CORRECTIONAL PSYCHOLOGIST BURNOUT, JOB
SATISFACTION, AND LIFE SATISFACTION

by

AVEN SENTER, B.A., M.A.

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Approved

Robert Morgan
Chairperson of the Committee

Erin Hardin

Darcy Reich

Steven Richards

Accepted

John Borrelli
Dean of the Graduate School

December, 2006

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ABSTRACT

Research suggests the correctional work environment is stressful. Since much of the literature has focused on correctional officers, there are only three existing studies that have examined correctional psychologist job satisfaction. These studies suggest correctional psychologists are dissatisfied with various aspects of their jobs, such as administrative responsibilities, limited opportunities for advancement, and lack of influence with decision-making. Much of the literature on correctional psychologists surveyed their work-place activities and assessed job satisfaction with non-standardized measures. Although these seminal studies were instrumental in highlighting areas of concern for correctional psychologists, they did not comprehensively examine these issues with a high degree of empiricism.

This study utilized standardized instruments to assess the constructs of burnout, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction of correctional psychologists relative to other public service and counseling center psychologists. Data were collected from 203 doctoral level psychologists working full-time in the following settings: 44 were employed in Criminal Justice (CJ) settings, 56 were employed in Veteran's Affairs (VA) settings, 49 were employed in Counseling Center (CC) settings, and 54 were employed in Public Psychiatric Hospital (PPH) settings.

Preliminary analyses using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Chi Square procedures were conducted to compare differences in continuous and categorical demographic variables, respectively. The only notable difference in psychologist groups

was job tenure, which was entered as a covariate in subsequent analyses. Several multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) procedures were utilized for the main analyses. Lastly, a series of simple linear regression (SLR) procedures were utilized to assess for the influence of predictor variables.

Overall, each group of psychologists generally reported low to moderate levels of burnout, moderate levels of job satisfaction, and high levels of life satisfaction. However, psychologists working in correctional settings reported significantly more burnout relative to VA and counseling center psychologists. Psychologists working in correctional and public psychiatric hospital settings also reported significantly lower job satisfaction than counseling center psychologists. Additionally, psychologists working in public psychiatric hospital settings reported significantly lower life satisfaction than VA and counseling center psychologists. Lastly, professional identity related to the occupational setting emerged as a significant predictor of the level of psychologist burnout.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Several researchers have found long term and direct contact with patients is associated with stress and burnout (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). These adverse effects are more problematic among workers in the health and social service fields (Pines & Maslach, 1978). Correctional facilities employ workers representing several occupations, including the medical and mental health disciplines. The following review describes the correctional environment and the effects of institutional and demographic variables on correctional worker stress, burnout, and job satisfaction. Additionally, a discussion of the occupational issues confronting correctional mental health professionals, including psychologists, is provided. A brief summary and explanation of the purpose of this study will follow. Lastly, the research questions and hypotheses for this study are provided. For an extended review of the literature, please see Appendix A.

Corrections

Correctional facilities have been described as unique and dangerous work settings (Hawk, 1997). Several key statistics illustrate the current status of the inmate population. There are slightly more than two million inmates incarcerated in American federal, state, and local correctional institutions (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2004). Between the years 1990 and 1995, the ratio of inmates to security staff increased from 4.2-to-1 to 4.6-to-1

(Finn, 2000) along with a nearly 33% increase in the number of inmate assaults on correctional staff (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2004). Along with this inmate growth, approximately 16% of state inmates, 7% of federal inmates, and 16% of jail offenders have a mental illness (Ditton, 1999).

Correctional officers are charged with enforcing institutional security and preventing inmates from escaping (Davis, 2002; Wicks, 1980). As such, they experience the most direct contact with inmates due to their custody responsibilities (Culliver, Sigler, & McNeely, 1991). Employment as a correctional officer has been associated with higher rates of hypertension, heart disease, and ulcers (Cheek & Miller, 1982), high employee turnover (Finn, 1998), increased substance abuse (Svenson, Jarvis, & Campbell, 1995), and high absenteeism (Brodsky, 1982; Cheek & Miller, 1982; Harenstam, Palm, & Theorell, 1988). Additionally, correctional officers report lower job satisfaction (Cullen, Link, Cullen, & Wolfe, 1990), and a 39% increased risk of suicide than other workers (Stack & Tsoudis, 1996). Several researchers found the correctional work environment to be stressful for officers (Cheek & Miller, 1983; Finn, 2000; Huckabee, 1992; Lasky, Gordon, & Srebalus, 1986).

The effects of institutional factors on correctional officer stress have been examined. Researchers found shift work (Hughes & Zamble, 1993), personal safety (Brodsky, 1982; Grossi & Berg, 1991; Long & Voges, 1987; Shamir & Drory, 1982; Triplett, Millings, & Scarborough, 1996), security level (Cullen, Link, Wolfe, & Frank, 1985; Van Voorhis, Cullen, Link, & Wolfe, 1991), work overload (Dignam, Barrera, & West, 1986; Shamir & Drory, 1982; Triplett, et al., 1996), and inmate contact (Cheek &

Miller, 1983; Saylor & Wright, 1992) to be associated with correctional officer work-related stress. Other institutional conditions associated with correctional officer stress included role conflict (Cheek & Miller, 1983; Dignam, Barrera, & West, 1986; Shamir & Drory, 1982; Whitehead & Lindquist, 1986), overcrowding (Brodsky, 1982; Cheek & Miller, 1982), understaffing (Brodsky, 1982; Finn, 1998), and lack of participation in decision-making (Lasky, Gordon, & Srebalus, 1986; Rutter & Fielding, 1988).

There have been inconsistent results among several of the aforementioned institutional effects. Some researchers have found no relationship between shift work and stress (Van Voorhis et al., 1991) or burnout (Morgan, et al., 2002). Others have demonstrated no relationship between security level and stress (Lasky et al., 1986), burnout (Morgan et al., 2002), or job satisfaction (Hepburn & Albonetti, 1980). Moreover, Morgan et al. (2002) found inmate contact was unrelated to burnout. When reviewing these inconsistent results, it should be noted that much of this research was conducted with different samples of correctional officers (i.e., state and federal) and many studies utilized non-standardized measures. Therefore, the resulting discrepant results might be due to differences in research methodology.

Along with studying the effects of institutional conditions on correctional personnel, researchers have examined the effects of demographic variables as well. Unfortunately, much of the research on the effects of employee demographic variables on correctional officer stress has yielded inconsistent results. Several studies found job tenure to be associated with correctional officer stress (Dollard & Winefield, 1995; Grossi & Berg 1991; Lasky et al, 1986; Saylor & Wright, 1992; Triplett et al., 1996, Van

Voorhis et al., 1991), whereas other studies found tenure to be unrelated to stress (Dignam et al., 1986; Gerstein, Topp, & Correll, 1987; Shamir & Drory, 1982). The studies that found no relationship between tenure and stress were conducted in the 1980's; whereas, studies demonstrating a relationship were primarily conducted in the 1990's. This discrepancy might suggest that tenure has become more associated with stress in recent years.

