,” and (2) “Conditions at my institution should be harsher to deter inmates from future crime.” The last question within this category asked wardens to rank the order of four prison goals in importance: retribution, incapacitation, deterrence, and rehabilitation. The representation of rank order was as such: 4 was the most preferred choice, and 1 was the least preferred choice.

Considering the challenging nature of prison work environments for wardens, measuring work-related stress is imperative, given that working in institutions can often result in high stress and negatively impact job satisfaction (Cullen et al., 1993a). According to the correctional literature, work-related stress is generally defined as an employee's feelings of hardship, tension, anxiety, frustration, worry, or distress caused by work-related concerns (Cullen et al., 1985; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Work-related stress was measured with eight survey questions relating to the stress a warden may experience in their work role on a 7-point scale ranging from *never (1) to every day (7)*. The questions include: (1) “Because of my work, I feel unable to fully enjoy my family and/or social life,” (2) “Working with people all day is really a strain for me,” (3) “I feel emotionally drained from my work,” (4) “I have feelings of being burned out by this job,” (4) “I have someone I talk to when things get tough at work,” (5) “I feel stressed on the job,” (6) “I feel caught between conflicting expectations on the job,” and (7) “I deal effectively with the problems of this facility.”

To determine job satisfaction in correctional settings, a substantial amount of research has been conducted (Byrd, Cochran, Silverman, & Blount, 2000; Griffin, 2001; Jurik & Halemba, 1984; Lambert & Hogan, 2009; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2002; Whiteacre, 2006) examining how organizational factors related to the workplace (such as

stress) or personal characteristics of the workers themselves (such as age, gender, education, and tenure) impacted job satisfaction. Job satisfaction can be defined as an emotional, effective response resulting from the degree to which a person enjoys being at work (Muchinsky, 1987). Four survey questions measured job satisfaction with answer options on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from *never (1) to every day (7)*. The questions include: (1) “I tend to care personally about what happens to inmates here,” (2) “I clearly understand what is necessary to do my job effectively,” (3) “I feel a sense of satisfaction from the work I do,” and (4) “Most people in my chain of command agree on what is necessary to do my job effectively.” The last survey question on job satisfaction measured job satisfaction with answer options on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from *completely dissatisfied (1) to completely satisfied (7)*. The question includes (5) “Overall, how satisfied are you with your current position?”

Independent Variable

The wardens' perception of their transformational leadership style is the independent variable for hypothesis 1. For reference, using the MLQ 5X to capture leadership styles, hypothesis 1 stated that female prison wardens had a higher probability of experiencing transformational leadership than their male counterparts. Further, the composite leadership score that made up transformational leadership characteristics included idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual considerations.

Control Variables

Considering previous research on correctional employees, the following control variables for the multivariate analysis are included: gender, age, race, educational level,

overall number of years in corrections, number of years in a warden position and security level of the facility. Despite conflicting literature regarding the significance of demographic variables in previous studies, it is unquestionably essential that they are measured and accounted for in current studies (Schiff and Leip, 2018). This is particularly true with this study due to a focus on examining specific gender. In addition, it is important to include control variables to prevent selection bias (Bushway and Apel, 2013). For instance, most of those who received the survey are wardens and had commissioners who approved the select distribution of the questionnaire, so these are not random samples of all prison wardens. As a result, these respondents' opinions may differ from those of individuals who did not respond to the survey regarding leadership, professional orientation, work-related stress, and job satisfaction. Bushway and Apel (2013) argue that the most obvious solution to this problem is to include control variables, such as demographic indicators, as part of the analysis.

Thus, gender was measured as a dichotomous variable, with women coded as 0 and men coded as 1. Age was measured in continuous years. The measure of race was measured as a nominal level measure. The educational level was measured as an ordinal level (i.e., high school diploma or equivalent, associate degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, and doctorate). The amount of years/tenure in corrections was measured in continuous years.

Correctional experience has historically had conflicting effects on job outcomes, but when these effects have existed, the overall time working in corrections has resulted in negative job effects (Cullen et al., 1985; Jurik & Halemba, 1984; Lindquist & Whitehead, 1986; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). In contrast, tenure, i.e., the number of years

as a warden, has been less studied and not found to be related to job performance for correctional employees (Gerstein et al., 1987). Despite this, it is anticipated that wardens who have been in their position for a more extended period will also demonstrate the ability to manage prisons effectively, have increased their status, earned more job security and stability, and be more satisfied with their jobs overall (Jacobs, 1977). Therefore, tenure for the warden was, again, measured in continuous years.

Data Analysis Plan

This study employed convenience sampling, a non-probability technique. Information collected from the survey will serve as the primary data source for this study. Statistical Package for the Social Services (SPSS) software was used to analyze the data collected (Leech et al., 2015). As discussed in the previous section, data was obtained from responses taken from three surveys merged into a single questionnaire in the Qualtrics system so that respondents would find it easier to answer.

This analysis incorporated the calculation of frequencies and percentages for each demographic variable, including the number of years wardens have been employed in the corrections field, gender, race/ethnicity, education, level of security within the facility, and the type of facility where they work, including a state, federal, or county jail. In addition, means and standard deviations are calculated for several variables of interest, such as professional orientation, job stress, job satisfaction, and leadership style.

Furthermore, the first hypothesis (H1a) focused on examining wardens who perceive themselves to have higher levels of transformational leadership characteristics independent of their gender, age, race, education level, prison security level, tenure, and other factors such as professional orientation, job satisfaction, and job stress. Five indices

contributed to the transformational leadership composite score: idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Lambert et al., 2007). The assumptions regarding normality, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, and outliers were considered. A multivariable regression using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) was used to test this hypothesis.

Hypotheses 2, 3, 4, and 5 were statistically tested using the Mann–Whitney U test, a rank-based nonparametric test commonly used to compare the distributions (medians) of two groups (Arditi, Gluch, & Holmdahl, 2013). In addition, the test analyzed the differences between males and females (categorical-independent variable) and the individual Likert-type questions for leadership styles, professional orientation (attitudes towards rehabilitation), work-related stress, and job satisfaction (ordinal-dependent variable) (Arditi et al., 2013).

Strengths and Limitations

As with nearly all social scientific research, the current research is not without limitations. The first limitation is the generalizability of the present study. Schiff and Leip (2019) pointed out that a survey conducted among a traditionally untapped population whose contact information is not readily available may only have limited generalizability. Therefore, it is possible that the generalizability issue is not as significant as it initially appears, given that similar challenges have been observed in previous studies (Schiff & Leip, 2019). As in the present study, the difficulty of reaching and encouraging responses from the target population of prison wardens has contributed to the limited research (Schiff & Leip, 2019).

As another limitation, the sample includes wardens and superintendents in city and county jails, state correctional facilities, private correctional facilities, and federal correctional facilities, and each of these individuals has to abide by specific departmental regulations, budgets, policies, and procedures that govern their respective institutions they serve. Interestingly, correctional facilities in different states often operate differently through their administrations, policies, and protocols, which may impact the relationships examined in the present study. Despite these limitations, the present study provides a solid foundation for future research incorporating data from differing states to support the current model, including cross-administrational and cross-cultural comparisons.

Third, another limitation of the current study is that the survey response rate was lower than expected. Using a targeted sampling method, the commissioners and secretaries of each state of the United States were contacted via email requesting permission to send the survey to wardens to recruit participants for this study. As previously discussed, some states did not respond to the email, others declined to participate, and others agreed but requested a DOC approved proposal. Moreover, it is important to point out that states who did not wish to participate often explained that they were behind on addressing operational initiatives due to COVID restrictions that might still be in place. Furthermore, Akin-Plunk & Armstrong (2013) have demonstrated that surveys conducted in correctional settings tend to have difficulty reaching a high response rate, making it highly challenging for those seeking to obtain survey responses resulting in a high response rate. Additionally, Brower (2013) argues that correctional staff often distrust outsiders due to the closed nature of the correctional system. However, despite the response rate, the targeted sampling method proved to be the most effective

and systematic approach for identifying participants. Additionally, statistical power was achieved given the required sample size to find proposed effects was at least 53 participants.

Fourth, it is essential to note that the participants in this study consisted of a convenience sample of individuals who willingly participated; thus, there is an element of selection bias that was not accounted for by the covariates (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). For instance, most of the participants in the study will come from the commissioners who agreed to allow the wardens to take part in the study, so it is not an exhaustive list of all the correctional executives within the United States. However, it is likely that the study would not have been able to garner the cooperation of the wardens without the Commissioner's support.

As a result of the previous limitation, the researcher sent the survey to the Association of Women Executives (AWEC), requesting they share the survey information with their members. AWEC agreed to the study and distributed one initial email to all its members, followed by a follow-up email. Further, due to a scheduling conflict, the researcher was unable to distribute the survey in person at ASCA. Additionally, in an effort to reach a broader audience, the study was posted on the researcher's LinkedIn profile, and also the Wardens, Superintendents, Directors of Corrections, Governors, and Deputy Wardens/Administrators LinkedIn agreed to share the survey post with all their respective staff members. Accordingly, this raises the question of whether there is a systemic factor at play among those who took the survey. However, as the survey is anonymous, it was not possible to identify how many

individuals responded through each of these different channels. Similarly, to preserve the respondents' anonymity, no further demographic information was collected.

A fifth limitation is the length of the original questionnaires, as a modified survey instrument was utilized for the present study. Although the survey questions are derived from all validated questionnaires, including the two nationwide surveys and the Multifactor Leadership questionnaire, there are some concerns about its reliability, particularly since the researcher did not have sufficient participants to pretest the survey before its administration. Despite this, the survey was reviewed by the dissertation committee, and revisions were made in response to their recommendations, which included individuals with extensive experience in corrections, correctional administration, rehabilitation, and criminal justice policy, before its approval by Florida International University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). Additionally, the survey includes a feedback column in which respondents have provided positive feedback regarding the survey's applicability and ease of use.

Lastly, the current study used only cross-sectional data rather than longitudinal data, so it is not possible to examine leadership effectiveness over time. In this sense, it is only a snapshot, and it may not necessarily be representative of the entire sample. The cross-sectional approach is nevertheless helpful in establishing preliminary evidence for the design of future research studies (Wang & Cheng, 2020). As an additional benefit, cross-sectional data reflects the current characteristics, opinions, attitudes, and self-reported behavior and experiences of a population that is difficult to survey (Kelly, 2021).

Conclusion

Despite these limitations, there is insufficient evidence about the factors contributing to the effectiveness of the leadership of correctional institutions in the country. Notably, as more women have been promoted to leadership positions within the correctional system, their effectiveness as leaders has yet to be adequately examined. Therefore, this dissertation has investigated the factors that influence female wardens' effectiveness compared to their male counterparts by exploring leadership styles, professional orientation, work stress, and job satisfaction to address the literature gap. Moreover, this chapter, in particular, discussed the methodology used to conduct the current study by collecting cross-sectional data using convenience sampling, a non-probability sampling technique, of wardens who willingly participated in the study. The targeted sampling method proved to be the most effective and systematic method for identifying participants providing the basis for future research designs.

Additionally, a simple questionnaire was created using three survey tools to maximize data collection. The study reached seventy-one prison wardens from ten US states who agreed to participate but remained anonymous when responding to the online survey. Further, the study utilized a quantitative approach to analyze the data and tested the criminological theory of importation-differential experiences model to determine if gender influenced reactions to the workplace, extending the model from correctional officers to wardens. The importation-differential experiences theory suggests that gender may influence how a person perceives, views, attitudes, and behaviors in the workplace, and those male characteristics are heavily associated with effectiveness. Although the

study has limitations, it provides a solid foundation for making inferences and future research.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This study examined the effectiveness of female prison wardens as leaders in the United States, as well as factors that influence their effectiveness. To analyze the data, all participants with less than 80% completion were excluded. The total sample size was 71 participants.

