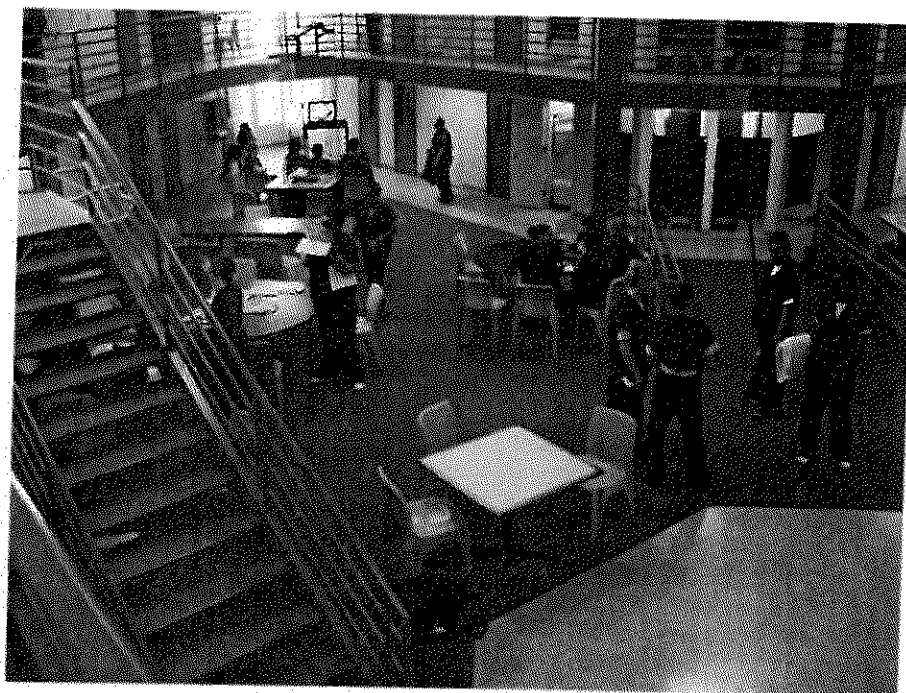


Corrections Personnel Roles and Functions



KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- | | |
|------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|
| Code of Ethics | New old penology |
| Correctional officer | NIC Executive Training Program for New Wardens |
| Corruption | Principles of prison and jail leadership |
| Death penalty | Probation and parole management style |
| Detention as a career path | Supervisors |
| Inappropriate staff-inmate relationships | Typology (of correctional officers) |
| Middle managers | Warden |
| Motivating and retaining personnel | |

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, the student will:

- know in general the duties of prison, jail, and probation and parole administrators and their employees.
- be familiar with the principles of good prison leadership and the training needs of new wardens for them to be successful.
- know the basic responsibilities of prison wardens in carrying out executions
- understand the responsibilities of middle managers and supervisors.
- know the duties and types of correctional officers.
- know the functions of jail administrators.
- be able to explain how jail administrators can motivate and retain jail employees.
- be familiar with probation administrators' management styles.

The mood and temper of the public in regard to the treatment of crime and criminals is one of the most unfailing tests of the civilization of any country.

—WINSTON CHURCHILL

INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the role and functions of personnel who work within correctional institutions and in probation and parole agencies. Presented first is a profile of prison wardens including means of preparing new wardens for the position, principles of good prison leadership, and the administrator's role in carrying out death sentences. Then, we cover the roles of correctional middle managers and supervisors, and following that we examine the front-line personnel in prisons: correctional officers (COs). This section includes a typology of the types of COs in terms of their overall job performance. Then, we consider the "cousins" of prisons, the local jails: the functions of the jail administrator, motivating and retaining jail personnel, and some problems in selecting and keeping people who will want detention work to be their career. Next, we consider administrative functions and management styles as they relate to probation and parole.

Before examining these personnel who work within corrections, it is important to bear in mind that correctional facilities constitute a society within a society; as such, a wide range of personnel are employed therein. As examples, a typical prison employs food service workers, skilled tradesmen (e.g., carpenters and electricians), teachers, secretaries, chaplains, nurses, mental health clinicians, computer technicians, and recreation personnel.