Some researchers have demonstrated no relationship between age and officer stress (Triplett et al., 1996; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). However, other researchers found that older officers experienced more stress (Gerstein et al., 1987) and others studies found that younger officers experience more stress and burnout (Lindquist & Whitehead, 1986). Similarly, Morgan et al. (2002) found older officers were more likely to report stronger feelings of personal accomplishment than younger officers. It could be that older officers report greater stress than younger officers due to increased job responsibilities associated with greater rank (i.e., captain). However, these older officers might report less burnout because of a greater ability to garner peer support (Van Voorhis et al., 1991), which might buffer the contributing effects of stress on burnout.

Similar inconsistent results have been found with regard to gender, race, and education. Where some researchers found female correctional officers experience more work related stress (Cullen, et al., 1985; Zupan, 1986), others have demonstrated no significant gender differences (Triplett, et al., 1996; Walters, 1992). Some researchers have found Caucasian officers experience more stress than minority officers (Blau Light, & Chamlin, 1986; Britton, 1997; Cullen et al. 1985; Jurik & Winn, 1987; Wright &

Saylor, 1992). Conversely, Morgan et al. (2002) found no significant racial differences on correctional officer burnout, and Triplett et al. (1996) found no racial differences on work-related stress. Morgan et al. (2002) asserted that these discrepant findings in gender difference might be due to female officers learning how to cope with the demands of the correctional setting in recent years. A similar parallel explanation might aptly explain the racial differences as well. Many of the studies demonstrating gender and racial differences were conducted in the 1980's; whereas, more recent studies in the 1990's and 2000's found no gender or racial differences.

There is strong evidence to suggest higher levels of education are associated with job dissatisfaction of correctional staff (Cullen et al., 1985; Jurik & Halembe, 1984; Jurik, Halembe, Musheno, & Boyle, 1987; Robinson, Porporino, & Simourd, 1997; Van Voorhis, et al., 1991). However, Morgan et al. (2002) found officer education was unrelated to burnout and other researchers demonstrated officers with higher education reported significantly more job satisfaction (Grossi & Berg, 1991). Despite the overwhelming evidence to suggest officers with higher education are less satisfied, it could be this job dissatisfaction does not lead to burnout.

As with most occupational settings, correctional environments employ personnel from many disciplines. Researchers have examined the effects of the correctional environment on various correctional employees. As the chief administrator, the warden is responsible for the overall operation of a correctional facility. Researchers found a sample of prison wardens reported decreased job satisfaction from 1989 to 1995 (Flanagan, Johnson, & Bennett, 1996). Although some research suggests correctional

educators are satisfied with their jobs, they experience stress due to the unpredictability of daily correctional operations, interactions with custodial staff, and deficient inmate academic skills (Tewksbury, 1993). Similarly, researchers found correctional nurses reported high levels of job satisfaction (Flanagan & Flanagan, 2002; Gulotta, 1987), but moderate levels of stress (Flanagan & Flanagan, 2002) and conflict with administration (Gulotta, 1987). Notwithstanding the general job satisfaction of non-officer correctional personnel, there is evidence to suggest a decline in some aspects of job satisfaction for prison wardens and the medical care of mentally ill offenders create difficult situations for nurses (Peternelj-Taylor & Johnson, 1995).

There is a network of mental health professionals, representing several different disciplines, including social work, counseling, psychiatry, and psychology, providing treatment services for inmates (Magaletta & Boothby, 2003). In a study of correctional group therapists, Ferrell, Morgan, and Winterowd (2000) found therapists reported general job satisfaction, but were less satisfied with performing administrative tasks, and with the amount of individual supervision they received relative to their other work responsibilities. From a sample of therapists working with sex offenders, Farrenkopf (1992) found 38% of respondents reported disillusionment with the correctional system, and 25% of respondents reported feelings of depression, exhaustion, stress, and burnout. Additionally, Farrenkopf found female sex offender therapists reported feelings of increased vulnerability and paranoia when compared to their male counterparts. Some researchers have argued that extended contact with sexual perpetrators and victims leads to burnout (Thorpe, Righthand, & Kubik, 2001).

Correctional psychologists are one of the primary providers of mental health services in correctional facilities (Boothby & Clements, 2002). The numbers of psychologists employed in American and Canadian correctional facilities have grown from approximately 80 in 1945 (Corsini, 1945) to a more recent estimate of nearly 2,138 (Camp & Camp, 2002). Of this latter estimate, approximately 800 psychologists are trained at the doctoral level and 1200 have their master's degree (Clements, 1999). It has been argued that the increase in the number of correctional psychologists is disproportionate to the increase in the number of inmates needing mental health services (Clements, 1999; Boothby & Clements, 2000).

From a few existing studies in the literature, researchers found correctional psychologists desire a decrease in administrative tasks (Boothby & Clements, 2000; Otero, et al., 1981; Smith & Sabatino, 1990), a decrease in time spent performing psychological evaluations (Otero et al., 1981; Smith & Sabatino, 1990), and an increase in the amount of time providing psychotherapy (Boothby & Clements, 2000; Smith & Sabatino, 1990). Additionally, researchers have found correctional psychologists reported dissatisfaction with limited opportunities for advancement (Boothby & Clements, 2002; Otero et al., 1981), a lack of influence on decision-making, and a significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and large overcrowded facilities (Boothby & Clements, 2002).

Psychologists work in a variety of jobs and settings (Roediger III, 2000), including private practice, academia, hospitals, counseling centers, corporations, and government. Many psychologists work in settings that primarily serve the public.

Examples of these work environments include Veteran Affairs (VA) medical centers, community mental health agencies and state hospitals, and criminal justice settings, such as correctional facilities (Public Service Psychology, 2004). The patients served in these settings, by public service psychologists, are underserved and often present with severe mental illness, violence, and substance abuse (Safarjan, 2002).

Although public service psychologists work with underserved populations, there also might be distinctive characteristics unique to each work setting. Within the correctional environment, the work experiences of psychologists might be different than psychologists employed in VA medical settings, public psychiatric hospitals, and counseling centers. Occupational constructs that might assess these experiences include burnout, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction.

Summary

The previous review has described the existing literature related to the correctional work environment. It should be noted that much of this review involved studies employing passive research designs (i.e., ex post facto survey) and reliance on correlational data. Due to the associative nature of this research methodology, causation between variables cannot be established with confidence. Notwithstanding this weakness, quantitative surveys are conducive for collecting data from individuals actively employed within their natural work environment. Therefore, the findings from these studies have merit in describing the naturalistic phenomena associated with correctional employment.

Although a few of the aforementioned studies found discrepant and contradictory results (e.g., gender and race effects for correctional officers), a review of the correctional literature highlights consistent themes regarding correctional employees. These findings strongly suggest that the correctional work environment is replete with occupational stressors for security personnel. Institutional and demographic variables appear to influence the effects of these stressors on correctional employees. Examples of these variables range from role conflict, personal safety, security level, shift work, gender, race, and educational attainment.