Descriptive Statistics

For hypotheses one and two, composite scores were calculated for transformational leadership according to the MLQ scoring guide instructions. Additionally, composite scores were calculated for attitudes toward rehabilitation, job satisfaction, and perceived stress.

Prior to hypothesis testing, summary statistics were calculated for the demographic questionnaire and the variables of interest. Frequencies and percentages were calculated for the nominal/categorical variables. The most frequently observed categories for gender were female ($n = 36, 50.7\%$), race/ethnicity was White Non-Hispanic ($n = 44, 62\%$), the highest level of education was a bachelor's degree ($n = 31, 43.7\%$), the title of the leader was warden/superintendent ($n = 61, 86\%$), the number of years the leader worked in the field of corrections included 25-30 ($n = 23, 32.4\%$), and the leader served in a leadership position less than one year ($n = 22, 31\%$). Additionally, means and standard deviations were calculated for the scale/continuous variables of interest and the demographic question of age. The observations for age averaged 51.4 years old ($SD = 7.35$).

As part of organizational factors, the most frequently observed categories included the type of facility, such as a state facility (n = 61, 86%), the level of security of the facility was multiple levels of security (n = 33, 46.5%), the number of employees employed in the facility was 101-500 (n = 47, 66.2%), 51-75% of employees had sworn custody (n = 31, 43.7%), 26-50% of civilian employees had non-sworn custody (n = 27, 38.0%). The frequencies and percentages for the nominal/categorical variables are presented in [Table 1](#).

Table 1. Frequency for Nominal Variables

Variable ¹⁸	<i>n</i>	%
Individual Factors		
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	32	45.1
Female	36	50.7
Prefer not to say	3	4.2
<i>Race/Ethnicity</i>		
White Non-Hispanic	44	62.0
Black	4	5.6
Hispanic	2	2.8
American Indian	4	5.6
Asian	1	1.4
Multi-Racial	15	21.1
No Response	1	1.4
<i>Highest Level of Education</i>		
High School Diploma or Equivalent	5	7.0
Associate's Degree (2 years)	10	14.1
Bachelor's Degree	31	43.7
Master's Degree	21	29.6
Doctorate	3	4.2
No Response	1	1.4
<i>Title of the Leader</i>		
Warden/Superintendent	61	86.0

¹⁸ Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not always equal 100%.

Deputy Director	3	4.2
Director	2	2.8
Other	4	5.6
No Response	1	1.4
<i>The number of years working in the field of corrections</i>		
1-10	5	7.0
11-15	0	0.0
16-20	13	18.3
21-25	11	15.5
26-30	23	32.4
31+	18	25.4
No Response	1	1.4
<i>Years served in a leadership role</i>		
Served less than one year	22	31.0
Served 2-5 years	21	29.6
Served 6-10 years	14	19.7
Served 11 years or more	13	18.3
No Response	1	1.4
Organizational Factors		
<i>Type of Facility</i>		
City Jail	1	1.4
County Jail	3	4.2
Federal Facility	5	7.0
State Facility	61	86.0
No Response	1	1.4
<i>Security Level of the Facility</i>		
Minimum	11	15.5
Low	3	4.2
Medium	14	19.7
High	9	12.7
Multiple Levels of Security	33	46.5
No Response	1	1.4
<i>Number of employees that work in the prison</i>		
1-100	11	15.4
101-500	47	66.2
501-1000	6	8.5
1001-1500	3	4.2

1501-2000	3	4.2
No Response	1	1.4
<i>Percentage of employees with sworn custody</i>		
0-10%	10	14.1
11-25%	2	2.8
26-50%	16	22.5
51-75%	31	43.7
76-100%	10	14.1
No Response	2	2.8
<i>Percentage of employees civilian with non-sworn custody</i>		
0-5%	4	5.6
6-10%	2	2.8
11-25%	26	36.6
26-50%	27	38.0
51-75%	3	4.2
76-100%	7	9.9
No Response	2	2.8

The summary statistics for interval and ratio variables were run for the effectiveness variables, including transformational leadership (independent variable), professional orientation (dependent variable), work-related stress (dependent variable), and job satisfaction (dependent variable).

First, using the MLQ 5X to capture leadership styles, composite scores were calculated for transformational leadership according to the MLQ scoring guide instructions. Unfortunately, given that the questionnaire is a proprietary instrument of Mind Garden, the exact wording of the questions cannot be disclosed. For the observations for transformational leadership, the average included 3.30 ($SD = 0.36$). The summary statistics for transformational leadership can be found in [Table 2](#).

Second, two questions focused on professional orientation (attitudes towards rehabilitation) on a 5-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)*, which include:

1. Rehabilitation programs have an important place in my institution.
2. Conditions at my institution should be harsher to deter inmates from future crime.

To measure the questions, composite scores were calculated for attitudes toward rehabilitation. The observations for attitudes toward rehabilitation had an average of 3.24 ($SD = 0.51$). The summary statistics for professional orientation can be found in [Table 2](#).

Third, work-related stress was measured with eight survey questions relating to the stress a warden may experience in their work role on a 7-point scale ranging from *never (1) to every day (7)*. The questions include:

1. Because of my work, I feel unable to fully enjoy my family and/or social life.
2. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.
3. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
4. I have feelings of being burned out by this job.
5. I have someone I talk to when things get tough at work.
6. I feel stressed on the job.
7. I feel caught between conflicting expectations on the job.
8. I deal effectively with the problems of this facility.

To measure the questions, composite scores were calculated for job stress. The observations for work-related stress had an average of 3.28 ($SD = 1.01$). The summary statistics for job stress can be found in [Table 2](#).

Four survey questions measured job satisfaction with answer options on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from *never (1) to every day (7)*. The questions include:

1. I tend to care personally about what happens to inmates here.
2. I clearly understand what is necessary to do my job effectively.

3. I feel a sense of satisfaction from the work I do.
4. Most people in my chain of command agree on what is necessary to do my job effectively.

The last survey question on job satisfaction measured job satisfaction with answer options on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from *completely dissatisfied (1) to completely satisfied (7)*. The question includes (5) “Overall, how satisfied are you with your current position?”

To measure the questions, composite scores were calculated for job satisfaction. The observations for job satisfaction had an average of 5.56 ($SD = 0.51$). The summary statistics for job satisfaction can be found in [Table 2](#).

Table 2: Summary statistics for interval and ratio variables.

Variables	M	SD	n
Transformational Leadership	3.30	0.36	67
Attitudes towards Rehabilitation	3.24	0.51	70
Job Stress	3.28	1.01	69
Job Satisfaction	5.56	0.51	71
Age	51.40	7.35	68

Reliability Analysis

Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated for the attitudes towards rehabilitation, work-related stress, and job satisfaction scales. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was evaluated using the guidelines suggested by George and Mallery (2018), where $> .9$ excellent, $> .8$ good, $> .7$ acceptable, $> .6$ questionable, $> .5$ poor, and $\leq .5$ unacceptable. Two of the four composite scores had alpha coefficients lower than $.6$, indicating *poor reliability*. Therefore, the results for job satisfaction and attitudes toward rehabilitation should be interpreted with caution. The results of the reliability analysis can be found in [Table 3](#).

Table 3. Reliability analysis for job satisfaction, work-related stress, and attitudes toward rehabilitation

Scale	No. of Items	α	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Transformational Leadership	20	.74	.63	.85
Attitudes towards Rehabilitation	2	.21	-.15	.56
Job Stress	8	.70	.60	.80
Job Satisfaction	4	.33	.09	.57

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1. According to the null hypothesis (H_{01}), no significant differences exist between prison wardens who perceive themselves to have high levels of transformational leadership characteristics (IV) and professional orientation (DV), work-related stress (DV), and job satisfaction (DV). While the alternative hypothesis (H_1) proposed that prison wardens who perceive themselves to have high levels of transformational leadership (IV) characteristics are more likely to have a positive professional orientation (DV), lower levels of work-related stress (DV), and higher levels of job satisfaction (DV).

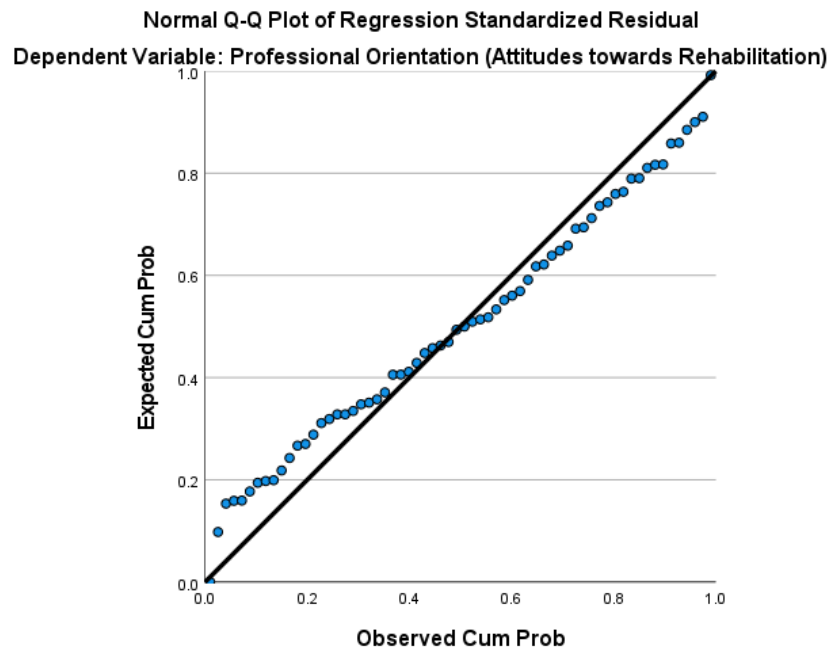
To answer the first research question, three separate multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to assess whether transformational leadership significantly predicted professional orientation (attitudes toward rehabilitation), job stress, and job satisfaction, respectively. Prior to each regression, the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, and lack of outliers were assessed.

Professional Orientation (Attitudes Towards Rehabilitation). The first linear regression was conducted to assess whether transformational leadership significantly predicted

attitudes toward rehabilitation when controlling for gender, age, race, educational level, correctional experience, and tenure in a leadership role.

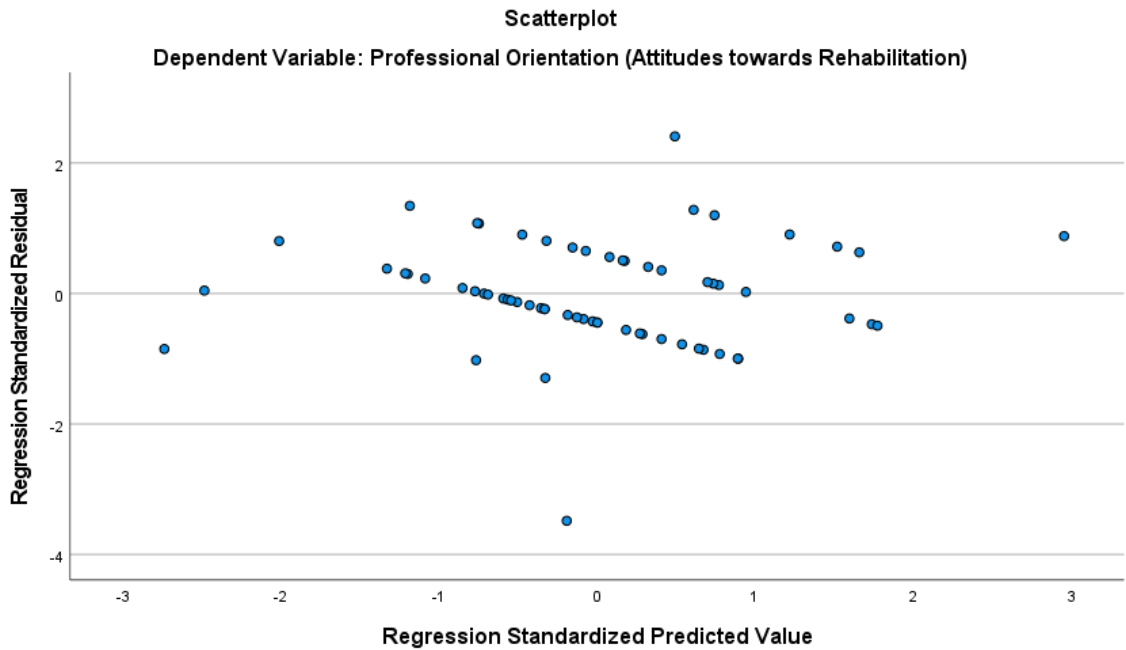
Normality. The assumption of normality was assessed by plotting a Q-Q scatterplot (DeCarlo, 1997). [Figure 1](#) presents a Q-Q scatterplot of the normality of residuals model for professional orientation (attitudes towards rehabilitation).