Even more importantly, remember that whether or not one wears a correction officer's uniform, *everyone's* job is to be security oriented. As former corrections administrator Mary Ellen Mastrorilli puts it:

Nurses must double and triple check their syringe counts to ensure that syringes do not end up in the hands of an inmate. Catholic priests must substitute grape juice

for wine when saying Mass, as alcohol is prohibited inside prison walls. Carpenters must carefully account for each and every one of their tools during the work day. A hacksaw in the hands of an inmate can mean a future escape or a deadly assault. Every secretary's desk is home to a pair of scissors or a letter opener, but not so in a prison. A prison chef must keep track of all kitchen utensils, especially cutlery, because metal objects can be easily fashioned into shanks (homemade prison knives).¹

Finally, before discussing corrections administration, we need to mention two basic principles that undergird corrections administration: First, whatever the reasons for which a person is incarcerated, he or she is not to suffer pains beyond the deprivation of liberty—confinement itself is the punishment. Second, regardless of the crime, the prisoner must be treated humanely and in accordance with his or her behavior. Even the most heinous offender is to be treated with respect and dignity and given privileges if institutional behavior warrants it.² Our analysis of institutional management is predicated on these two principles.

PRISONS

The Warden: A Profile

Several guest corrections speakers in the author's justice administration class have stated that the job of prison warden is the most difficult of all in this field³; this assessment is probably true because the warden must take the director's general policies and put them into effect throughout the prison while being responsible for the smooth day-to-day operation of the institution. These correctional executives also oversee the fastest-growing agencies in state government; administer increasingly visible operations; and are held accountable by politicians, auditors, the press, organized labor, and numerous other stakeholders.⁴ Wardens work within a field that has become more demanding, consumes an increasing share of public funds, and involves responsibility for the lives and safety of others.

Of course, both staff and inmates are sensitive to the warden's granting of what each side perceives to be a strengthened position for the other side. For example, if a policy is enacted that gives the staff more power over inmates, the inmates will be unhappy, perhaps even rebellious; conversely, if a policy is put into practice that the staff thinks affords too much additional freedom to inmates, the staff will feel sold out. Furthermore, the prison director, typically appointed by and serving at the pleasure of the state's governor, can exert on the warden all manner of political influences at any time.

A national survey by Kim et al.⁵ of more than 600 male and female prison wardens at adult state prisons provided the following demographic and ideological information: Regional differences account for a great degree of gender difference; in fact, the South employed 21,862 female corrections officers, fully half of the female correctional population in the United States. Of the prison wardens, 85.9 percent were men and 14.1 percent were women. The mean age of all wardens was 47 years, about 47.6 years for men and 44.9 years for women. The majority (81.3 percent) were white, with 70.8 percent being white men; African American men made up 11.8 percent. White women made up 10.4 percent and African American women 3.0 percent. A large proportion of the respondents had experience as COs (57.6 percent) or treatment officers (62.6 percent). Almost half of the male wardens (49.1 percent) had some military experience, compared with only 7.5 percent of the female wardens. Almost half

6. Successful leaders are in office long enough to understand and, as necessary, modify the organization's internal operations and external relations. DiIulio used the terms *flies*, *fatalists*, *foot soldiers*, and *founders*. The flies come and go unnoticed and are inconsequential. Fatalists also serve brief terms, always complaining about the futility of incarceration and the hopelessness of correctional reform. The foot soldiers serve long terms, often inheriting their job from a fly or fatalist, and make consequential improvements whenever they can. Founders either create an agency or reorganize it in a major and positive way.

To summarize, to "old" penologists, prison administrators were admirable public servants, inmates were to be restricted, and any form of self-government was eschewed. To "new" penologists, prison administrators are loathsome and evil, inmates are responsible victims, and complete self-government is the ideal. DiIulio called for a **new old penology**, or a shift of attention from the society of captives to the government of keepers. He asserted that tight administrative control is more conducive than loose administrative control to decent prison conditions. This approach, he added, will "push administrators back to the bar of attention," treating them at least as well as their charges.¹⁷

Administering the Death Penalty

One of the major responsibilities of prison administrators, in 36 states and in federal prisons, is to carry out the **death penalty**. By law, the warden or a representative presides over the execution.

To minimize the possibility of error, executions are carried out by highly trained teams. The mechanics of the process have been broken down into several discrete tasks and are practiced repeatedly. During the actual death watch—the 24-hour period that ends with the prisoner's execution—a member of the execution team is with the prisoner at all times. During the last 5 or 6 hours, two officers are assigned to guard the prisoner. The prisoner then showers, dons a fresh set of clothes, and is placed in an empty tomb-like death cell. The warden reads the court order or death warrant. Meanwhile, official witnesses—normally 6 to 12 citizens—are prepared for their role. The steps that are taken from this point to perform the execution depend on the method of execution that is used.¹⁸

Lethal injection is the predominant method of execution, and is employed in all 36 states and in federal prisons; nine states authorize electrocution, four states authorize lethal gas, three states authorize hanging, and three states authorize firing squad (17 states authorize more than one method).¹⁹

Approximately 3,300 prisoners are now under sentence of death in the United States; 56 percent are white, 42 percent are black, and 2 percent are of other races; 47 (about 1.4 percent) are women.²⁰