Within the past two decades, researchers have examined several occupational issues related to correctional workers. Although the bulk of this research has focused primarily on correctional officers, it is reasonable to extrapolate the findings to other occupations employed within the same work environment. One of these occupations in

question is that of correctional psychologists. There are no published peer reviewed studies that have simultaneously examined the constructs of burnout, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction of these mental health service providers. In response, the present study seeks to ascertain whether psychologists employed within correctional facilities experience greater degrees of burnout, job dissatisfaction, and life dissatisfaction when compared to other public service psychologists.

Purpose of Study

There is strong evidence to suggest that the correctional work environment is stressful for correctional personnel (Cheek & Miller, 1983; Finn, 2000; Huckabee, 1992; Lasky, et al., 1986; Morgan et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Peeters, 2000). Since much of the literature has focused on correctional officers, there have been only three existing studies that have examined correctional psychologist job satisfaction. These studies suggest that correctional psychologists are dissatisfied with various aspects of their jobs, such as administrative responsibilities (Boothby & Clements, 2000; Smith & Sabatino, 1990), limited opportunities for advancement (Boothby & Clements, 2002; Otero, et al., 1981), and lack of influence with decision-making (Boothby & Clements, 2002). Much of the literature on correctional psychologists surveyed their work-place activities and assessed job satisfaction with non-standardized measures. Although these seminal studies were instrumental in highlighting areas of concern for correctional psychologists, they did not examine these issues with a high degree of specificity and empiricism. Therefore, this

study utilized standardized instruments to assess the constructs of burnout, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction as they relate to correctional psychologists.

Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Do correctional psychologists experience greater levels of burnout than other psychologists?
2. Do correctional psychologists experience lower levels of job satisfaction than other psychologists?
3. Do correctional psychologists experience lower levels of life satisfaction than other psychologists?
4. Is there an association between gender and correctional psychologist burnout?
5. Does professional identity predict the level of psychologist burnout?
6. Does participation in extracurricular professional activities predict the level of psychologist burnout?

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested in this study:

1. Correctional psychologists would report greater levels of burnout than psychologists working in non-correctional environments.

Rationale. The correctional work environment is stressful for correctional personnel (Finn, 2000; Huckabee, 1992; Lasky et al., 1986; Lindquist &

Whitehead, 1986; Schaufeli & Peeters, 2000). Chronic stress associated with working with others likely is a precursor to burnout (Cheek & Miller, 1982; Maslach, 1976). Therefore, it was hypothesized that correctional psychologists would report greater burnout than other psychologists due to the increased stress associated with employment in a correctional setting.

2. Correctional psychologists would report lower levels of job satisfaction than psychologists working in non-correctional environments.

Rationale. Researchers have found that correctional officers report lower levels of job satisfaction than workers in other occupations (Cullen et al., 1990).

Additionally, correctional psychologists report dissatisfaction with administrative responsibilities (Boothby & Clements, 2000; Smith & Sabatino, 1990), limited opportunities for advancement (Boothby & Clements, 2002; Otero et al., 1981), and lack of influence with decision-making (Boothby & Clements, 2002). Thus, it was hypothesized that correctional psychologists would report lower levels of job satisfaction than psychologists employed in non-correctional settings.

3. Correctional psychologists would report lower levels of life satisfaction than psychologists working in non-correctional environments.

Rationale. Research indicates a positive correlation between life satisfaction and job satisfaction (Judge & Watanabe, 1993; Tait, Padgett, & Baldwin, 1989; Robbins & Kliewer, 2000). Therefore, it was hypothesized that correctional psychologists would report lower levels of life satisfaction than other

psychologists due to the hypothesized lower job satisfaction ratings (please see Hypothesis 2 Rationale).

4. Female correctional psychologists would report greater burnout than male correctional psychologists.

Rationale. Researchers found female correctional officers reported more work related stress than their male counterparts (Cullen, et al., 1985; Zupan, 1986), but others have demonstrated no significant gender differences for correctional officer stress (Triplett et al., 1996; Walters, 1992). It is noteworthy that earlier studies conducted in the 1980's demonstrated gender differences, but more recent studies found no gender differences. Morgan et al. (2002) asserted that female officers have learned how to cope better with working in a correctional environment in recent years. Notwithstanding these inconsistent results, the experience of correctional work appears different for male and female correctional officers. Thus, it was hypothesized that female correctional psychologists would report greater burnout than male correctional psychologists.

5. Greater professional identity would predict lower levels of psychologist burnout.

Rationale. Researchers found burnout is associated with weaker professional identity for teachers (Kremer & Hofman, 1985). Additionally, Sherwood and Greenblatt (1987) identified a poor professional identity as one of the three major sources of stress for psychiatrists. Therefore, it was hypothesized that greater professional identity would predict lower levels of psychologist burnout.

6. Participation in extracurricular professional activities would predict lower levels of psychologist burnout.

Rationale. Despite an exhausting review of the literature, there are no extant studies that explored the relationship between participation in professional activities and burnout. However, it is reasonable to presume that participation in these activities is an aspect of professional identity. Hence, it was hypothesized that participation in extracurricular professional activities would predict lower levels of psychologist burnout.

Assumptions of Study

Assumptions for this study include the following:

1. Correctional psychologists participating in this study will be representative of psychologists employed in correctional settings.
2. Psychologists employed in non-correctional settings (i.e., VA facilities, counseling centers, public psychiatric hospitals) that participate in this study will be representative of psychologists employed in their respective settings.
3. All participants will respond to the assessment measures with similar motivations.
4. The assessment instruments selected for this study are valid and reliable measures of the identified variables.

Definition of Terms

Psychologist: For purposes of this study, a psychologist was defined as an individual that possesses a doctoral degree in psychology, including a Doctorate of Philosophy (Ph.D.), Doctorate in Psychology (Psy.D.), or Doctorate of Education (Ed.D.), and engages in either the full-time (i.e., more than 35 hours a week) provision of psychological services or works as an administrator of psychological services.

Correctional Psychologist: A correctional psychologist was defined as a psychologist that works in a correctional setting (i.e., prison, jail, privately operated correctional facility) and a member of the American Psychological Association (APA).

VA Psychologist: A VA psychologist was defined as a psychologist employed in a VA medical setting and a member of the APA.

Counseling Center Psychologist: A counseling center psychologist was defined as a psychologist employed in a college or university counseling center and a member of the APA.

Public Psychiatric Hospital Psychologist: For purposes of this study, a public psychiatric hospital psychologist was defined as a psychologist that works in community mental health or state hospital setting and a member of the APA.

Burnout: For purposes of this study, burnout was defined as a syndrome of reduced personal accomplishment, increased emotional exhaustion, and increased depersonalization experienced by individuals that work closely with people (Maslach, et al., 1996). Burnout was measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS; Maslach et al., 1996). Burnout was reflected by decreased scores on

the Personal Accomplishment scale, increased scores on the Emotional Exhaustion scale, and increased scores on the Depersonalization scale.

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction was defined as the overall assessment of positive emotions related to an individual's work (Martin & Schinke, 1986). Job satisfaction was measured with the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form (MSQ-SF; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). Increased scores on the Intrinsic Satisfaction, Extrinsic Satisfaction, and General Satisfaction scales reflected greater levels of job satisfaction.

Life Satisfaction: For purposes of this study, life satisfaction was defined as an individual's global assessment of his or her life in positive terms (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). The construct of life satisfaction was measured with the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). Increased scores on the overall SWLS reflected greater levels of life satisfaction.