Figure 1. Q-Q scatterplot for normality of the residuals for the regression model—Professional Orientation.



Homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity was evaluated by plotting the residuals against the predicted values (Bates et al., 2014; Field, 2017; Osborne & Walters, 2002). [Figure 2](#) presents a scatterplot of predicted values and model residuals for professional orientation.

Figure 2. Residuals Scatterplot testing Homoscedasticity for Professional Orientation.



Multicollinearity. Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were calculated to detect the presence of multicollinearity between predictors. High VIFs indicate increased effects of multicollinearity in the model. VIFs greater than 5 are cause for concern, whereas VIFs of 10 should be considered the maximum upper limit (Menard, 2009). All predictors in the regression model have VIFs of less than 10. A summary of the VIFs for transformational leadership, control variables, and professional orientation is presented in [Table 4](#).

Table 4. Variance Inflation Factors for transformational leadership, gender, age, race, educational level, correctional experience, and tenure in a leadership role.

Variables	Professional Orientation VIF	Job Stress VIF	Job Satisfaction VIF
Transformational leadership	1.40	1.42	1.39
Gender- Male (Reference Category Female)	1.34	1.32	1.34
Age	3.27	3.22	3.22
<i>Ethnicity/Race (Reference Category White Non-Hispanic)¹⁹</i>			
American Indian	1.57	1.56	1.54
Asian	1.83	1.82	1.82
Black	1.43	1.14	1.14
Hispanic	1.44	1.39	1.39
Multi-Racial	1.68	1.68	1.68
<i>Educational Level (Reference Category HS Diploma or Equivalent)</i>			
Associate's Degree	3.94	3.95	3.93
Bachelor's Degree	6.33	6.32	6.39
Master's Degree	5.32	5.33	5.46
Doctorate	2.36	2.36	2.35
<i>Correctional Experience (Reference Category 31+ years)</i>			
1-10 years	2.29	2.29	2.29
16-20 years	3.86	3.87	3.85
21-25 years	2.99	2.90	2.90
26-30 years	2.75	2.67	2.75
<i>Tenure in Leadership Role (Reference Category 11 years+)</i>			
1 year or less	2.94	2.94	2.96
2-5 years	2.84	2.87	2.85
6-10 years	2.56	2.54	2.56

¹⁹ Aggregating racial groups into two categories provides a sufficient number of non-White respondents to allow for comparisons across racial groups in perceptions of the promotional process and correctional environment. However, Lambert and colleagues (2016) argue that the racial heterogeneity of the U.S. population and the simultaneous increase in the diversity of correctional staff calls to go beyond this simple dichotomization. Additionally, different ethnic groups, such as Latinos, may hold very different perceptions of Whites and Blacks, and utilizing race as a dichotomous unit of analysis may mask the variation (Lambert et al., 2016).

Outliers. To identify influential points, Cooks distances were calculated and assessed. An outlier was defined as any value over the 50 percentile (Cook, 1977). There were no outliers present in the data.

Results. As demonstrated in [Table 5](#), there was a significant predictive relationship between professional orientation and transformational leadership, $B = 0.49$, $t(44) = 2.45$, $p = .01$. This indicates that for every one unit increase in transformational leadership, scores will increase by 0.49 points. In other words, prison wardens who perceived that they exhibited transformational leadership skills experienced significantly more positive attitudes toward rehabilitation.

Table 5. Results for Hypothesis 1.
 Three linear regression models with
 transformational leadership and control variables
 predicting professional orientation (attitudes towards
 rehabilitation), job stress and job satisfaction.

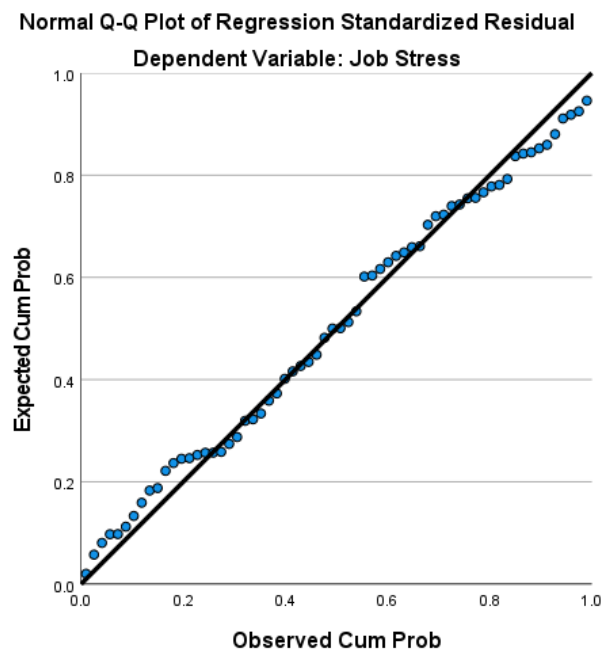
Variables	Professional	Professional	Professional	Professional	Professional	Job	Job	Job	Job	Job	Job	Job	Job	Job	
	Orientation	Orientation	Orientation	Orientation	Orientation	Stress	Stress	Stress	Stress	Stress	Satisfaction	Satisfaction	Satisfaction	Satisfaction	
	B	SE	β	t	p	B	SE	β	t	p	B	SE	B	t	p
(Intercept)	0.25	1.00		0.24	0.80	2.00	2.10		0.93	0.35	6.70	0.97		6.90	<.01
Transformational leadership	0.49	0.20	0.35	2.40	.01**	-0.12	0.42	-0.04	-0.28	0.77	-0.19	0.19	-0.14	1.00	0.30
Gender- Male (Reference Category Female)	0.08	0.13	0.08	0.59	0.55	0.04	0.28	0.02	0.16	0.87	0.26	0.13	0.26	2.02	.04*
Age	0.01	0.01	0.27	1.20	0.22	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.23	0.81	-0.01	0.01	-0.12	-0.58	0.55
<i>Ethnicity/Race</i>															
Reference Category White Non-Hispanic															
American Indian	0.12	0.30	0.06	0.40	0.68	-0.09	0.64	-0.02	-0.14	0.88	-0.04	0.29	-0.02	-0.16	0.86
Asian	-1.01	0.64	-0.25	-1.50	0.12	-0.29	1.30	-0.03	-0.21	0.83	0.71	0.61	0.18	1.17	0.24
Black	-0.02	0.26	-0.01	-0.08	0.93	-0.30	0.54	-0.07	-0.55	0.58	-0.41	0.24	-0.20	-1.60	0.10
Hispanic	-0.06	0.40	-0.02	-0.16	0.87	0.32	0.84	0.05	0.38	0.70	-0.80	0.38	-0.28	-2.00	.04*
Multi-Racial	-0.05	0.18	-0.01	-0.02	0.98	0.39	0.39	0.16	1.00	0.31	-0.50	0.17	-0.42	-2.80	.01*
<i>Educational Level</i>															
Reference category HS Diploma or Equivalent															
Associate's Degree	0.17	0.33	0.12	0.52	0.60	0.40	0.71	0.14	0.56	0.57	-0.29	0.32	-0.21	-0.93	0.35
Bachelor's Degree	0.01	0.30	0.01	0.01	0.99	1.10	0.63	0.59	1.80	0.06	0.01	0.28	0.01	0.04	0.96
Master's Degree	0.06	0.29	0.06	0.21	0.82	0.50	0.61	0.23	0.81	0.42	0.11	0.27	0.11	0.42	0.67
Doctorate	-0.70	0.43	-0.30	-1.60	0.11	1.50	0.90	0.32	1.60	0.10	-0.21	0.40	-0.09	-0.51	0.61
<i>Correctional Experience</i>															
Reference Category 31+ years															
1-10 years	0.57	0.37	0.28	1.50	0.12	-0.06	0.77	-0.01	-0.08	0.93	0.25	0.35	0.12	0.73	0.46
16-20 years	0.36	0.29	0.29	1.20	0.22	0.13	0.62	0.05	0.20	0.83	0.08	0.28	0.06	0.30	0.76
21-25 years	0.31	0.28	0.23	1.10	0.27	0.01	0.56	0.01	0.02	0.97	0.42	0.25	0.32	1.60	0.10
26-30 years	0.25	0.21	0.23	1.10	0.24	-0.50	0.43	-0.24	-1.10	0.25	0.19	0.19	0.18	0.99	0.32
<i>Tenure in Leadership Role</i>															
Reference Category 11 years+															
1 year or less	0.09	0.22	0.09	0.44	0.65	0.57	0.46	0.27	1.20	0.21	-0.33	0.20	-0.31	-1.60	0.11
2-5 years	0.36	0.21	0.34	1.60	0.10	0.59	0.46	0.28	1.30	0.20	-0.28	0.20	-0.26	-1.30	0.17
6-10 years	0.03	0.23	0.02	0.14	0.88	0.82	0.49	0.34	1.60	0.10	-0.19	0.21	-0.16	-0.88	0.38

(*) p < .05; (**) p < .01; (***) p < .001

Job Stress. The second multiple linear regression was conducted to determine if transformational leadership significantly predicted work-related stress when controlling for individual factors such as gender, age, race, educational level, and organizational factors that included correctional experience and tenure in a leadership role.

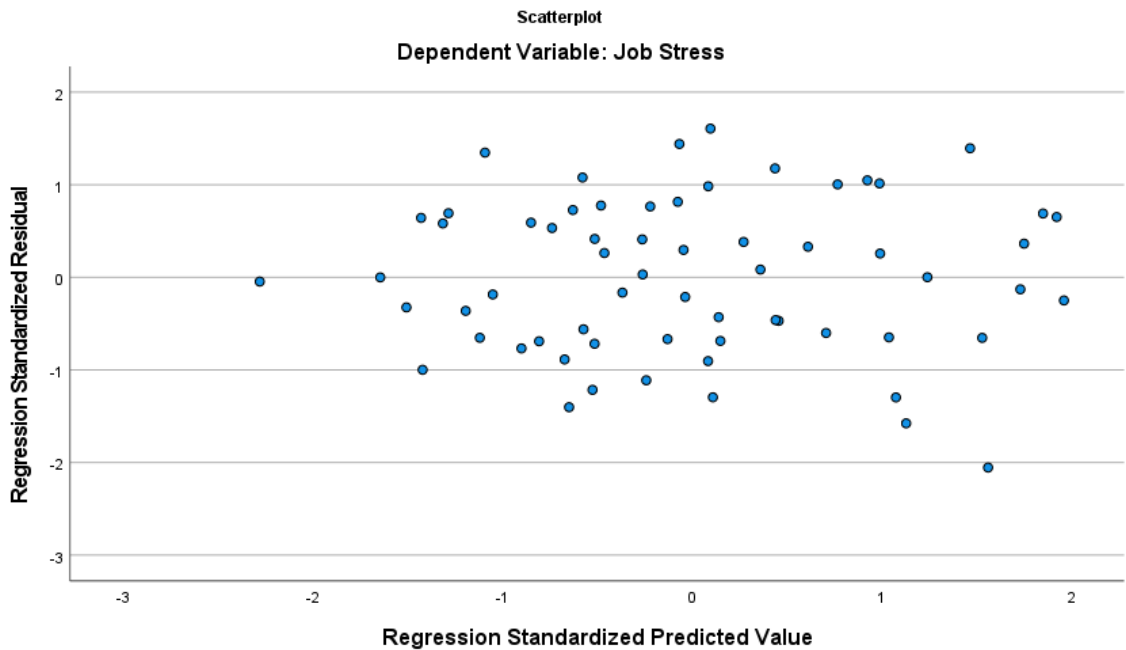
Normality. The assumption of normality was assessed by plotting a Q-Q scatterplot (DeCarlo, 1997). For the assumption of normality to be met, the quantiles of the residuals must not strongly deviate from the theoretical quantiles. Figure 3 presents a Q-Q scatterplot of the normality of residuals model for job stress.