Recently, the U.S. Supreme Court rendered two significant decisions concerning the death penalty: In *Roper v. Simmons* (March 2005), the Court abolished the death penalty for convicted murderers who were less than 18 years of age when they committed their crimes; this decision ended a practice used in 19 states and affected about 70 death-row inmates who were juveniles when they committed murder. In *Atkins v. Virginia* (June 2002), the Court held that the execution of mentally retarded persons—which was permissible in 20 states—constituted cruel and unusual punishment.²¹

Achieving Racial Balance

The rapid growth of the inmate population, increased oversight by the federal courts, increased demands from the public, and a change in the demographic composition of the inmate population

(more African American and Hispanic prisoners) all have presented wardens with a new set of challenges. As a result, half of all wardens in maximum-security prisons now have a policy on racially integrating male inmates within prison cells to try to achieve racial balance. Similarly, about 40 percent of these wardens do not allow their inmates to object to their cell assignments.²²

Middle Managers and Supervisors

Chapter 4 examined in detail the roles of *police* supervisors and managers. It would be repetitious to dwell at length here on those roles and functions because most of them apply to *corrections* supervisors and managers as well. The reader is encouraged to review those roles and functions in Chapter 4.

Clearly, **supervisors** have one of the most demanding positions in correctional institutions. They must direct work activities, assign tasks, provide employee feedback, and serve as technical experts for the staff reporting to them. They serve as boss, adviser, counselor, mentor, coach, trainer, and motivator.

Middle managers, although not on the front lines, are also in challenging and important positions. They are responsible for organizing their departments, planning and developing goals and objectives, overseeing the efficient use of resources, and developing effective communication networks throughout the organization.

"Thy Brother's Keeper": COs

Subordinate to the institutional administrator, middle managers, and supervisors is the correctional staff itself—those who, in the words of Gordon Hawkins, are "the other prisoners."²³ Their role is particularly important, given that they provide the front-line supervision and control of inmates and constitute the level from which correctional administrators may be chosen.

In most assignments, COs can experience stimulus overload. They are assailed with the sounds of "doors clanging; inmates talking or shouting; radios and televisions playing; and food trays banging; and odors representing an institutional blend of food, urine, paint, disinfectant, and sweat."²⁴

A Typology of COs

COs play an influential role in the lives of many inmates because of their direct and prolonged interaction. They are also responsible for creating and maintaining a humane environment in prisons and jails.

Mary Ann Farkas²⁵ categorized COs into five types—rule enforcer, hard liner, people worker, synthetic officer, and loner—based on their orientation toward rule enforcement, extent of mutual obligations with colleagues, orientation toward negotiation or exchange with inmates, and desire to incorporate human service activities into their approach. Farkas added three residual types that were identified by respondents in her study: officer friendly, lax officer, and wishy-washy. These eight types in this **CO typology** are discussed next.

Rule enforcers, about 43 percent of COs, are the most common type in Farkas's sample. They are characterized as rule bound and inflexible in discipline and have an esprit de corps with others sharing their enforcement philosophy. They are more likely than other COs to be less than 25 years old and to have a baccalaureate degree; they tend to have less work experience and to work the evening or night shift. They typically work on posts involving direct inmate contact such as the regular housing units and in maximum-security or segregation units. They are more

likely to have entered corrections for extrinsic reasons, including job security, benefits, and job availability. They have a militaristic approach to inmates, expecting deference to their authority and obedience to their orders. Rule enforcers are not willing to negotiate or use exchange as a strategy to gain inmate compliance.²⁶

The *hard liners* are actually a subtype and an extreme version of the rule enforcers. They are hard, aggressive, power hungry, and inflexible in applying rules and possess little interpersonal skill. These officers are also more likely to be men, with a high school education or GED, and between the ages of 26 and 36 years. They also tend to work later shifts and in maximum-security or segregation units, and they endorse militaristic values and distinction and deference to rank and the chain of command. At times, they may become abusive and aggressive toward inmates and perceive acting tough as the way a CO is supposed to act to maintain control and order.²⁷

People workers (22 percent of COs) are characterized as "professionals trying to be social, responsible, and trying their very best." They have a more comfortable style with inmates, are more flexible in rule enforcement and disciplinary measures, use their own informal reward and punishment system, and believe that the way to gain inmate compliance is through interpersonal communication and personalized relations. They regard overreliance on conduct reports as an indication of one's inability to resolve difficult situations. They often discuss issues privately with inmates instead of embarrassing them in front of peers. They are concerned with conflict resolution, relying on verbal skills in defusing situations, enjoy the challenge of working with inmates, and prefer the posts with more inmate contact.²⁸ [Certainly COs provide informal counseling; they are trained to be fair, yet firm in rule enforcement; expected to de-escalate situations when an inmate becomes agitated; and to work in a courteous, respectful, and professional manner. Each of these expectations are examples of informal counseling and advance the notion of rehabilitation.]