Professional Identity: Professional identity was defined as an awareness of connection to the values and emphasis (Mrdjenovich & Moore, 2004) of an individual's training and/or job title. Professional identity will be assessed by participant responses on questions 7 and 11 of the Demographic Form, which were developed by this researcher.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 203 doctoral-level psychologists working full-time and members of the APA. Of the 203 participants, 44 were employed in Criminal Justice (CJ) settings, 56 were employed in Veteran's Affairs (VA) settings, 49 were employed in Counseling Center (CC) settings, and 54 were employed in Public Psychiatric Hospital (PPH) settings. The groups were solicited from the active member roster of the APA by their primary occupational setting.

Participants from the CJ group included 23 males (52%) and 21 females (48%). One participant did not identify his or her gender. The mean age was 52.05 ($SD = 8.32$) years and the race distribution included 93% Caucasian, 5% Hispanic, and 2% Asian American/Pacific Islander (see Table 3). In terms of marital status, 77% were Married/Partnered, 16% were Divorced, 5% were Single, and 2% were Cohabiting (see Table 4).

The participants from the VA group were comprised of 32 males (59%) and 22 females (41%). Two participants did not report their gender. The mean age was 53.49 ($SD = 7.79$) years and the majority of the sample was Caucasian (94%) with 4% classified as Other and 2% African American/Black (see Table 3). From this group, 74% were Married/Partnered, 13% were Divorced, 9% were Single, 2% were Cohabiting, and 2% were Separated (see Table 4).

The CC group included 24 males (49%) and 25 females (51%) with a mean age of 50.65 ($SD = 8.95$) years. The race distribution included 88% Caucasian, 6% African American/Black, 4% Biracial/ Multiracial, and 2% Other (see Table 3). The marital status of this group was as follows: 86% Married/Partnered, 8% Divorced, 4% Single, and 2% Widowed (see Table 4).

The participants from the PPH group were 32 males (59%) and 22 females (41%). Two participants did not identify their gender. The mean age was 53.94 ($SD = 8.36$) years and the race distribution was as follows: 92% Caucasian, 4% Other, 2% African American/Black, 2% Asian American/Pacific Islander (see Table 3). In terms of marital status for the PPH participants, 67% were Married/Partnered, 22% were Divorced, 5% were Single, 4% were Cohabiting, and 2% were Widowed (see Table 4).

Measures

Demographic Questionnaire. This study utilized a demographic questionnaire (see Appendix B) to collect general information about the participants. Examples of the types of information assessed from this measure included age, gender, ethnicity, primary theoretical orientation, type of doctoral degree, number of years employed in current position, questions related to professional identity (e.g., rate how you professionally identify with your psychology training), and participation in extracurricular professional activities (e.g., number of peer reviewed publications, number of college level courses taught, number of students/interns supervised).

Burnout. The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996) was used in this study to measure burnout. One of the more widely used measures in the burnout literature (Savicki, Cooley, & Gjesvold, 2003), the MBI-HSS is a 22-item instrument that assesses burnout with the following three scales: Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment (Maslach et al., 1996). The Emotional Exhaustion scale assesses work-related exhaustion and emotional overextension. The Depersonalization scale measures interpersonal detachment from the recipients of one's services. The Personal Accomplishment scale assesses a sense of competence and productivity at work.

On the MBI-HSS, respondents are asked to rate each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (very mild) to 7 (very strong). According to the mental health normative sample ($n = 730$) published in the manual (Maslach et al., 1996), scale scores are categorized into the following three levels of burnout: High, Average, and Low. High burnout is characterized by high scores on the Emotional Exhaustion (≥ 21) and Depersonalization (≥ 8) scales, and a low score on the Personal Accomplishment (≤ 28) scale. A moderate degree of burnout is reflected with Emotional Exhaustion scores between 14-20, Depersonalization scores between 5-7, and Personal Accomplishment scores between 29-33. Low burnout is indicated with low scores on the Emotional Exhaustion (≤ 13) and Depersonalization (≤ 4) scales, and a high score on the Personal Accomplishment (≥ 34) scale.

The MBI-HSS manual reports moderately strong psychometric properties (Maslach et al., 1996). Regarding internal consistency, Cronbach alpha coefficients for

the scales were as follows: .90 for Emotional Exhaustion, .79 for Depersonalization, and .71 for Personal Accomplishment. Test-retest reliability coefficients over two sessions separated by a time interval of between two and four weeks were as follows: .82 for Emotional Exhaustion, .60 for Depersonalization, and .80 for Personal Accomplishment.

Convergent validity for the MBI-HSS scales was established by performing correlations with independent peer behavioral ratings, job traits, and personal outcomes (Maslach et al., 1996). These authors report the following correlations of subscales with peer behavioral ratings for mental health workers: higher Emotional Exhaustion of .28 and higher Depersonalization of .56 with “emotionally drained by job” and higher Emotional Exhaustion of .42 and higher Depersonalization of .55 with “physically fatigued.”

Job Satisfaction. This study utilized the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form (MSQ-SF; Weiss, et al., 1967) to assess worker job satisfaction. This 20-item self-administered instrument consists of the following three scales: Intrinsic Satisfaction, Extrinsic Satisfaction, and General Satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). The Intrinsic Satisfaction assesses satisfaction derived from inherent features of the job. The Extrinsic Satisfaction scale measures gratification derived from external aspects of the job. The General Satisfaction scale assesses overall job satisfaction, which is a combination of the Intrinsic Satisfaction and Extrinsic Satisfaction scales.

The MSQ-SF requires the respondent to rate each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). The level of job satisfaction is determined by comparing scores with the normative sample. Since the manual (Weiss

et al., 1967) does not provide normative data for mental health professionals, the most similar occupational group of engineers was utilized as the normative sample. The level of job satisfaction is determined by comparing an individual's scores with the percentiles from the normative sample. A high degree of job satisfaction is characterized by percentile scores of 75 or higher. Percentile scores ranging from 26 to 74 indicate moderate job satisfaction. Low job satisfaction is characterized by percentile scores of 25 or lower.

Moderately strong psychometric properties have been established for the MSQ (Weiss et al, 1967). Internal consistency was demonstrated with median Hoyt Reliability coefficients of .86 for the Intrinsic Satisfaction scale, .80 for the Extrinsic Satisfaction scale, and .90 for the General Satisfaction scale. Test-retest reliability correlation coefficients for the long-form General Satisfaction scale over one-week and one-year intervals were .89 and .70, respectively. Strong convergent validity has been demonstrated with other measures of job satisfaction (Rentsch & Steel, 1992).

Life Satisfaction. To assess overall life satisfaction, this study used the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, et al., 1985; see Appendix C). The 5-items of this measure are rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Scores ranging between 9 and 14 correspond to extreme dissatisfaction and scores falling between 15 and 19 indicate slight dissatisfaction with life (Pavot & Diener, 1993). A score of 20 represents neutral satisfaction with life, which indicates equal satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Scores ranging between 21 and 25

indicate slightly satisfied and scores between 26 and 30 represent extremely satisfied with life.