Figure 3. Q-Q scatterplot for normality of the residuals for the regression model—Job Stress.



Homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity was evaluated by plotting the residuals against the predicted values (Bates et al., 2014; Field, 2017; Osborne & Walters, 2002). Figure 4 presents a scatterplot of predicted values and model residuals for job stress.

Figure 4. Residuals Scatterplot testing Homoscedasticity for Job Stress.



Multicollinearity. Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were calculated to detect the presence of multicollinearity between predictors. High VIFs indicate increased effects of multicollinearity in the model. VIFs greater than 5 are cause for concern, whereas VIFs of 10 should be considered the maximum upper limit (Menard, 2009). All predictors in the regression model have VIFs less than 10. A summary of the VIFs for transformational leadership, control variables, and job stress is presented in [Table 4](#).

Outliers. To identify influential points, Cooks distances were calculated and assessed. An outlier was defined as any value over the 50th percentile (Cook, 1977). There were no outliers present in the data.

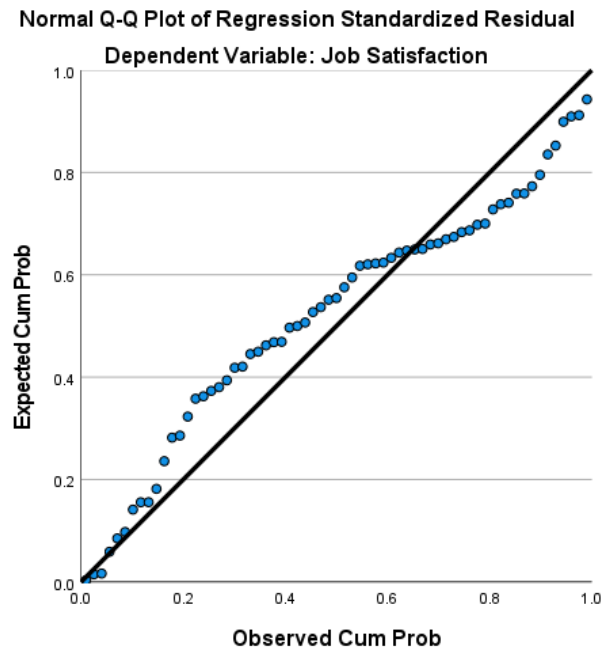
Results. As demonstrated in [Table 5](#), the results of the independent variables and covariates, transformational leadership, gender, age, race, educational level, correctional

experience, and tenure in a leadership role did not explain a significant proportion of variation in job stress.

Job Satisfaction. The final multiple linear regression was conducted to assess if transformational leadership significantly predicted job satisfaction when controlling for gender, age, race, educational level, correctional experience, and tenure in a leadership role.

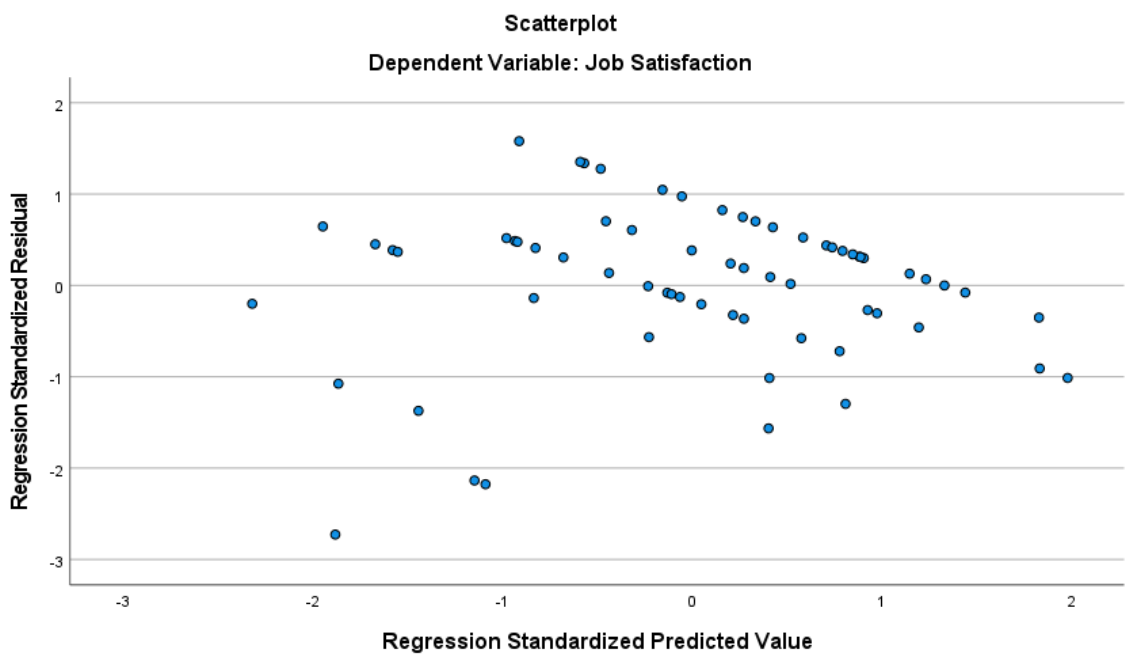
Normality. The assumption of normality was assessed by plotting a Q-Q scatterplot (DeCarlo, 1997). For the assumption of normality to be met, the quantiles of the residuals must not strongly deviate from the theoretical quantiles. Strong deviations could indicate that the parameter estimates are unreliable. Figure 5 presents a Q-Q scatterplot of the normality of residuals model for job satisfaction.

Figure 5. Q-Q scatterplot for normality of the residuals for the regression model—job satisfaction.



Homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity was evaluated by plotting the residuals against the predicted values (Bates et al., 2014; Field, 2017; Osborne & Walters, 2002). The assumption of homoscedasticity is met if the points appear randomly distributed with a mean of zero and no apparent curvature. Figure 6 presents a scatterplot of predicted values and model residuals for job satisfaction.

Figure 6. Residuals Scatterplot testing Homoscedasticity for Job Satisfaction



Multicollinearity. Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were calculated to detect the presence of multicollinearity between predictors. High VIFs indicate increased effects of multicollinearity in the model. VIFs greater than 5 are cause for concern, whereas VIFs of 10 should be considered the maximum upper limit (Menard, 2009). All predictors in the regression model have VIFs less than 10. A summary of the VIFs for transformational leadership, control variables, and job satisfaction is presented in Table 4.

Outliers. To identify influential points, Cooks distances were calculated and assessed. An outlier was defined as any value over the 50th percentile (Cook, 1977).

There were no outliers present in the data.

Results. As demonstrated in Table 5, the results of the linear regression model had a *marginal significance*, $F(19,45) = 1.64$, $p = 0.079$, $R^2 = 0.414$, indicating that 41% of the variance in job satisfaction is explainable by transformational leadership, gender, age, race, educational level, correctional experience, and tenure in a leadership role combined. First, the male gender significantly predicted job satisfaction, $B = 0.265$, $t(45) = 2.029$, $p = 0.048$. In other words, the results suggest that as wardens move from the female category to the male category, their job satisfaction score increases by .265 points.

Moreover, the Hispanic ethnicity significantly predicted transformational leadership, $B = -0.802$, $t(45) = -2.098$, $p = .042$. These results suggest that as wardens move from the White category to the Hispanic category, their job satisfaction score decreases by .802 points. Similarly, Multi-Racial ethnicity significantly predicted job satisfaction, $B = -0.506$, $t(45) = -2.868$, $p = .006$. These results suggest that as participants move from the Multi-Racial category to the White category, their job satisfaction score decreases by .506 points.

Hypothesis 2. According to the null hypothesis (H_{02}), no significant differences exist between female and male prison wardens' leadership styles. In contrast, the alternative hypothesis (H_2) proposed that female prison wardens were associated with an increased probability of transformational leadership compared to their male counterparts.

To test the second hypothesis, a Mann-Whitney U Test was conducted to examine whether there were significant differences in transformational leadership between the

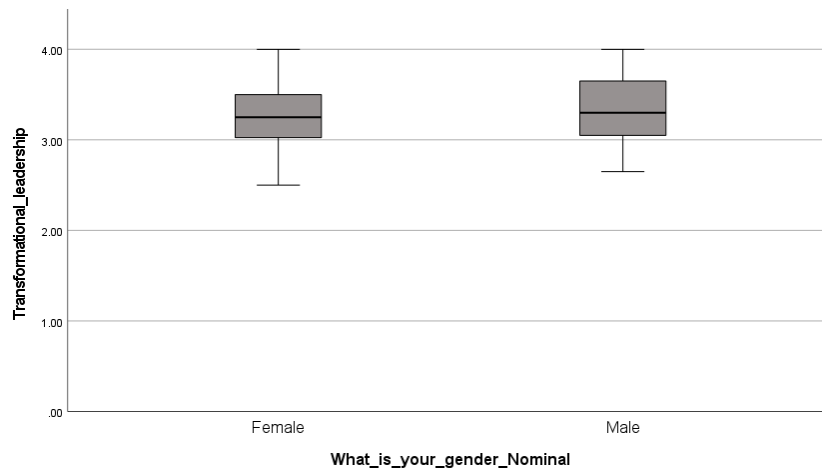
levels of gender. The Mann-Whitney U Test is an alternative to the independent samples *t*-test but does not share the same assumptions (Conover & Iman, 1981). There were 29 observations in the male group and 36 observations in the female group.

The Mann-Whitney U Test result was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $U = 576$, $z = -0.71$, $p = .475$. The mean rank for the male group was 34.86, and the mean rank for the female group was 31.50. This suggests that the distribution of transformational leadership for the male group ($Mdn = 3.30$) was not significantly different from the distribution of transformational leadership for the female group ($Mdn = 3.25$). [Table 6](#) presents the result of the Mann-Whitney U Test for transformational leadership for males and females. [Figure 7](#) illustrates a boxplot of the ranks of transformational leadership by gender.

Table 6. Mann-Whitney U Test for Transformational Leadership by Gender.

Variable	Mean Rank		<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
	Male	Female			
Transformational Leadership	34.86	31.50	576.00	-0.71	.475

Figure 7. Ranks of Transformational Leadership by Gender



Hypothesis 3. According to the null hypothesis (H_{03}), no significant differences exist between female and male prison wardens' attitudes toward rehabilitation. While the alternative hypothesis (H_3) proposed that female prison wardens will exhibit more positive attitudes toward rehabilitation than their male counterparts.

To test hypothesis three, a Mann–Whitney U test was conducted to examine whether there were significant differences in attitudes towards rehabilitation between the levels of gender. There were 32 observations in the male group and 35 observations in the female group. The Mann-Whitney U Test result was significant, $U = 729$, $z = -2.30$, $p = .021$. The mean rank for the male group was 39.3, and the mean rank for the female group was 29.2.