The *synthetic officers* (14 percent) are essentially a synthesis of the rule enforcer and the people worker types. They are typically older (37 years of age or more), more experienced officers who work in regular inmate housing units on the day shift. Synthetic officers try to modify the formal policies and procedures to emphasize organizational directives and interpersonal skills. They follow rules and regulations closely, yet they try to consider the circumstances. They are careful not to deviate too far from procedure, however, which might cause sanctions for themselves. Strict enforcement of rules and flexibility in enforcement are juggled in their interactions with inmates.²⁹

Loners (8 percent) are also similar to rule enforcers but differ in the motivation behind their policy of strict enforcement. Loners closely follow rules and regulations because they fear criticism of their performance. Farkas believes that female and black officers are more likely to be of this type. Loners are likely to be between the ages of 26 and 36 years, to be less experienced COs, and to work on solitary posts. They believe their job performance is more closely watched because of their female and/or minority status, and need to constantly prove themselves. They do not feel accepted by other officers, nor do they identify with them. They are wary of inmates. There is a basic mistrust, even fear, of working with inmates.³⁰

To summarize, age and seniority are associated with officer types. Rule enforcers and hard liners tend to be younger, less experienced COs, whereas older, more experienced officers belong to the people worker or synthetic officer categories. Generally, as officers mature, they become more interested in service delivery.

Although one might assume that more educated officers are inclined toward rehabilitation and are less punitive or aggressive toward inmates, Farkas found that rule enforcers were more likely to hold baccalaureate or master's degrees; she suggested that education may not be a strong

indicator of human service attitudes.³¹ Considerable evidence suggests that higher education may lead to lower job satisfaction. One observer noted that "except for the somewhat disappointing finding that COs with more education are less satisfied with their jobs, the overall picture shows that education is not related to any attitudinal variable examined thus far."³² Other studies have determined that as officers' educational level increased, so did their desire to become administrators, the less likely they were to feel a sense of accomplishment working as COs or to want to make a career of corrections, the more likely they were to express dissatisfaction with the pace of career advancement, and the more interest they had in counseling,³³ but the less willing they were to engage in rehabilitation activities.³⁴

Shift and work assignment also affect COs' orientation—the more custodial types of officers work in later shifts because they are newer officers and are more likely to work on units with more difficult inmates (such as maximum security, segregation, or units for inmates with behavioral problems). Finally, the reason for becoming a CO is related to officer type: People workers are attracted to intrinsic factors of correctional work because of its interesting and challenging aspects. Rule enforcers and hard liners become officers for extrinsic reasons: job security and benefits of state employment and job availability.

These CO typologies are actually modes of accommodation or adaptation to the organizational factors of the correctional institutions, including overcrowded conditions, more troublesome inmates, and a more litigious environment.³⁵

Managing Corruption

Certainly most COs are decent, hard-working people; however, as with any profession, there will be a few such persons who come into this work and who are unethical—either by "nature or nurture"—and thus cause problems. Prison and jail **corruption** differs from other forms of public corruption because of the uniqueness of the environment, function, opportunities, and patterns of relationships of correctional institutions. Prison and jail personnel must control a reluctant, resistant, and sometimes hostile inmate population whose welfare—and comfortable lifestyle, by their standards—may seem better served by corruption than by honest compliance with prison rules; a culture of manipulation and violence may ensue.

The Preamble of the American Correctional Association **Code of Ethics** states that members of the association should have "unfailing honesty, respect for the dignity and individuality of human beings, and a commitment to professionalism and compassionate service."³⁶ According to noted criminal justice ethicist Sam Souryal,³⁷ public corruption is ostensibly a learned behavior; no one is born corrupt, and assuming correctional applicants are carefully scrutinized prior to employment, the logical explanation must be that COs learn corruption in the course of performing their job. And, if this is a plausible explanation, then ensuring a work environment that is conducive to an ethical work culture is essential. Souryal described the following three general categories of prison corruption:

1. **Acts of misfeasance.** These are illegitimate acts more likely committed by high-ranking officials who knowingly allow contractual indiscretions that would undermine the public interest and benefit them personally. It can also involve outsiders—a building firm, a group of consultants, a planning and research agency, and a law firm hired to defend the agency—who are associated with the correctional facility through a political or professional appointment.
2. **Acts of malfeasance.** These are criminal acts or acts of misconduct that officials knowingly commit in violation of state laws and/or agency rules and regulations. Such violations are usually committed by officials at the lower or middle management levels. Acts that might

fall in this category include theft; embezzlement; trafficking in contraband; extortion; official oppression; and the exploitation of inmates or their families for money, goods, or services.