Adequate psychometric properties have been demonstrated for this measure. Diener et al. (1985) reported an internal consistency value of .87 and a 2-week test-retest correlation of .82. Studies have also established convergent validity of the SWLS with moderately strong correlations with other measures of subjective well-being and life satisfaction (e.g., Diener et al., 1985; Pavot, Diener, Colvin, & Sandvik, 1991). These correlations include .58 with the Fordyce's Global Scale and .68 with the Andrew and Withey's D-T Scale (Diener et al., 1985).

Additional Materials. An introductory letter was used to describe the general nature of this study, which also served as the informed consent form (see Appendix D). As such, this letter explained their rights as a research participant, guaranteed confidentiality, and provided a process by which participants could request results from the study. Self-addressed stamped envelopes were provided to the participants to return the measures. All materials were collated and assembled into individual packets prior to mailing to the participants. A follow-up postcard (see Appendix E) and a second follow-up postcard (see Appendix F) were also used to remind the participants to mail their completed instruments to the researcher.

Procedure

Participant Recruitment. Two sets of mailing labels were obtained from the APA Research Office. Each set of mailing labels included the randomized names and addresses of 150 active members (total = 600) from each of the following four groups: CJ, VA, CC, and PPH (total = 600). The names were generated from the primary occupational setting each psychologist had listed with their APA membership registration.

Data Collection. Prior to data collection, 600 packets of research materials were sorted and assembled using a counter-balanced procedure. Each packet included the following materials: introductory letter/informed consent form, demographic questionnaire, MBI-HSS, MSQ-SF, SWLS, and self-addressed stamped envelope. To ensure data consistency, the demographic questionnaire and dependent measures were labeled with the same experimental number before they were inserted into the envelopes.

The randomized mailing labels were attached to the 600 packets and the materials were mailed to the respective psychologists. After two weeks, a reminder postcard was mailed to all participants. Approximately two weeks later, another reminder postcard was mailed to all participants.

The overall response rate was 45% ($N = 271$). However, a substantial number of the returned surveys from the CJ group were incomplete. Therefore, an electronic mail (e-mail) request for additional participants was posted to the Criminal Justice Section Listserv of the APA Division 18, Psychologists in Public Service. This effort produced

four additional participants that had not previously been targeted through the initial recruitment procedure.

Confidentiality. The response sheets for the demographic form and the measures were numbered for each participant. This process began with the number 1001 and ended with the total number of participants. The experimental numbers were designated according to the following system: 1001-1200 for CJ, 2201-2400 for VA, 3401-3600 for CC, and 4601-4800 for PPH. The information and informed consent forms did not include experimental numbers.

After the returned envelopes were received from the participants, the data were separated from any returned informed consent/result request forms to maintain participant confidentiality. The data were stored separately in a locked file cabinet located in a research lab of the Texas Tech University (TTU) Psychology Department, which is accessible through two locked doors. The examiner removed the data from the file cabinet for data input and data analyses on a computer located in the lab. All data were stored in the file cabinet when not being used for data entry or statistical analyses. The lab is located in a cluster of offices that are accessed through one locked door. Another locked door provides access to the research lab.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Data Screening

Of the 150 survey packets originally mailed to each group, 66 (44%) were returned from the CJ group, 68 (45%) were returned from the VA group, 63 (42%) were returned from the CC group, and 74 (50%) were returned from the PPH group. The initial total response rate was 45% ($N = 271$). However, a number of these surveys were returned without being completed for a variety of reasons (i.e., retirement, obtained another job, working part-time, or unknown). These incomplete surveys included 24 from the CJ group, 7 from the VA group, 11 from the CC group, and 18 from the PPH group. Additionally, three usable surveys from the CJ group and one survey from the PPH group were removed due to not meeting the eligibility criteria (e.g., education level, working part-time).

Two surveys were recoded from the PPH group to the CJ group due to endorsement of employment setting and another four survey responses were recruited from the Criminal Justice section of the APA Division 18, Psychologists in Public Service. An additional two surveys were recoded from the CC group to the PPH group because of the endorsed employment setting. The final data set of usable surveys were 45 participants from the CJ group, 61 participants from the VA group, 50 participants from the CC group, and 55 participants from the PPH group. Combining all four groups, the total response rate of usable surveys was 35% ($N = 211$).

The data were examined for data entry inaccuracy, missing values, and outliers. Due to a lower than expected response rate, only data sets with missing dependent measure data were eliminated from subsequent analyses. Based on these criteria, one CJ response set, five VA response sets, one CC response set, and one PPH response set were removed prior to data analyses. Therefore, the final sample utilized in statistical analyses was comprised of 44 CJ participants, 56 VA participants, 49 CC participants, and 54 PPH participants.

Preliminary analyses were performed on the data to identify significant demographic differences between the four groups. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedure was performed on the continuous variables. There was not a significant difference in participant age, $F(3, 197) = 1.63, p > .05$, but there was a significant difference in job tenure, $F(3, 193) = 4.51, p < .01$. Using a Tukey test procedure to control the familywise error rate for post-hoc pairwise comparisons (Keppel, 1991), the VA psychologists ($M = 204.18, SD = 107.15$) reported significantly greater job tenure (in months) than the CJ psychologists ($M = 141.36, SD = 71.02$). Additionally, Chi Square analyses were conducted on the pertinent categorical demographic variables. There were no significant differences in gender, $\chi^2(3, N = 201) = 1.64, p > .05$, race, $\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 21.19, p > .05$, or marital status, $\chi^2(3, N = 202) = 12.68, p > .05$. The groups were demographically similar, except for job tenure, which was entered as a covariate in subsequent analyses.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1. The first research question was whether correctional psychologists experience greater burnout than other psychologists. It was hypothesized that correctional psychologists would report greater levels of burnout than psychologists working in non-correctional environments. The MBI-HSS measures burnout with higher scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization scales, and lower scores on the Personal Accomplishment scale.

A multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) procedure was utilized with the psychologist groups as the independent variable and the MBI-HSS scale scores as the dependent variables. Using Wilks' Lambda criterion, there was a significant difference between the four groups of psychologists on burnout, $F(9, 462) = 2.17, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .033$. Follow-up univariate analyses indicated significant differences on the Depersonalization scale, $F(3, 192) = 3.26, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .048$, and the Personal Accomplishment scale, $F(3, 192) = 3.52, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .052$. However, there was not a significant univariate difference on the Emotional Exhaustion scale, $F(3, 192) = 2.49, p > .05$. Post hoc pairwise comparisons were conducted using a Tukey test to control for an increased familywise error rate (Keppel, 1991). The mean score for the CJ psychologists on the Depersonalization scale ($M = 7.41, SD = 4.64$) was significantly greater than the CC psychologists ($M = 4.26, SD = 3.46$) and VA psychologists ($M = 5.16, SD = 4.32$). The mean Personal Accomplishment score of the CC psychologists ($M = 42.95, SD = 3.73$) was significantly greater than the CJ psychologists ($M = 40.10, SD = 5.09$) and PPH psychologists ($M = 39.96, SD = 5.85$). As previously mentioned, lower scores on the

Personal Accomplishment scale reflects greater burnout. Therefore, this hypothesis was partially supported.