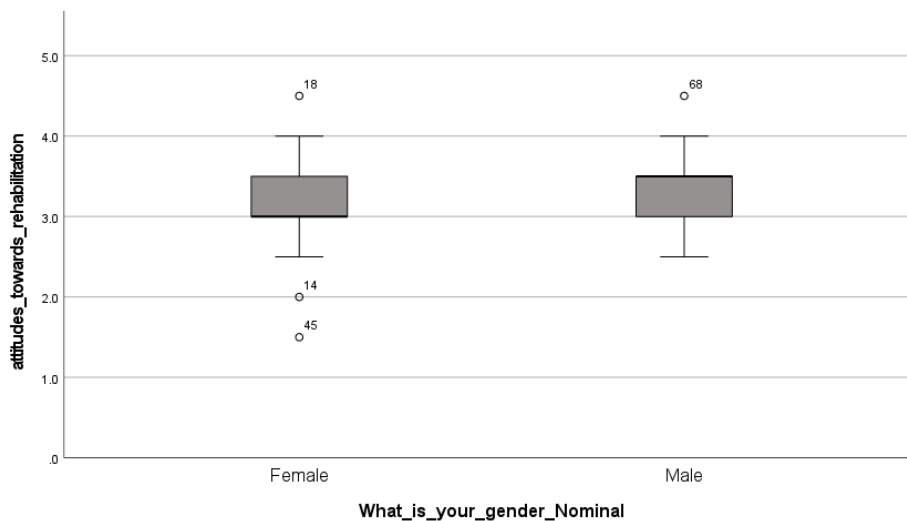
This suggests that the distribution of attitudes toward rehabilitation for the male group differed significantly from the distribution of attitudes toward rehabilitation for the female category. The median for males ($Mdn = 3.50$) was significantly larger than for females ($Mdn = 3.00$). [Table 7](#) presents the result of the Mann-Whitney U Test for

professional orientation for males and females. Figure 8 illustrates a boxplot of the ranks of professional orientation by gender.

Table 7. Mann-Whitney U Test for Professional Orientation by Gender

Variable	Mean Rank		U	z	p
	Male	Female			
Professional Orientation	39.28	29.17	729.00	-2.30	.021

Figure 8. Ranks of Professional Orientation by Gender



Hypothesis 4. According to the null hypothesis (H_{04}), no significant differences exist between female and male prison wardens for work-related stress. In contrast, the alternative hypothesis (H_4) proposed that female prison wardens will have a greater likelihood of lower work-related stress than their male counterparts.

To test hypothesis four, the Mann-Whitney U Test was conducted to examine whether there were significant differences in work-related stress between the levels of gender.

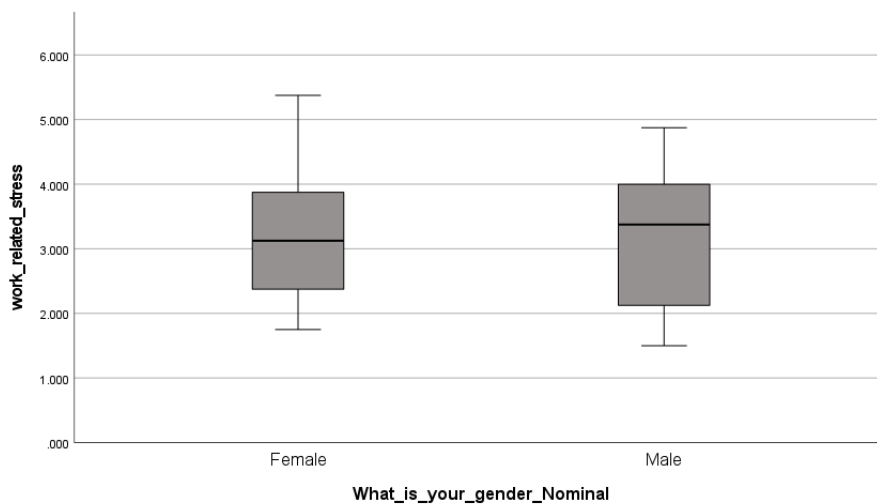
There were 30 observations for the male group and 36 observations for the female group.

The result of the Mann-Whitney U Test was not significant, $U = 552.5$, $z = -0.16$, $p = .872$. The mean rank for the male group was 33.92, and the mean rank for the female group was 33.15. This suggests that the distribution of work-related stress for the male group ($Mdn = 3.38$) was not significantly different from the distribution of work-related stress for the female group ($Mdn = 3.12$). Table 8 presents the result of the Mann-Whitney U Test for job stress for males and females. Figure 9 illustrates a boxplot of the ranks of work-related stress by gender.

Table 8. Mann-Whitney U Test for Job Stress by Gender.

Variable	Mean Rank		U	z	p
	Male	Female			
Work-related stress	33.92	33.15	552.50	-0.16	.872

Figure 9. Ranks of Job Stress by Gender.



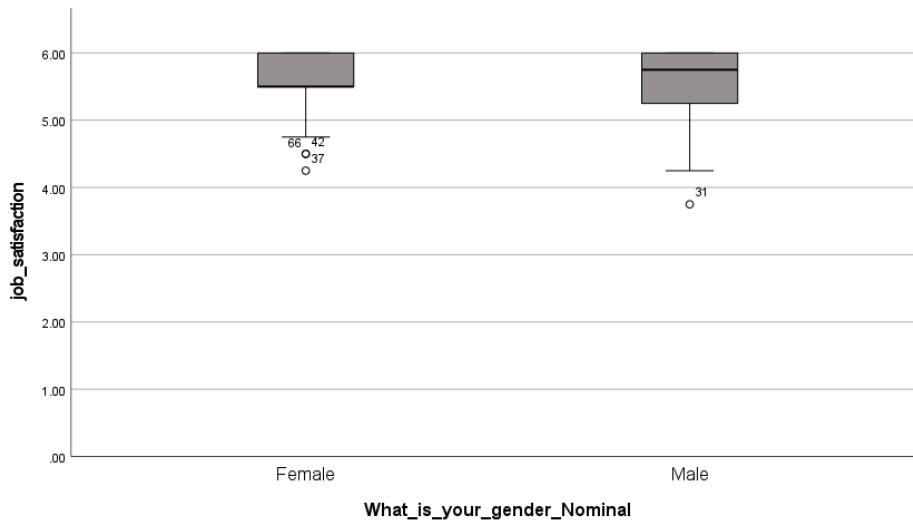
Hypothesis 5. According to the null hypothesis (H_{05}), no significant differences exist between female and male prison wardens for job satisfaction. In contrast, the alternative hypothesis (H_5) proposed that female prison wardens will have a greater likelihood of increased job satisfaction than their male counterparts. To test the final hypothesis, a Mann-Whitney U Test was conducted to examine whether there were significant differences in job satisfaction between the levels of gender. There were 32 observations for the male group and 36 observations for the female group.

The result of the Mann-Whitney U Test was not significant, $U = 648$, $z = -0.91$, $p = .362$. The mean rank for the male group was 36.75, and the mean rank for the female group was 32.50. This suggests that the distribution of job satisfaction for the male group ($Mdn = 5.75$) was not significantly different from the distribution of job satisfaction for the female group ($Mdn = 5.50$). [Table 9](#) presents the result of the Mann-Whitney U Test for job satisfaction by males and females. [Figure 10](#) illustrates a boxplot of the ranks of job satisfaction by gender.

Table 9. Mann-Whitney U Test for Job Satisfaction by Gender.

Variable	Mean Rank		U	z	p
	Male	Female			
Job Satisfaction	36.75	32.50	648.00	-0.91	.362

Figure 10. Ranks of Job Satisfaction by Gender.



Discussion

This study aimed to examine how female prison wardens can be effective leaders throughout the United States and the factors contributing to their success. For the first hypothesis, this exploratory study aimed first to determine if wardens who perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of transformational leadership characteristics also experience a positive professional orientation, lower levels of stress at work, and higher levels of job satisfaction.

First, there was a significant predictive relationship between professional orientation on transformational leadership, indicating prison wardens who perceived themselves as exhibiting transformational leadership skills experienced significantly more positive attitudes towards rehabilitation than those who did not perceive themselves that way. Second, the model for job stress did not appear to have any significance in the model or any of the predictors.

Third, in the overall model, job satisfaction was marginally significant. According to the first significant predictor, male wardens appear more satisfied with their jobs than female wardens. Additionally, two other predictors for ethnicity suggest that White wardens are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than Hispanic and multiracial wardens.

To answer hypotheses two, three, four, and five, four Mann-Whitney U Test were conducted for transformational leadership, attitudes toward rehabilitation, work-related stress, and job satisfaction by gender. These tests were conducted to determine if there were significant differences in the variables based on the gender of the participants. According to the results of three of the four tests, there was no significant difference between the levels of gender in transformational leadership, work-related stress, or job satisfaction. However, for hypothesis three, the model suggested a significant difference in attitudes towards rehabilitation by levels of gender. Specifically, males appeared to have more positive attitudes toward rehabilitation than their female counterparts.

The findings of this study will be discussed in more detail in chapter five, alongside practical and scholarly recommendations.

Limitations of the Analysis

Given that the study's sample size is not overwhelmingly large ($N=71$), the presence of so many independent variables may have weakened its power. Green (1991) has suggested that to ensure sufficient statistical power, a sample size of $N > 104 + m$,²⁰

²⁰ Collapsing the predictors should be considered for future research studies. For the current study, the researcher wanted to provide a complete picture, as discussed by Lambert and colleagues (2016), who state that aggregating data and collapsing categories may mask the variation in the data.

where m is the number of independent variables, should be used when testing individual predictors; this analysis falls short of this threshold. As in Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013), although a lack of statistical power would bias statistical analysis against statistically significant findings, the results of this study merit particular attention given its exploratory nature. In the future, a larger and more representative sample of prison wardens would undoubtedly be beneficial to furthering this line of research.

Finally, for the analysis, the Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated for the attitudes towards rehabilitation, work-related stress, and job satisfaction scales. As a brief summary, two of the four composite scores had alpha coefficients lower than .6, indicating low reliability. Therefore, the results for job satisfaction and attitudes toward rehabilitation should be interpreted with caution. As a brief recommendation, a suggestion is to split the categories, such as job satisfaction, job stress, or attitudes towards rehabilitation, to allow for the possibility of increasing the number of questions within each category.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

In this final chapter, three main areas are addressed: a discussion of the results, policy and practical implications, and future directions for research.

Discussion

As of 2020, the United States has the second-highest incarceration rate, with 1.7 million individuals incarcerated (World Prison Brief, 2020). Although prison and jail populations have decreased significantly over the last decade, 660 adults per 100,000 remain in prison or jails (Kluckow & Zeng, 2022). As a result of the high numbers, facilities continue to face operational challenges, including the overcrowding of correctional facilities and recruiting staff to manage a large population (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Cullen et al., 1993a; Leip et al., 2017; Russo, 2019). Furthermore, natural disasters and spreading viruses, including COVID-19, exacerbate the challenges (Mukherjee & El-Bassel, 2020). For example, in densely populated jails and prisons, where most incarcerated individuals share cells and other communal areas, infection control measures such as social distancing, hand washing, and quarantine are challenging to implement (Mukherjee & El-Bassel, 2020).

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2021), 35,700 correctional officer openings are expected annually between 2020 and 2030 due to high staff turnover, employees shifting to other industries, and retirement. Moreover, a shortage of corrections professionals has been predicted as a consequence of the impact of COVID-19 on the corrections profession (Mukherjee & El-Bassel, 2020). In light of the numerous challenges prison administrators face, effective leadership has become a crucial

component of an effective prison administration. As such, this study identified and examined the factors influencing the ability of prison wardens to effectively manage correctional facilities, such as transformational leadership, professional orientation, work stress, and job satisfaction. Further, in light of the additional obstacles faced by women in corrections, this study also explored whether there were differences in effectiveness between male and female prison wardens.

Three separate regression analyses were conducted for hypothesis one: prison wardens who perceived themselves as possessing high levels of transformational leadership characteristics, have a positive professional orientation, greater job satisfaction, and experience a lower level of work-related stress. Furthermore, professional orientation, job stress, and job satisfaction were calculated as dependent variables.