3. **Acts of nonfeasance.** These are acts of omission or avoidance knowingly committed by officials who are responsible for carrying out such acts. Examples would include looking the other way when narcotics are smuggled into a prison by inmates or visitors, and failure to report misconduct by other officers out of personal loyalty.³⁸

To counter the existence of such acts, Souryal recommends that correctional administrators implement the following anticorruption measures:

1. **Upgrade the quality of correctional personnel.** The entry-level pay for COs must be competitive. Correctional administrators should ensure that their hiring standards are competitive enough to attract qualified applicants yet high enough to keep high-risk applicants away from employment. Psychological testing should also be used to check the character of those who are selected, and interviews should be conducted by a hiring board prior to appointment.
2. **Establish quality-based supervisory techniques.** Supervisors should realize that loyalty to moral principles is more durable than loyalty to individuals, and understand that although trivial and insignificant policy violations can be justified, serious transgressions must be earnestly reported. Quality-based supervisors are expected to possess the professional wisdom to be able to know which matter is trivial and which is serious, without being told.
3. **Strengthen fiscal controls.** Most acts of prison corruption involve the illegal acquisition of money. Therefore, establishing financial controls is an effective tool for checking corruption in correctional institutions and involves the proper conduct of preaudit and postaudit controls. Experienced internal auditors can determine whether bidding procedures are followed, expenditure ceilings are observed, and purchase vouchers are issued for the exact objects.
4. **Emphasize true ethical training.** If correctional leaders truly want their subordinates to act professionally, to pursue integrity, fidelity, and obligation and to shun corruption, they should support and increase such training. Doing otherwise would signal that the subject is unimportant.³⁹

Staff-Inmate Relationships

Despite formal policies prohibiting familiarity between inmates and prison staff employees, infractions occur that range from serious (e.g., love affairs) to minor (e.g., giving or receiving candy or soft drinks to/from an inmate). Contemporary prisons are no longer sexually segregated, and female security officers work in male institutions. This situation allows different types of **inappropriate staff-inmate relationships** to occur. Worley et al.⁴⁰ found three types of "turners"—offenders identified as developing inappropriate relationships with staff members:

1. **Heartbreakers.** They seek to form an emotional bond with a staff member, which can even lead to marriage; they generally act alone and may spend several months courting a staff member.
2. **Exploiters.** They use an employee as a means of obtaining contraband or fun and excitement; they usually act with the help of other inmates, are very manipulative, and are likely to use a "lever" (intimidation) on prison employees.
3. **Hell raisers.** These inmates engage in a unique kind of psychological warfare, and simply want to cause trouble and create hell for the prison system. They often have a long history

of personal involvement and form relationships as a way to create problems or disruptions. They thrive on putting staff members in situations wherein their jobs are compromised and enjoy the notoriety that follows the exposure of their relationship. They focus on staff members (e.g., secretaries; trustees have even become involved with staff members' spouses) rather than security officers.

Worley et al. point out that such behaviors are not the norm in penal environments; nevertheless, prison administrators must understand that offenders are very persistent in initiating interactions with employees for a variety of reasons.⁴¹

JAIL PERSONNEL

About 785,000 individuals are incarcerated in local jails in the United States, either awaiting trial or serving a sentence;⁴² furthermore, about 266,000 people are employed in local jails.⁴³ Jails represent the point of entry into the criminal justice system. Although prisons hold persons who have committed felonies and have been sentenced to at least 1 year in prison, jails hold persons who are arrested and booked for criminal activity or are waiting for a court appearance if they cannot arrange bail, as well as those who are serving sentences of up to 1 year for misdemeanors. Jails also temporarily hold felons whose convictions are on appeal or who are awaiting transfer to a state prison.

Perhaps one of the most neglected areas in criminal justice research concerns individuals who are employed in local jails; what limited studies have been performed generally focus on the conditions of confinement. Jail personnel—such as police and prison employees—often must work in an environment that is potentially unstable, uncertain, and unsafe. Therefore, it would be beneficial for jail administrators to become knowledgeable about why people choose to work in local jails, as well as jail employee job satisfaction and turnover, discussed below.