Hypothesis 2. The second research question was whether correctional psychologists experience less job satisfaction than other psychologists. The second hypothesis asserted that correctional psychologists would report lower levels of job satisfaction than psychologists employed in non-correctional environments. The MSQ-SF measures job satisfaction with the General Satisfaction scale, which is a combination of the Intrinsic Satisfaction and Extrinsic scales.

A MANCOVA procedure was utilized with the Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction scales entered as the dependent variables. Using Wilks' Lambda criterion, there was not a significant difference between the psychologist groups, $F(6, 382) = 1.89$, $p = .08$. Given the trend towards statistical significance, however, one-way follow-up analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were performed. There was a significant differences on the Intrinsic Satisfaction scale, $F(3, 192) = 3.02$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .045$, but there was no significant differences on the Extrinsic Satisfaction scale, $F(3, 192) = 1.34$, $p > .05$. The mean score for the CJ psychologists on the Intrinsic Satisfaction scale ($M = 49.36$, $SD = 5.57$) and PPH psychologists ($M = 49.37$, $SD = 5.30$) were significantly lower than the CC psychologists ($M = 52.18$, $SD = 3.91$).

Using a one-way ANCOVA procedure with the General Satisfaction scale, there was a significant difference between the psychologist groups, $F(3, 192) = 3.21$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .048$. A Tukey test procedure was utilized on the post-hoc pairwise comparisons to control the familywise error rate (Keppel, 1991). Similar to the findings on the Intrinsic

Satisfaction scale, the mean scores for the CJ psychologists on overall job satisfaction ($M = 76.02$, $SD = 9.67$) and PPH psychologists ($M = 75.50$, $SD = 9.97$) were significantly lower than the CC psychologists ($M = 81.24$, $SD = 7.70$). There were no significant differences related to the VA psychologists. Thus, the second hypothesis was partially supported.

Hypothesis 3. The third research question was whether correctional psychologists experienced less life satisfaction than other psychologists. The third hypothesis posited that correctional psychologists would report lower levels of life satisfaction than psychologists employed in non-correctional environments. Using a one-way ANCOVA procedure, there was a significant difference between the psychologist groups on overall life satisfaction, $F(3, 192) = 4.05$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .059$. A Tukey test was utilized on the post-hoc pairwise comparisons to control for the familywise error rate (Keppel, 1991). The mean SWLS score of the PPH psychologists ($M = 25.15$, $SD = 5.63$) was significantly lower than the CC psychologists ($M = 28.34$, $SD = 4.57$) and VA psychologists ($M = 28$, $SD = 4.46$). Although there were significant differences in psychologist life satisfaction ratings, the third hypothesis was not supported because the mean SWLS score of CJ psychologists was higher than PPH psychologists, and not significantly different than CC or VA psychologists.

Hypothesis 4. The fourth research question was whether gender is associated with correctional psychologist burnout. It was hypothesized that female correctional psychologists would report greater burnout than male correctional psychologists (see Table 8 for the respective male and female correctional psychologist scores). A

MANOVA procedure was utilized to assess gender differences of correctional psychologists on the Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scales. Using Wilks' Lambda criterion, there was not a significant difference between gender on correctional psychologist burnout, $F(3, 40) = 2.16, p > .05$. Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 5. The fifth research question was whether professional identity predicted the level of psychologist burnout. It was hypothesized that greater professional identity would predict lower levels of psychologist burnout. Pearson correlations were calculated between participant responses to Question 7 (Rate how you professionally identify with your psychology training?) and Question 11 (Rate how you professionally identify as a psychologist representing your occupational setting?) on the demographic questionnaire (see Appendix B), and the Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scales (see correlation matrix in Table 9). Using a one-way ANCOVA procedure, there was not a significant difference between the psychologist groups on professional identity related to psychology training, $F(3, 191) = 1.11, p > .05$, or occupational setting, $F(3, 190) = 2.31, p > .05$. The data were subsequently screened for violations of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and the absence of multicollinearity. An examination of the histograms, residual scatterplots, and P-P plots revealed no assumption violations.

A series of simple linear regression (SLR) analyses were performed to determine if professional identity predicted the level of burnout on each of the MBI-HSS scales. Professional identity related to psychology training was not a significant predictor of

Emotional Exhaustion ($R^2 = .012, p > .05; \beta = -.110$), Depersonalization ($R^2 = .001, p > .05; \beta = -.035$), or Personal Accomplishment ($R^2 = .011, p > .05; \beta = .103$). However, professional identity related to the occupational setting was a significant predictor of Emotional Exhaustion ($R^2 = .044, p < .01; \beta = -.209$) and Personal Accomplishment ($R^2 = .092, p < .01; \beta = .303$), but not Depersonalization ($R^2 = .005, p > .05; \beta = -.071$). Therefore, this hypothesis was partially supported.

Hypothesis 6. The last research question was whether participation in extracurricular activities predicted the level of psychologist burnout. It was hypothesized that greater participation in extracurricular professional activities would predict lower levels of psychologist burnout. To quantify participation in professional activities, an exploratory factor analysis procedure was utilized to identify possible subsets of variables comprising this construct. The aim of this statistical strategy was to reduce the number of variables and identify patterns of correlations among the underlying factors.

Using Maximum Likelihood extraction with Promax rotation, a factor analysis was performed using participant responses on questions 19 through 28 of the demographic questionnaire. The initial analysis extracted five factors with Eigenvalues of 2.5, 1.5, 1.0, 1.0, and 1.0, respectively. However, an examination of the Eigenvalues and Scree plot suggested the presence of two possible factors. Subsequent analyses were performed using a one-factor model (see Table 10) and two-factor model (see Table 11). Using a loading criterion of .32 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) in conjunction with analyzing the underlying theoretical nature of the items, one interpretable factor emerged which has been identified as the Research Factor. This factor was comprised of the

following four questions: Question 22 (In the past 3 years, how many times have you served on an editorial board of a peer reviewed journal?), Question 23 (In the past 3 years, how many times have you served as an ad hoc reviewer for a peer reviewed journal?), Question 24 (In the past 3 years, how many articles have you published or had accepted for publication in a peer reviewed journal?), and Question 25 (In the past 3 years, how many posters, papers, and/or symposiums have you presented at a conference?). The responses from these four items were averaged for each participant.

Similar to Hypothesis 5, three SLR were performed to determine if participation in professional activities (Research Factor) predicted the level of burnout on each of the MBI-HSS scales. Participation in research-related professional activities was not a significant predictor of burnout as measured by the Emotional Exhaustion scale ($R^2 = .002, p > .05; \beta = -.049$). Similarly, participation in research activities was not a significant predictor of burnout as measured by the Depersonalization scale ($R^2 = .004, p > .05; \beta = .064$). Once again, participation in research activities was not a significant predictor of burnout as measured by the Personal Accomplishment scale ($R^2 = .010, p > .05; \beta = .102$). This hypothesis was not supported.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

After summarizing the results, this section will discuss the major findings as they relate to the proposed hypotheses. Additionally, there will be a summary of the implications for correctional psychologists, as well as other public service and counseling center psychologists. This section will end with a discussion of the limitations and provide a framework for future research.