For the first regression model, there was a significant predictive relationship between transformational leadership on professional orientation, indicating prison wardens who perceived that they exhibited transformational leadership skills experienced significantly more positive attitudes toward rehabilitation. As Bursac et al. (2008) suggest, there is discretion for the researcher to decide which variables to remove from the model; however, this predictor warrants further discussion, given that there was a significant predictor within the model.

This finding is consistent with previous literature that posits that leaders who utilize transformational leadership practices often empower staff to accept a positive rehabilitation mission, promote a supportive environment incorporating rehabilitation, offer incarcerated individuals more opportunities to develop their vocational skills, and

enhance rehabilitation and reentry efforts with the ultimate goal of reducing recidivism (Pittaro, 2017). Therefore, as prison wardens strive to meet the demands of their respective state departments of corrections, they must rely on their transformational leadership skills to motivate their staff to meet the daily objectives (Pittaro, 2017). However, there are challenges associated with implementing these changes, as individual leaders must be able to ensure the facility's dual and sometimes conflicting missions of ensuring the safety of officers, incarcerated individuals, and the community through security measures and improving future community safety through offender rehabilitation efforts (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). Nevertheless, as Andrews et al. (1990) and DiIulio (1991) argued over thirty years ago, the warden's openness to innovation and treatment as a result of leadership practices, such as transformational leadership, can significantly improve the prison's culture, including participation in rehabilitation (Seiter, 2016).

Next, the second regression model for hypothesis one, i.e., prison wardens who perceive themselves to have high levels of transformational leadership characteristics are more likely to experience lower levels of job stress, as well as the other independent variables, did not provide the support that there is a link between job stress and transformational leadership. Surprisingly, the demographic features of prison wardens did not influence their levels of job stress. In light of the demanding responsibilities that prison wardens are expected to fulfill—including maintaining safe and secure prisons, managing human resources, handling discipline incidents, fiscal management, and public relations (Ruddell & Norris, 2008)—it was expected that correctional administrators were likely to experience job stress (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). However, it is

plausible that this convenience sample [i.e., 71 of approximately 145 prison wardens] did not perceive experiencing job stress, and as a result, no association was found. Moreover, while Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) found that prison wardens who perceive that they exhibit transformational leadership traits also experienced less job stress, it remained unclear whether the self-perceived demonstration of transformational leadership leads to less job stress, low job stress leads to the development and display of transformational leadership, or the two are merely correlated resulting from an unmeasured latent characteristic of the individual.

Finally, the third regression model for hypothesis one focused on transformational leadership and job satisfaction of wardens. Previous research provided support that female correctional employees demonstrated a high level of job satisfaction. For instance, earlier studies indicated that female correctional officers were more satisfied with their jobs than their male counterparts and perceived better supervision (Britton, 1997; Griffin, 2001). As such, this study hypothesized that prison wardens who perceive themselves to have high levels of transformational leadership characteristics are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction. The results of the third linear regression model for hypothesis one were significant, indicating that transformational leadership, and gender, explained a significant proportion of variation in job satisfaction; however, in the direction opposite to what was hypothesized, namely, males had a higher level of job satisfaction compared to their female counterparts. To that end, the literature on female correctional professionals and job satisfaction has been limited, and the mixed results suggest various possible associations.

For instance, more recent studies of female correctional professionals have shown that women are less likely to be satisfied with their jobs than their male counterparts because they lack the same level of support and encouragement as men (Lambert et al., 2021; Paoline et al., 2015; Griffin et al., 2020). Additionally, Collica-Cox and Schulz (2021) found that while women in executive-level positions reported high levels of job satisfaction, they also indicated that they faced challenges in the promotion process. Therefore, despite the findings, the present study enhances the literature, and the untested explanations should be considered with additional measurements for future research.

Moreover, in the same regression model, ethnicity was also a significant predictor, with White wardens reporting higher job satisfaction than Hispanic and multiracial.²¹ Although the focus of this study was not race and ethnicity, the findings can be contextualized through the theoretical framework of the Importation-Differential Experiences Model. As previously discussed, the model proposes that although correctional professionals share the same occupation, there will be differences in their perceptions, views, attitudes, and behaviors across demographic factors such as gender or race (Smith et al., 2021). For instance, the differences in perception are influenced by the employee's race; therefore, their actions will result from views harbored by the acquired beliefs outside their employment and imported into the correctional environment (Smith et al., 2021).

Furthermore, several studies have examined the association between race and job satisfaction in correctional settings. Early studies found that Black correctional

²¹Multiracial in the present study includes individuals that identify with several different races (Cambridge, 2023).

employees had lower levels of job satisfaction and perceived their work as dangerous (Cullen et al., 1985; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Nevertheless, Wantanbe (2010) reported that race and gender levels of job satisfaction were based on work-family balance and establishing connections with other employees. While Auerbach and colleagues (2003) reported higher levels of job satisfaction increased for employees that perceived they had supervisory and peer support.

When it comes to support from the leadership, Bennett and Johnson (2000) found that, although Black wardens experience a high level of job satisfaction and their managerial perspectives and attitudes are similar to those of their White counterparts, they report being more likely to be influenced by top administrators and the central office in their day-to-day operations. Similarly, Lambert and colleagues (2016) found that Black and White's staff reported high levels of job satisfaction when they perceived greater supervisory support and input in the decision-making process.

In contrast, recent studies have revealed few differences in perceptions, which suggest little to no relationship between race and job satisfaction among correctional personnel (Smith et al., 2021). However, given that the methodology used in the study by Smith et al. (2021) included aggregating the racial groups into two categories to provide a sufficient number of non-White respondents for comparisons across racial groups, Lambert et al. (2016) note that this method may mask some of the variations by aggregating the racial groups into two categories. Accordingly, as the study's authors recommended, future research should go beyond the dichotomization of racial groups since members of different ethnic groups may hold different perceptions (Smith et al., 2021).

For the second, third, fourth, and fifth hypotheses, Mann-Whitney U Tests were performed to determine if there were significant differences in the variables based on the gender of the participants. Hypothesis two, the data revealed no support for the prediction that female prison wardens were associated with an increased probability of transformational leadership compared to their male counterparts. Similarly, the data did not support hypotheses four and five, i.e., female prison wardens will have a greater likelihood of low work-related stress and increased job satisfaction than their male counterparts. Further exploration in future research is warranted and should expand on these variables.

For hypothesis three, previous research strongly supported that women are more supportive of rehabilitation programs than their male counterparts (Farkas, 1999; Kim et al., 2003; Lambert, 2010; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2008). As such, the third hypothesis proposed that female prison wardens will exhibit more positive attitudes toward rehabilitation than their male counterparts. In alignment with the Mann-Whitney U Test analysis, this study's results indicated that men and women have different attitudes toward rehabilitation but in the opposite direction of what was hypothesized. Accordingly, the present study's findings add insight into the possibility that males in leadership roles may be more supportive of rehabilitation services than their female counterparts.

This finding is unexpected but may be a pivotal shift for women working in the correctional sector. Historically, it has been noted that women bring to the field of corrections characteristics such as the ability to easily collaborate, communicate, and empathize (Martin & Jurik, 2007; Nink, 2008). Given the results of the present study, it is

also plausible that females have begun to move away from these characteristics in a prison environment and use a more militaristic approach by modeling male behavior to gain respect from male peers and incarcerated individuals. Additionally, the shift in professional orientation for females can also be impacted by the low morale in the correctional environment during and after COVID. For instance, women were among the most affected groups during the pandemic especially working mothers and women in senior management positions (Jablonska, 2021).

Nevertheless, this area warrants further exploration, as the results have been mixed, given that other studies have suggested that gender is not linked with correctional orientation (Arthur, 1994; Crouch & Alpert, 1982; Cullen, Lutze, Link, & Wolfe, 1989; Gordon, 2006; Lambert et al., 2010; Robinson et al., 1993).

The following section details theoretical and policy implications and practical recommendations that can help make future changes within the correctional sector.

Theoretical Implications, Policy Implications, and Recommendations

In the current study, an extensive review was conducted, taking stock of what is currently known about the effectiveness of prison wardens with a focus on gender. One reason for broadly examining the effectiveness of female wardens—is that more women are entering the workforce and bringing their strengths and attributes into formerly male-dominated environments. According to the workforce demographics, women play a more significant role in the correctional industries, especially since the correctional sector continues to face critical staff shortages, with a reduction of 7% estimated between 2020 and 2030 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2022). Additionally, as a result of COVID-19, the operations of correctional facilities have been affected even more because of absenteeism

and workload demands leading to excessive overtime requirements (CGL Companies, 2022). These factors have negatively impacted the facility culture, causing low staff morale and complicating the nationwide recruitment and retention efforts (CGL Companies, 2022).

Consequently, as state departments of corrections and correctional administrators seek innovative future strategies, the current findings of the study can assist in guiding theoretical, practical, and policy implications. Further, as policymakers look to reduce spending within the criminal justice system while facing staffing challenges and hoping to reduce recidivism, innovative strategies are critical to succeed. While a single research project cannot be sufficient to propose agency-wide policy changes, considering the shrinking budgets experienced by the corrections sector, these findings can assist correctional institutions in focusing their limited funds on specific problematic aspects of the job. For instance, the findings presented offer potential areas for integrating evidence-based practices and establishing support among stakeholders to increase mentorship, training, and education for employees from line staff to administrators.

Moreover, this study has highlighted that women face challenges even after reaching executive leadership levels. They first must gain credibility and respect and feel pressured to perform at a much higher level than their male peers to be considered successful. Nonetheless, female correctional leaders can create a more effective organizational culture by adopting practices that foster positive experiences and demonstrating to other women that opportunities exist for promotion. However, female wardens have often gone understudied; therefore, a significant contribution of this study is its contribution to the sparse knowledge about women prison leaders.

Addressing the Literature Gap. Firstly, expanding the literature on female wardens should be a priority to continue exploring if significant differences exist between individual demographic factors in the correctional workspace. For instance, the state Department of Corrections research teams and universities can establish partnerships and collaborations to conduct evidence-based research focused on leaders' wellness needs, job satisfaction, and an evaluation of their professional orientation. Arizona State University's Correctional Solutions program partnered with the Arizona Department of Corrections, Rehabilitation, and Reentry is an example of academics and practitioners establishing a relationship to conduct mutually beneficial research. A recent thesis written by a graduate student, Smith (2018), examining correctional staff attitudes towards rehabilitation, illustrates a significant step in the right direction. In the survey conducted by Smith (2018) administered to 280 correctional officers within AZDOC facilities, the current study indicated that officers who are most punitive and have the highest levels of self-control may be the most likely to be receptive to motivational interviewing training. This finding demonstrates that despite individual characteristics and punitive attitudes, correctional officers are generally receptive to evidence-based practices geared toward rehabilitation.

Theoretical Framework. Secondly, the study's findings suggest that the Importation-Differential Theoretical model should be extended to future studies focusing on correctional leaders. However, as previously demonstrated in the literature on correctional officers, combining the Importation-Differential and Prisonization theories can provide a more comprehensive explanation of some organizational factors. For instance, it may be possible to explain a wide range of factors relating to the correctional

environment using the Work Role Prisonization Model, particularly isolation from mainstream society and "paramilitary and disciplinary reinforcement of ingroup solidarity" (VanVoorhis et al., 1991, p. 476). The critical point is that institutional-level variables influence perceptions and can be more easily manipulated by administrators than individual perceptions imported from outside the correctional environment (Smith et al., 2021).

Transformational Leadership and Professional Orientation. Thirdly, the present study and previous literature indicate that employees with higher levels of transformational leadership skills frequently display collaboration and empathy, which become embedded within the facility's culture (Nink, 2008); as a result, their employees are empowered, which is often associated with positive rehabilitation support (Pittaro, 2017).

A practical recommendation is for each state department of corrections to develop a strategic initiative incorporating a formal mentorship training program led by current wardens to guide future leaders. As an initial step, a cross-training session should be included with facilities from different states that focus on positive outcomes when utilizing transformational leadership practices. Additionally, it is essential to include a segment in the training that explains the positive impact of rehabilitation as measured by current data outcomes, including the reduction in recidivism rates.