Jail Administrators' Functions

Because of their responsibilities, changes in structure and function, and shifts in inmate populations (as discussed in Chapter 9), today's jails warrant being recognized and operated as professional institutions—rather than an adjunct to, or an *ad hoc* appendage (most of them being administered by a county sheriff, in the sheriff's department). The jail administrator should be a full-time professional, capable of handling multiple roles internal and external to the jail. Therefore, according to a federal report, jail administrators must function as the jail's *leader*, as the *manager* of its operations and resources, and as its *supervisor*.⁴⁴ Exhibit 10.1 discusses these three roles in more depth.

EXHIBIT 10.1

The Sheriff's Roles in Effective Jail Operations

As a leader, the sheriff

- helps define the jail's mission and the goals that must be met to achieve that mission.
- creates a sheriff's office executive management team that includes the jail administrator as an equal member.
- builds a culture within the jail division that supports the attainment of desired outcomes.

- serves as liaison to the external environment (i.e., the local criminal justice system, special interest groups, stakeholders, the community, and the media).
- influences and develops public policy supporting the agency mission.
- creates and maintains a competent and diverse workforce.

As a manager, the sheriff

- mentors and coaches the jail administrator and other staff to elicit desired behaviors and develop talent.
- ensures that policies and procedures that meet professional standards are established to guide the staff and the organization in day-to-day operations.
- motivates the jail administrator and other staff to align their personal goals with those of the jail.
- provides thorough written directives and training on those directives.
- monitors activities and assesses results by collecting and analyzing performance data on a regular basis.
- manages and allocates budgets, staff, and other resources.
- manages the organization's preparation for and response to crisis situations and emergencies.

As a supervisor, the sheriff

- stays informed about day-to-day operations in the jail and is visible and available to assist when necessary.
- monitors compliance with policies, standards, and legal requirements through the establishment of a systematic internal inspection and review process.
- supports and facilitates the jail administrator's efforts to redirect underperformers and address misconduct of jail staff.
- monitors the jail administrator's performance through regular reviews and quality assessment.

Source: Based on Mark D. Martin and Paul Katsampes, *Sheriff's Guide to Effective Jail Operations* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Corrections, 2006), pp. 5–6.

Motivating and Retaining Jail Personnel

Current economic conditions allow sheriffs and jail administrators to heave a small sigh of relief, with their staff largely remaining in their secure government positions, and the demand to fill vacancies is now subsiding. However, in addition to job satisfaction, discussed below, the emphasis has now shifted to *retaining* current staff. Today's greatest retention challenge is not how to reduce turnover, but rather to create a deep, unified commitment to the organizational vision.⁴⁵ Put another way, serious succession planning (discussed concerning police personnel, in Chapter 5) concerns how to inspire future leaders who will maintain the passion when the torch is passed to them.

A national survey of more than 2,000 line staff and nearly 600 administrators sought to determine how to best go about doing so. The results provided both good and bad news for sheriffs in terms of retention and motivation, whereas some of the findings also debunked many commonly held myths about jail employment:⁴⁶

- Jail employment was not the job of "last resort"—only 13 percent of staff said they had no other employment options when they accepted the jail's offer.
- Most staff rated their jail as a good (45 percent) or an excellent (20 percent) place to work.

- Fifty-nine percent of jail staff described themselves as “very committed” to the agency where they work, and this finding held among various generations of employees.
- Among line staff, 77 percent would recommend their jail as a good place to work; 75 percent indicated that they are proud to work there.
- Most staff members (63 percent) and administrators (66 percent) reported that they “almost never” think about quitting.
- Nearly seven in 10 (69 percent) staff members felt appreciated by their supervisor, and believed that they are recognized when they do good work (64 percent).⁴⁷

These findings indicate that jails as workplaces are not actually as grim as they are often portrayed. Still, the survey points to the need for jail administrators to strengthen the jail as a workplace, using some or all of the following approaches:

- Develop consistent, two-way communication up and down the chain-of-command. Particularly with the newer generations of employees in the workplace, this is nonnegotiable. Whether occurring informally or through formal (e.g., Internet/Intranet means, hard-copy newsletters, staff surveys, employee councils), it must be ongoing.
- Provide opportunities for growth and development. There are many low cost and free means by which organizations can provide opportunities for employee growth and development—which can keep good employees engaged and committed to the organization.
- Integrate employees through participatory management practices. Provide job experiences that broaden their knowledge, listen to their creative ideas, and gain their commitment. Ongoing encouragement, mentoring, and coaching are all strategies to enhance the value of employees to the organization.
- Establish quality, responsive supervision: New supervisors must meet the emerging expectations of newer-generation workers for mentors, and be involved with the employee’s needs and personal career development goals.
- Publicly express personal recognition and appreciation. A staff recognition initiative demonstrates the agency’s commitment to employees of all age groups. This appreciation starts with supervisors and may end with public ceremonies acknowledging the best employees and honoring the work they do.
- Inspire professional pride. Three-fourths of line staff surveyed report they are proud to work for their agency, which means that 25 percent are not. Employees must feel they are a part of a “bigger picture,” and when they have positive interactions within the organization and the community they serve.
- Assure adequate compensation. Jail salaries should be reviewed to assure parity with their law enforcement counterparts. Jail work is often undervalued and tends to be undercompensated. This can contribute to employee turnover and the perception that the jail is a stepping stone to other employment.⁴⁸