Summary of the Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine correctional psychologist burnout, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction. As hypothesized, the results indicated correctional psychologists experience greater degrees of burnout relative to psychologists employed in VA and counseling center settings. Additionally, correctional and public psychiatric hospital psychologists reported lowered job satisfaction than counseling center psychologists. Psychologists employed in public psychiatric hospital settings reported lower life satisfaction than counseling center psychologists. Evidence also emerged that greater professional identity predicted lower levels of psychologist burnout.

Discussion of the Findings

Burnout

When examining the differences in psychologist burnout, it is important to first consider how the MBI-HSS assessed this construct. This measure is comprised of the following three scales: Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment. The Emotional Exhaustion scale measures emotional overextension, the Depersonalization scale assesses interpersonal detachment from the recipient of services (i.e., client or patient), and the Personal Accomplishment scale measures a sense of work-related competence (Maslach et al., 1996).

As noted in the results, there is evidence to suggest that working in correctional, VA, public psychiatric hospital, and counseling center settings is associated with some degree of emotional exhaustion. Despite a non-significant statistical difference between the four groups on this scale, there was a difference of approximately four points between the mean scores of the correctional and the VA and counseling center psychologists. Additionally, correctional psychologists were the only group to yield a mean score on the Emotional Exhaustion scale that fell within the high range, which corresponds to the numerical cutoff distinguishing the upper third of the normative sample. Conversely, the mean score for the remaining three groups of psychologists fell within the average range, which corresponds to the middle third of the normative sample. Based on these findings, correctional psychologists appear to clinically experience a greater degree of emotional resource depletion than psychologists from the other groups. More administrative/paperwork hours (Rupert & Morgan, 2005), and exposure to negative

client behaviors (Ackerley, Burnell, Holder, & Kurdek, 1988; Rupert & Morgan, 2005) have been identified as positive correlates of emotional exhaustion for psychologists. Several researchers have previously noted correctional psychologists desired a decrease in administrative tasks (Boothby & Clements, 2000; Otero et al., 1981; Smith & Sabatino, 1990). Therefore, it could be concluded that the level of administrative tasks and experience of working with offenders are unique to correctional psychologists, which contributed to their higher emotional exhaustion score.

On the Depersonalization scale, none of the mean scores exceeded the average range of burnout; however, the correctional psychologists reported significantly greater depersonalization than the VA and counseling center psychologists. Similar to the findings on emotional exhaustion, administrative/ paperwork hours (Rupert & Morgan, 2005) and exposure to negative client behaviors (Ackerley et al., 1988; Rupert & Morgan, 2005) are positive correlates of depersonalization. The greater levels of depersonalization for correctional psychologists might be due to the amount of administrative tasks and negative behaviors of their clientele.

The mean scores on the Personal Accomplishment scale fell within the high range for each of the psychologist groups. These findings indicate the participants in this study reported a strong sense of competence and personal production at work. However, the mean scores of the correctional and public psychiatric hospital psychologists were significantly lower than the counseling center psychologists. The implication is that psychologists employed in correctional and public psychiatric hospital settings experience a reduced sense of successful achievement relative to counseling center

psychologists. Rupert and Morgan (2005) found the number of therapy hours was a positive correlate of personal accomplishment. Several authors have observed correctional psychologists desired increased time providing psychotherapeutic services (Boothby & Clements, 2000; Otero et al., 1981; Smith & Sabatino, 1990). Although correctional psychologists reported a strong sense of personal accomplishment, it is possible that these psychologists are not providing the level of treatment services that contribute to increased feelings of personal accomplishment, compared to their counseling center counterparts.

It was hypothesized that correctional psychologists would report greater levels of burnout than non-correctional psychologists. The correctional psychologists were the only group to report a mean score on one of the MBI-HSS scales to fall within the high range, which indicated greater emotional exhaustion. Additionally, correctional psychologists reported significantly more depersonalization than VA and counseling center psychologists. Psychologists employed in correctional and public psychiatric hospital settings reported significantly lower personal accomplishment than counseling center psychologists. Since occupational burnout is often operationally defined as a multidimensional construct (Schaufeli, Maslach, & Marek, 1993), the overall results indicated correctional psychologists are experiencing greater levels of burnout relative to psychologists employed in VA and counseling center settings.

Since burnout has been associated with an increased likelihood of leaving the mental health profession (Raqupaw & Miller, 1989) and viewed as a form of ethical impairment by psychologists (Skorupa & Agresti, 1993), it would behoove correctional

psychologists and administrators alike to develop and implement an effective burnout reduction program. Such a program requires educational intervention with both the employee and work environment (Maslach et al., 2001). With regard to the individual psychologist, some authors have suggested graduate programs should include formal training on understanding and preventing burnout (Skorupa & Agresti, 1993). This suggestion may be especially relevant for graduate training programs that emphasize forensic and correctional specialties. Additionally, the orientation process for newly hired correctional psychologists should incorporate these training elements.

Administrators and psychologists presently employed in correctional settings should also be educated about the potential stressors of their work. In a report for the National Institute of Justice, Finn (2000) outlined several potential benefits of a stress program, including reduction in overtime costs, increase in worker performance, improvement in institutional safety, and demonstrating an overall concern for employees. Hence, the implementation of such a burnout reduction program should prove beneficial to correctional psychologists.

Examining only the correctional psychologist data, it was hypothesized that female psychologists would report greater burnout than their male counterparts. There were no significant gender differences in burnout for correctional psychologists, which is consistent with previous research examining correctional officers (Triplett et al., 1996; Walters, 1992). However, several earlier studies found female correctional officers reported greater job stress (Cullen, et al., 1985; Zupan, 1986) than their male counterparts. Other researchers have found similar contradictory results with male

officers reporting greater depersonalization than females (Morgan et al., 2002) and female officers reporting greater depersonalization than their male counterparts (Savicki et al., 2003).

Some researchers have posited the discrepant results on gender differences are due to better adjustment of female employees to the correctional work environment in recent years (Morgan et al., 2002). These researchers also found older age and higher education were significant contributing factors to greater feelings of personal accomplishment for correctional officers. Additionally, the correctional psychologist participants in this study were considerably older than the correctional officer participants included in the samples of the studies that found gender differences. Several viable explanations for the finding of no gender differences on correctional psychologist burnout include older age, higher education level, and greater adaptability of female employees to the correctional environment.

It is noteworthy that there are no extant studies exploring gender differences among correctional psychologist burnout. Despite the ubiquitous issue of safety for female employees working in a male correctional facility (Wright & Saylor, 1991), male and female psychologists appear to experience similar levels of burnout. These findings suggest female correctional psychologists are having similar work-related experiences and they are as equally suited as their male counterparts for employment in a correctional environment. This conclusion is echoed in the survey results of a national study of correctional psychologists which found approximately 38% of the 830 participants were female (Boothby & Clements, 2000). Given the lack of gender differences found in this

study, female psychologists should be actively recruited and encouraged to consider employment in a correctional environment.