Moreover, the segment can demonstrate how easily a rehabilitation curriculum can be adapted through innovative technological strategies. In Florida, for example, the Florida Department of Corrections (FDC) provides incarcerated individuals with tablets to communicate with their families and friends. However, they have also incorporated a

rehabilitation curriculum into the tablets. Podcasts are another strategy for introducing rehabilitation. In 2017, Ear Hustle became the first podcast produced and recorded inside a prison, featuring stories describing the daily realities of life inside California's San Quentin State Prison; for some, it has contributed to the expansion of rehabilitative services.

Therefore, by providing ongoing training on industry-leading best practices and evidence-based principles, staff can stay in tune with empirical research, leading to a positive culture within the institution. As a result of providing incentives, wardens will be able to enhance communication skills with the offender population and achieve desired outcomes while investing in their staff.

Professional Orientation and Gender. Based on the results of the present study, which indicated that male wardens exhibited a more positive attitude toward rehabilitation, it is plausible that female wardens were unprepared for a number of administrative challenges as they were hired or promoted (McCampbell, 2002), including the effects of the pandemic. Therefore, given the challenges presented rehabilitation services may have been a lower priority to the institution's daily operations. Furthermore, given that training provided to wardens may often focus on human resources and safety protocols and less on personal growth and professional development, it can lead to a perceived lack of preparedness (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). A future practical recommendation would be to utilize the National Institution of Corrections' Executive Excellence (EE) program, which is a three-phase, multi-session leader development program for executives in community services, jails, and prisons. The training program

emphasizes leadership effectiveness, including leaders' physical health, emotional resilience, and stability.

Concerning other correctional policies, the results in this section have suggested some important implications. Taking stock of staff members' values and beliefs regarding the purpose of prisons is crucial because these values and beliefs may impact their attitudes, actions, and interactions with incarcerated individuals. The inclusion of female staff members at all levels in policy and decision-making is, therefore, necessary to help share some of their opinions and challenges encountered while working in correctional institutions. In an earlier proposal by the United Nations (2010), in a guidebook for prison leaders, establishing a safe space is emphasized as a key element. As a result, each institution must establish a working group composed of only female correctional professionals to encourage genuine and honest dialogue and provide women with a greater voice.

Job Stress for Corrections Professionals. Although there was no significance for this study on job stress, it is plausible that this convenience sample of prison wardens did not perceive experiencing job stress. As a result, general recommendations are provided.

As a first recommendation, the Department of Corrections research sector should consider extending the current study to identify specific issues related to potential stressors, particularly for female leaders. For example, Collica-Cox and Schulz (2021) and Mathews et al., (2010) have identified work-life balance as a predictor of stress, especially among women in leadership positions. Therefore, childcare support, shift work schedules that are more accommodating to women in corrections, and the ability to

increase flexibility due to unforeseen circumstances are some factors that can help alleviate work-related stress.

A second recommendation is to introduce wellness programs incorporating stress awareness, such as peer support groups, stress management, and trauma resources that can be easily accessed through a wellness shared point website (El Ghaziri et al., 2020). For instance, the Corrections Leaders Association (CLA) provides its members with leadership development forums and resources, including staff wellness, to help improve their health and well-being.

Additionally, a practical recommendation is modeled by the Nebraska Department of Corrections Services (NDCS), which opened its first employee wellness center in 2018. The center provides staff members with a place to exercise, build camaraderie, become healthier, and relieve stress from their everyday work routines. Following the center's success, in 2022, NDCS expanded and redesigned its facilities to offer more services and improve amenities to assist in recruiting and retaining staff, including a workout center with male and female locker rooms. Moreover, the center aims to address the pervasive problems affecting existing and newly recruited staff, such as stress, high turnover, low morale, high injury rates, low job satisfaction, and occupational danger (Office of Correctional Health, 2023).

Job Satisfaction, Gender, and Ethnicity. The findings of the present study suggest that when developing policy, state agencies nationwide should consider the potential impact the prison work environment can have on job satisfaction based on a person's race and gender. Therefore, one recommendation, as Lambert and colleagues (2016) suggested, is that focus groups could be established to allow staff to provide information about

different aspects of their jobs that contribute to their job satisfaction. According to the findings of the focus groups, the curriculum for warden training can incorporate evidence-based, gender-responsive, and cultural awareness elements, in addition to specific issues raised during the focus groups. Moreover, another recommendation is to implement peer mentorship programs in which members of the same gender or ethnicity are matched with experienced or retired wardens (Paoline, Lambert & Hogan, 2015). A final recommendation is forming sub-groups that mimic organizations such as the Association of Women Executives in Corrections (AWEC) within all institutions to directly offer support and mentorship to women and minorities at all levels in leadership programs, i.e., correctional officers, treatment staff, line supervisors and administrators.

While the preceding section provided policy implications and recommendations, the following section details some of the study's limitations and offers recommendations for future research.

Limitations and Future Research

The findings of this study provide valuable insight into the effectiveness of female prison wardens as leaders in US correctional facilities, as well as the factors influencing their effectiveness. Additionally, the study examined whether wardens who perceive that they possess greater levels of transformational leadership characteristics also experience a positive professional orientation, lower stress levels at work, and a higher level of job satisfaction and whether these differences are gender-based. Nevertheless, the results must be carefully interpreted and understood in light of a number of limitations, and further research is recommended.

First, due to the cross-sectional nature of the study, it is not possible to examine how the effectiveness of wardens may change over time and influence the current outcomes. As such, longitudinal studies are recommended to empirically demonstrate the causal effects of prison warden effectiveness over a more extended period. Second, this study did not examine the relationship between other potential predictor factors that help assess the effectiveness of wardens. It is recommended that future research is conducted considering other factors, such as autonomy, work-family conflict, and job burnout, that could influence the effectiveness of wardens, as well as taking into account key control variables such as gender and race.

Third, the sample included wardens' perceptions of leadership effectiveness in ten state-run prisons. Therefore, as part of future research, correctional officers and mid-level management's perceptions of executive correctional leadership should be considered. Finally, the study of correctional leaders in the future should employ both quantitative and qualitative data in order to examine other factors of effectiveness that may not have previously been considered (Akin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Taxman & Gordon, 2009; Vickovic & Griffin, 2014). Using mixed methods to examine the leadership capacities of female leaders has been successfully employed by Collica-Cox and Schulz (2017).

Although there are some limitations to the current study, the results provide valuable insight into the effectiveness of female prison wardens as leaders all over the United States and the factors that impact their effectiveness.

Conclusion

Although the corrections sector offers job security and competitive benefits, including long-term stable retirement plans (Carter, 2022), the challenging nature of the

work ranks it as one of the least desired professions (Suneson, 2019). Correctional professionals face challenges, including a dangerous and volatile prison environment often characterized by overcrowding and violence. When exposed to such an environment, a person may suffer from stress, burnout, mental health issues, divorce, and other adverse outcomes (Carter, 2022). Correctional leaders have faced additional obstacles due to the COVID-19 pandemic as they strive to balance security obligations, treatment programs, and daily operations plus health demands posed by the incarcerated population and staff. In order to ensure the proper functioning of correctional institutions, it is necessary to recognize the challenging nature of correctional work and the negative effects that may be caused to corrections professionals and their families.

While wardens must be granted authority to do their job and make effective decisions without excessive oversight, they must also receive support to cultivate a positive work environment and well-being. Therefore, as individuals advance into senior leadership positions, to be effective leaders, they must be aware of these challenges and believe in their ability to influence the organization positively. Nevertheless, a strategic plan is recommended for facility leaders to assure a continuous process is pursued as a collaborative effort in which all facets of the organization are involved in ongoing communication. It is possible to generate powerful advocacy for change by informing all employees, engaging them in the process, and inviting them to provide feedback.

By continuing the research on wardens' effectiveness, considering demographic factors, and implementing the policy implications guided by these findings, correctional organizations can build upon the understanding of these issues and increase the effectiveness of leadership while promoting the well-being of correctional professionals.

In closing, the Department of Corrections must invest in the correctional staff and executive leaders, as this leads to the provision of high-quality rehabilitation services, successful support of reentry, and an overall improvement in public safety.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Informational Letter to wardens and superintendents.



INFORMATIONAL LETTER

An Examination of Factors that Influence a Wardens' Effectiveness as a Leader.

Lead Researcher

Wendy Dressler, M.A., PhD Candidate
20+ years of experience in Corrections and Re-Entry
Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice
(561) 353-7147; email: wdres003@fiu.edu

Faculty Chair & Committee Members

Tim Goddard, Ph.D., Kristen Zgoba Ph.D., Rosa Chang Ph.D., Zoran Bursac Ph.D.,
Derrick Schofield Ph.D.

+Combined expertise in corrections, correctional administration, rehabilitation, CJ policy,
biostatistics

Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice
(305) 348-4873; email: tgoddard@fiu.edu

- Thank you for the opportunity to engage in communication with your reputable institution. You were selected to partake in this project because of your position as a [warden/superintendent](#) in a highly regarded correctional institute. The [Commissioner](#) has approved the request to conduct the survey, but your participation is voluntary; even if you agree to participate, you can withdraw at any time. You will not be penalized or lose benefits if you refuse to participate or decide to stop the survey.
- My dissertation focuses on examining the factors that contribute to the leadership effectiveness of wardens across the United States to assist in advancing correctional administration policy. Your involvement in completing the survey will help forge a new study and help those in our corrections field further elucidate the factors contributing to effective leadership.
- I can imagine this is a busy time of the year for you, but I am graciously hoping you can take some time to participate in the brief survey, which will require approximately 15-20 minutes of your time to complete. To complete the survey online, please access the URL below.
 1. Click on the link or copy and paste on your browser and then follow the survey instructions.
 2. The survey is also accessible via smartphone (Android, iOS) and tablet.

3. If you do not have dependable internet access or prefer to answer the questionnaire on paper, you may request a paper survey by sending an e-mail (wdres003@fiu.edu) or calling (561-353-7147).
 4. A survey and a stamped envelope will be sent directly to you; please do not send your name or provide any identifying information in your comment or on the survey.
 5. Completion of the questionnaire will indicate your willingness to participate in this study.
- There are no foreseeable risks or benefits to you for participating in this study. It is expected that this study will benefit society in helping to develop policies in corrections for correctional administration.
 - You will remain anonymous. The survey results will be reported in a summary format so that no one will be able to associate you with your responses to this survey. Moreover, the records of this study will be kept private and protected to the fullest extent provided by law. In any report we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you.
 - Unfortunately, there is no monetary compensation for your participation in this research as I am a graduate student working toward a Ph.D. I sincerely appreciate your time and participation and hope that this project will lead to a greater appreciation and understanding of your work.
 - If you have any concerns or questions regarding the conduct of this research, feel free to contact the researcher listed at the top of this form.
 - If you would like to talk with someone about your rights of being a subject in this research study or about ethical issues with this research study, you may contact the FIU Office of Research Integrity by phone at 305-348-2494 or by email at ori@fiu.edu.

Click on the link to the survey below:

https://fiu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_cHkdKaVpEAFQub4

Appendix B. Survey sent to Wardens and Superintendents

Consent

FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY
ONLINE CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY
An Examination of Factors that Influence a Wardens' Effectiveness as a Leader

SUMMARY INFORMATION

Things you should know about this study:

- Purpose: The purpose of the study is to examine a wardens' effectiveness as leaders
- Procedures: If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete a survey anonymously.
- Duration: This will take about 15-20 minutes. • Risks: The main risk or discomfort from this research is minimal.
- Benefits: The main benefit to you from this research is there are no benefits.
- Alternatives: There are no known alternatives available to you other than not taking part in this study.
- Participation: Taking part in this research project is voluntary.