In line with these studies, Lambert and Paoline⁴⁹ examined the reasons for turnover among jail staff, allowing jail administrators to better predict employees’ staying power. First, they found that longevity on the job was not related to turnover intent; the longer an individual was with the organization, the less likely he/she indicated a desire to leave. Supervisors were also less likely to express a desire to leave. Conversely, staff members with college degrees were *more* likely to express a desire to leave. Not surprisingly, job attitude, involvement, satisfaction, and organizational commitment were also strongly related to turnover intent: those persons who were more involved in their work and who liked their jobs were less likely to want to quit. As job satisfaction

and organizational commitment increased, turnover intent dropped. Significantly, job attitude accounted for more than five times the amount of turnover intent than did the personal characteristics. The results indicated that jail administrators need to focus on increasing the job involvement, satisfaction, and organizational commitment of their employees, and focus on making changes in the work environment to facilitate improved job attitudes.

A Few Comments on "Jail First" Policies and Detention as a Career Path

A "jail first" policy is where sheriffs' offices require that recruits first work in the jail—often for several years—before they can become eligible for patrol duties. Such policies can result in jail administrators having considerable difficulty in recruiting and keeping people for jail duties, and can also result in high employee attrition due to low job satisfaction (deputies going elsewhere to do "real" police work out on patrol). Jail administrators may wish to re-examine this policy and try to create a culture that values detention work. In addition to thus establishing **detention as a career path**—where one can choose to remain in detention, be promoted within it, and, it is hoped, eventually retire from it—jail administrators can encourage their recruiters to emphasize the "big picture," for example, that only about 20 percent of a deputy's 20-year career would be spent working in detention, with the remaining 80 percent would be spent as a road deputy.

Employee Training

Jail administrators and employees need to be thoroughly trained in all aspects of their job. Jail workers have been criticized for being untrained and apathetic, although most are highly effective and dedicated. One observer wrote that

personnel is still the number one problem of jails. Start paying decent salaries and developing decent training and you can start to attract bright young people to jobs in jails. If you don't do this, you'll continue to see the issue of personnel as the number one problem for the next 100 years.⁵⁰

Training should be provided on the booking process; inmate management and security; general liability issues; policies related to AIDS; problems of inmates addicted to alcohol and other drugs; communication and security technology; and issues concerning suicide, mental health problems, and medication.

PROBATION AND PAROLE OFFICERS

Primary Duties

Probation and parole officers must possess important skills similar to those of a prison caseworker, such as good interpersonal communication, decision making, and writing skills. They operate independently, with less supervision than most prison staff. These officers are trained in the techniques for supervising offenders and then assigned a caseload. Probation and parole officers supervise inmates at the two ends of the sentencing continuum (incarceration being in the middle). Probation officers supervise offenders with a suspended sentence, monitoring their behavior in the community and their compliance with the conditions of their probation, and suspended prison sentence. Parole officers supervise inmates who have been conditionally released from prison and returned to their community. These officers report violations of the

conditions of offenders' release to the body that authorized their community placement and placed conditions on their behavior (the court for probation and the parole board for parole).⁵¹

To Arm or Not to Arm?

Whether probation and parole officers should be armed continues to be an oft-debated topic in corrections. The debate revolves around whether a probation or parole officer can effectively perform traditional duties while armed. Traditionalists believe that carrying a firearm contributes to an atmosphere of distrust between the client and the officer; enforcement-oriented officers, conversely, view a firearm as an additional tool to protect themselves from the risk associated with violent, serious, or high-risk offenders.⁵²

Officers must make home and employment visits in the neighborhoods in which offenders live; some of these areas are not safe, and officers must often inform offenders that they will be recommending their parole or probation revocation, which could result in imprisonment. Most probation and parole agencies believe that if officers carry weapons, they are perceived differently from counselors or advisers who guide offenders into treatment and self-help programs. Over the past two decades, there has been a move from casework to surveillance by officers; however, the caseloads include more dangerous offenders.

There is no standard policy for these agencies regarding weapons, and officers themselves are not in agreement about being armed. Some states classify probation and parole officers as peace officers and grant them the authority to carry a firearm both on and off duty.⁵³ Some authors believe that officers should not be required to carry a firearm if they are opposed to arming, and that providing an option allows for a better officer/assignment match.⁵⁴ In sum, it would seem that the administrator's decision concerning arming should focus on need, officer safety, and local laws and policies.