Please carefully read the entire document before agreeing to participate.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to examine a wardens' effectiveness as leaders

NUMBER OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS

If you decide to be in this study, you will be one of 200 people in this research study.

DURATION OF THE STUDY

Your participation will involve 15-20 minutes of your time.

PROCEDURES

If you agree to be in the study, we will ask you to do the following things:

1. To complete the survey online, please access the URL below.
2. Click on the link and then follow the survey instructions.
3. The survey is also accessible via smartphone (Android, iOS) and tablet.

1. If you do not have dependable internet access or prefer to answer the questionnaire on paper, you may request a paper survey by sending an e-mail (wdres003@fiu.edu) or calling (561-353-7147).
2. A survey and a stamped envelope will be sent directly to you
3. Please do not send your name or provide any identifying information in your comment or on the survey.

RISKS AND/OR DISCOMFORTS

The study has the following possible risks to you:

- First, has minimal risks to you.
- Second, the choice that you make to participate or not participate will have no connection to your job.
- Third, if you change your mind after starting the survey, you can discontinue and pull out at any time.
- Fourth, your participation will not have risk on your physical, psychological, societal, or economical risks.

BENEFITS

The study has the following possible benefits to you:

- There are no benefits for you
- Your involvement will help contribute to leadership effectiveness of wardens across the United States
- The results of the study will help to assist in developing policies in corrections for new leaders.

ALTERNATIVES

1. There are no known alternatives available to you other than not taking part in this study.
2. However, if you do not have reliable internet access
3. Or prefer to answer the survey on paper
4. You may request a paper survey by sending an e-mail (wdres003@fiu.edu)
5. Or calling (561-353-7147)
6. A survey and a stamped envelope will be sent directly to you
7. Please do not send your name or provide any identifying information in your comment or on the survey.

CONFIDENTIALITY

- The information that is collected for this research study is anonymous.
- The records of this study will be kept private and will be protected to the fullest extent provided by law.
- In any sort of report, we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you.
- Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records.
- The only information about you e.g., email address, that will be collected during the research will be gathered and downloaded to the researcher's personal computer.
- Access to the computer is password protected and installed with antivirus software.
- However, your records may be inspected by authorized University or other agents who will also keep the information confidential.

USE OF YOUR INFORMATION

- No identifying features will be included in the study • The survey is anonymous

COMPENSATION & COSTS

- The participant is offered a copy of the final results
- There are no costs to you for participating in this study.

RIGHT TO DECLINE OR WITHDRAW

- Your participation in this study is voluntary.
- You are free to participate in the study or withdraw your consent at any time during the study.
- You will not lose any benefits if you decide not to participate or if you quit the study early.
- The investigator reserves the right to remove you without your consent at such time that he/she feels it is in the best interest.

RESEARCHER CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have any questions about the purpose, procedures, or any other issues relating to this research study you may contact Wendy Dressler at Florida International University, (561) 353-7147, wdres003@fiu.edu

IRB CONTACT INFORMATION

If you would like to talk with someone about your rights of being a subject in this research study or about ethical issues with this research study, you may contact the FIU Office of Research Integrity by phone at 305-348-2494 or by email at ori@fiu.edu.

PARTICIPANT AGREEMENT

I have read the information in this consent form and agree to participate in this study. I have had a chance to ask any questions I have about this study, and they have been answered for me. By clicking on the “consent to participate” button below I am providing my informed consent.

- I consent, begin the study
- I do not consent, I do not wish to participate

Leadership Style Information

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire™ Leader Form (5x-Short)

This first 45 questions are used to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word “others” may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

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Leadership Style

**The questions in this section cannot be shared due to copyright laws.*

I provide others with assistance...

- Not at all
- Once in a while
- Sometimes
- Fairly often
- Frequently, if not always

New Section

The following questions are related to job satisfaction, work-related stress, and rehabilitation services your facility provides.

Job Satisfaction

I tend to care personally about what happens to inmates here.

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week
- A few times a week
- Every day

I clearly understand what is necessary to do my job effectively.

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week
- A few times a week
- Every day

I feel a sense of satisfaction from the work I do.

- Never
- A few times a year

- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week
- A few times a week
- Every day

Most people in my chain of command agree on what is necessary to do my job effectively.

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week
- A few times a week
- Every day

Overall, how satisfied are you with your current position?

- Completely dissatisfied
- Mostly dissatisfied
- Somewhat dissatisfied
- Neither dissatisfied or satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Mostly satisfied
- Completely satisfied

Work-Related Stressors

Because of my work, I feel unable to fully enjoy my family and/or social life.

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week

- A few times a week
- Every day

Working with people all day is really a strain for me.

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week
- A few times a week
- Every day

I feel emotionally drained from my work

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week
- A few times a week
- Every day

I have feelings of being burned out by this job.

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week
- A few times a week
- Every day

I have someone I talk to when things get tough at work.

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week
- A few times a week
- Every day

I feel stressed on the job.

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week
- A few times a week
- Every day

I feel caught between conflicting expectations on the job

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week
- A few times a week
- Every day

I deal effectively with the problems of this facility.

- Never
- A few times a year
- Once a month or less
- A few times a month
- Once a week

- A few times a week
- Every day

Rehabilitation Services

Rehabilitation programs have an important place in my institution

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Conditions at my institution should be harsher to deter inmates from future crime

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Rank order of prison goals in terms of importance to you. 1 the most preferred and 4 the least preferred choice.

	1	2	3	4
Retribution	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Incapacitation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Deterrence	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Rehabilitation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

New Section

The following questions include facility demographics and personal demographics.

Facility Demographics

Which of the following best describes your facility?

- State Facility
- Federal Facility
- County Jail
- City Jail

What is the average daily population of inmates in your facility?

- Less than 500
- 501-999
- 1000-2499
- 2500 or more

How many employees work in your prison?

- 1-100
- 101-500
- 501-1000
- 1001-1500
- 1501-2000

Approximately, what percentage of employees is sworn/custody?

- 0-5%
- 6-10%
- 11-25%
- 25-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

Approximately, what percentage of employees is civilian/non-custody?

- 0-5%
- 6-10%
- 11-25%

- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

What is the security level of your facility?

- Minimum
- Low
- Medium
- High
- Multiple levels of security

In which state is the facility located? (Please do not provide an address only the state).

Is your institution PREA (Prison Rape Elimination Act) certified?

- Yes
- No

In the year 2020, how many allegations of inmate-on-inmate sexual abuse were received in your institution?

- 0-50
- 51-100
- 101-200
- 201-300
- 301-400
- 401-500
- 501-600
- 601-700
- 701-800
- 801-900
- 901-1000
- 1000+

In the year 2020, how many allegations of inmate-on-inmate sexual abuse were unsubstantiated in your institution?

- 0-50
- 51-100
- 101-200
- 201-300
- 301-400
- 401-500
- 501-600
- 601-700
- 701-800
- 801-900
- 901-1000
- 1000+

In the year 2020, how many allegations of inmate-on-inmate sexual abuse were unfounded in your institution?

- 0-50
- 51-100
- 101-200
- 201-300
- 301-400
- 401-500
- 501-600
- 601-700
- 701-800
- 801-900
- 901-1000
- 1000+

In the year 2020, how many allegations of inmate-on-inmate sexual abuse were substantiated in your institution?

- 51-100
- 101-200
- 201-300
- 301-400
- 401-500
- 501-600
- 601-700
- 701-800
- 801-900
- 901-1000
- 1000+

In the year 2020, how many allegations of staff-on-inmate sexual abuse were received in your institution?

- 0-50
- 51-100
- 101-200
- 201-300
- 301-400
- 401-500
- 501-600
- 601-700
- 701-800
- 801-900
- 901-1000
- 1000+

In the year 2020, how many allegations of staff-on-inmate sexual abuse were unsubstantiated in your institution?

- 0-50
- 51-100

- 201-300
- 301-400
- 401-500
- 501-600
- 601-700
- 701-800
- 801-900
- 901-1000
- 1000+

In the year 2020, how many allegations of staff-on-inmate sexual abuse were unfounded in your institution?

- 0-50
- 51-100
- 101-200
- 201-300
- 301-400
- 401-500
- 501-600
- 601-700
- 701-800
- 801-900
- 901-1000
- 1000+

In the year 2020, how many allegations of staff-on-inmate sexual abuse were substantiated in your institution?

- 0-50
- 51-100
- 101-200
- 201-300
- 301-400

- 401-500
- 501-600
- 601-700
- 701-800
- 801-900
- 901-1000
- 1000+

Does your institution house transgender inmates?

- Yes
- No

Does your institution utilize trauma-informed care or gender-specific curriculum?

- Yes
- No

Personal Demographics

What is your current title?

- Director
- Deputy Director
- Warden/Superintendent
- Other

How many years have you been working in the field of corrections?

- 0-5
- 5-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21-25
- 25-30

- 401-500
- 501-600
- 601-700
- 701-800
- 801-900
- 901-1000
- 1000+

Does your institution house transgender inmates?

- Yes
- No

Does your institution utilize trauma-informed care or gender-specific curriculum?

- Yes
- No

Personal Demographics

What is your current title?

- Director
- Deputy Director
- Warden/Superintendent
- Other

How many years have you been working in the field of corrections?

- 0-5
- 5-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21-25
- 25-30

31+

Within that time, how long have you served as a warden/superintendent?

- Never served
- Served less than one year
- Served one year
- Served 2-5 years
- Served 6-10 years
- Served 10 years or more

What is your age?

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female
- Non-binary / third gender
- Prefer not to say

Which of the following best describes your race/ethnicity?

- American Indian
- Asian
- Black
- Hispanic
- Multi-racial

What is your highest level of education?

- Less than High School
- High School Diploma or Equivalent
- Associate's degree (2 years)
- Bachelor's degree

Master's degree

Doctorate

Feel free to leave any comments or feedback in this section.

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Appendix C. Approval from Mind Garden and Remote Online Use

For use by Wendy Dressler only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on January 25, 2022



www.mindgarden.com

To Whom It May Concern,

The above-named person has made a license purchase from Mind Garden, Inc. and has permission to administer the following copyrighted instrument up to that quantity purchased:

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The three sample items only from this instrument as specified below may be included in your thesis or dissertation. Any other use must receive prior written permission from Mind Garden. The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material. Please understand that disclosing more than we have authorized will compromise the integrity and value of the test.

Citation of the instrument must include the applicable copyright statement listed below.

Sample Items:

As a leader

- I talk optimistically about the future.
- I spend time teaching and coaching.
- I avoid making decisions.

The person I am rating....

- Talks optimistically about the future.
- Spends time teaching and coaching.
- Avoids making decisions

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Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

**Approval for Remote Online Use
of a Mind Garden Instrument**

Effective date is January 27, 2022 for:
Wendy Dressler

VITA

WENDY DRESSLER

Born, Los Angeles,
CA

- 1999-2003 B.S., Criminal
Justice
San Jose State
University
San Jose, CA
- 2003-2005 M.A., Criminal Justice
John Jay College of
Criminal Justice
New York, NY
- 2019 Research Analyst/Research Manager
Private Corrections
Boca Raton, FL
- 2020 Doctoral Candidate
Florida International
University
Miami, FL

PUBLICATIONS

Schofield, D., Dressler, W., Burch, D., Rich, J. (2021). Can physical health risk factors and social characteristics of a community increase the likelihood of recidivism? An examination of 2018 releases from 5 contracted Florida prisons. *Journal of the International Corrections and Prisons Association Edition*, 12-2021, pp. 188-203.

Kakar, S., Dressler, W., Blakeman, B., & Sanchez, C. (2019). *The Hospitality Industry and Sex trafficking: The Mutual Relationship between Hotels and Motels ⇌ Sex Trafficking*. In *Broadening the Scope of Human Trafficking*, 2nd Edition. Durham, NC.

Kakar, S., Blakeman, B., & Dressler, W. (2019). *Statehouse sexual harassment. Sexual Harassment and Misconduct: An Encyclopedia*