Probation Management Styles

Patricia Hardyman's study of probation administrators focused on their **probation management style**—this style being the fundamental determinant of the nature of the probation organization—and was instructive in describing the impact of this style on the department's operation. Few departments, even those with a hierarchical organizational structure, had a pure management style; administrators vacillated among a variety of styles, including laissez faire, democratic, and authoritarian. The degree to which administrators included the probation officers in the decision-making process and communicated with officers varied. Authoritarian administrators created emotional and physical distance between the officers and themselves. Surprisingly, the most common management style used by probation administrators was laissez faire.⁵⁵

Hardyman found that many probation administrators simply did not participate in the day-to-day activities and supervision strategies of the staff. They remained remote but made final decisions on critical policies and procedures.⁵⁶ Hardyman also found that few probation administrators across the country operated with the democratic style. Those who did, of course, listened more to the concerns and suggestions of the line supervisors and officers. The administrator still made the final decisions, but information was generally sought from the line staff and their opinions were considered. Officers working under administrators with this style had a greater sense that their opinions mattered and that the administrator valued their input. An additional benefit of the democratic style was that the administrators had power by virtue of both their position and their charisma, which inspired teamwork and task accomplishment.⁵⁷

Summary

This chapter examined the criminal justice employees who work in correctional institutions and probation and parole agencies, with particular emphasis placed on administrators. Certainly, as noted in this chapter, substantial pressures are now placed on these administrators by the external and internal environments. They must maintain a secure environment while attempting to offer some treatment to their clients, who should not leave incarceration or

probation/parole in a much worse condition than when they entered. At the same time, another increasingly difficult challenge is that these administrators must constantly strive to maintain a competent, dedicated, noncorrupt workforce that will also uphold the primary tenets of incarceration: providing a secure environment while ensuring that inmates are treated with respect and dignity.

Questions for Review

1. What is meant by the term *new old penology*?
2. What are the different responsibilities of the warden and other prison administrators?
3. According to DiIulio, what are some major principles of successful prison administration?
4. What are some of the major problems encountered by prison or jail employees?
5. What are the types of COs, per Farkas? How do age, length of service, type of assignment, and education affect where one fits in this typology?
6. What are the means by which corrections personnel can become corrupted, and what can their administrators do to address and prevent it?
7. What are the three types of inmates who engage in inappropriate relationships with correctional staff members?
8. What are the functions of middle managers and supervisors in jails and prisons (see Chapter 3 if necessary)?
9. How would you describe the prison warden and his or her role? What kinds of training and education are necessary for a new warden to succeed?
10. What are the primary roles of the jail administrator?
11. Why are advantages and disadvantages of having, in effect, two career tracks in jails: a detention track and a patrol track? What can jail administrators do to foster careers and improve job satisfaction in the jail or detention side?

Learn by Doing

1. Most, if not all, of us has had to work in a position where we were supervised. Using DiIulio's "Six Principles of Good Prison Leadership," identify a supervisor you either worked for directly or were able to observe and discuss how this person measured up in his/her leadership skills. Also, discuss one of DiIulio's traits of leadership you would implement were you in a leadership position.
2. Your criminal justice honor society is planning a noon forum/debate concerning capital punishment. Your role will be to discuss the problems that exist with prison wardens administering the death penalty, as well as whether or not the recruitment of wardens is limited if one of their position requirements is the ability to supervise use of the death penalty.
3. You are a well-known jail consultant and have been hired by a medium-sized county to examine its jail operations. One observation you quickly make concerns its pattern of recruitment and hiring of personnel: a newly hired deputy, upon completion of required academy training, is automatically assigned to work in the jail. Then, perhaps several years later, as he or she gains seniority and a position becomes available, application may be made for a transfer to the patrol division. What would seem to be the advantages of such an arrangement? Disadvantages? What would you recommend is needed in order to establish a career path for correctional workers in the jail?
4. As part of your criminal justice department's annual "Career Day" program, you are to discuss the general roles of prison COs and jailers as well as the primary differences between probation and parole officers. What will be in your oral report?

Related Websites

American Correctional Association

<http://www.aca.org>

American Probation and Parole Association (APPA)

<http://www.appa-net.org>

Death Penalty Focus

<http://www.deathpenalty.org>

Death Penalty Information System (DPIC)

<http://www.deathpenaltyinfo.org>

National Coalition to Abolish the Death Penalty (NCADP)

<http://www.ncadp.org>

National Sheriffs Association

<http://www.sheriffs.org/>

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