Results indicated professional identity related to the occupational setting was a significant predictor of burnout for psychologists on the Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment scales, but not the Depersonalization scale. Participation in research-related professional activities was not a significant predictor on any of the MBI-HSS scales. Therefore, the level of professional identity appears to predict the level of psychologist burnout, but participation in professional activities had no impact. These results suggest stronger professional identity might serve as a protective factor or buffer to burnout. It might prove beneficial for graduate school programs to incorporate this finding into their training curriculum to foster the development of a stronger professional identity for future psychologists. Additionally, psychologists presently working in the field, in either public service or private practice settings, should be encouraged to strengthen their professional identity ties. Examples might include seeking out challenging and fulfilling experiences related to their profession (Kremer & Hoffman, 1985), providing pro bono services, creating an identity with coworkers, engaging in supplemental work, and performing psychological work consistent with their sense of self. As a profession, greater professional identity might yield substantial dividends in buffering psychologists from developing burnout.

Job Satisfaction

The MSQ-SF was used to assess differences in job satisfaction. This measure is comprised of an overall General Satisfaction scale, which is a combination of the

Intrinsic Satisfaction and Extrinsic Satisfaction scales. The Intrinsic Satisfaction scale measures satisfaction derived from the inherent features of a job and the Extrinsic Satisfaction scale measures gratification derived from the external aspects of a job (Weiss et al., 1967). Given this measure is an abbreviated instrument and there is overlap between the scales, only scores from the General Satisfaction scale were statistically analyzed.

It was hypothesized that correctional psychologists would report lower levels of job satisfaction than other psychologists. Although all four groups of psychologists reported moderate ratings of job satisfaction, psychologists employed in correctional and public psychiatric hospital settings reported significantly lower job satisfaction than counseling center psychologists. Other authors have also found that correctional psychologists reported moderate levels of job satisfaction (Boothby & Clements, 2000). However, several researchers noted correctional psychologists were dissatisfied with limited opportunities for career advancement (Boothby & Clements, 2000; Otero et al, 1981) and desired a decrease in administrative tasks (Boothby & Clements, 2000; Otero et al., 1981; Smith & Sabatino, 1990).

Unlike previous studies investigating job satisfaction of correctional psychologists, this study utilized a standardized measure to assess this construct, which afforded a greater degree of specificity. Consequently, evidence emerged that correctional and public psychiatric hospital psychologists experience less general job satisfaction than counseling center psychologists. A further examination of the subscales revealed the differences were with intrinsic satisfaction and not extrinsic satisfaction.

Examples of intrinsic satisfaction include task diversity, work independence, personal achievement, and job security. Therefore, it appears counseling center psychologists derive greater job satisfaction from these aspects of their job than psychologists working in correctional and public psychiatric settings.

Since there are ostensibly more similarities between correctional and public psychiatric hospital settings than VA and counseling center environments, it could be that these similarities accounted for the lowered job satisfaction ratings. For example, a large group of chief psychologists with the Bureau of Prisons (BOP) included “Differences between prisons and VA hospitals” as part of the orientation training process for new correctional psychologists (Levinson, 1985). As noted by Bachrach (1996), many of the patients served by state hospitals have a history of violence and involvement in the correctional system (i.e., jail, prison). In fact, eight out of the 54 (14.8%) public psychiatric hospital participants endorsed working with offender or forensic patients. However, none of the VA and counseling center participants reported working with inmates. As a whole, public service and counseling center psychologists are generally satisfied with their jobs, but psychologists employed in correctional and public psychiatric hospital settings appear slightly less satisfied with their jobs than their counseling center counterparts.

Life Satisfaction

The last dependent variable of interest for this study was life satisfaction. This study utilized the SWLS (Diener et al., 1985) to measure this construct, with higher scores reflecting greater life satisfaction. According to the interpretative guidelines

(Pavot & Diener, 1993), the mean scores of the correctional, VA, and counseling center psychologists fell within the extremely satisfied range and the mean score of the public psychiatric hospital psychologists fell within the slightly satisfied range. Although none of the psychologists were dissatisfied with their lives, psychologists employed in public psychiatric hospitals were significantly less satisfied than counseling center and VA psychologists.

It was hypothesized that correctional psychologists would report lower life satisfaction than their non-correctional peers. As previously mentioned, the CJ and PPH psychologists reported lower job satisfaction than counseling center psychologists. Previous research found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Judge & Watanebe, 1993, Robbins & Kliewer, 2000). Based on these findings, it could be concluded that psychologists employed in public psychiatric hospital settings might have reported lower life satisfaction due, in part, to their lower job satisfaction. However, this observation does not explain why correctional psychologists failed to report lower life satisfaction.

Given the significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction (see Table 9), there might be a buffering characteristic unique to corrections, which is not present in public psychiatric hospital settings. Some authors have described correctional psychologist employment as rewarding (Boothby & Clements, 2002; Hawk, 1997) in part due to the varied opportunities to participate in specialized services, such as psychological autopsies of suicide cases, forensic work, and hostage negotiations (Hawk, 1997). Additionally, life satisfaction is conceptualized as a judgmental process based on

an individual's self-imposed criteria or standards (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Hence, it could also be concluded that correctional psychologists have accepted their perception of lower job satisfaction and adopted a lower standard by which to judge their life satisfaction. Notwithstanding the discrepant findings, all of the psychologists in this study appeared generally satisfied with their lives.

Limitations

There are several limitations of this study that warrant discussion. Despite sending two reminders to potential participants, the sample size had fewer participants than originally targeted. Although the initial response rate was 45%, 60 of these surveys were returned incomplete for a variety of reasons (i.e., retirement, obtained another job, working part-time, or unknown), which yielded an actual response rate of usable surveys of 35%. Some authors have noted there is no minimum response rate established in the literature (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999), but suggested survey data collection typically results in a response rates between 30% and 40% from an initial mailing and an additional 20% return from a follow-up letter. Therefore, the response rate of this study is slightly lower than the average response rates of other published research.

Additionally, there is the potential for sampling bias and limited generalizability of the results due to using APA members as participants. There might be something unique to this population that does not apply to psychologists who are non-APA members. For example, APA members might have a greater sense of professional identity due to their membership in the largest professional organization of psychologists

in the world (APA, 2006). Additionally, the sample utilized in this study might not be as representative of other psychologists due to possible socioeconomic differences, involvement in research activities, greater access to professional publications (i.e., *American Psychologist*, *Monitor*), and involvement with specialized Divisions. Moreover, the potential sampling pool of participants was limited due to the overly broad occupational setting code of Criminal Justice (CJ) used by the APA Research Office to capture correctional psychologists.

The assessment of professional identity and participation in extracurricular professional activities was another limitation of this study. The present study quantified these constructs with questions that were developed by the researcher and included on the demographic questionnaire. The use of standardized instruments to measure these constructs would have likely produced more psychometrically valid and useful results.

Conclusion and Directions for Future Research

Notwithstanding the limitations noted above, the results of this study have established a foundation for understanding the constructs of burnout, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction for correctional psychologists. More specifically, this study found correctional psychologists experience greater degrees of burnout than several of their professional counterparts, and lower job satisfaction than counseling center psychologists. Additionally, this study found greater professional identity predicted the level of psychologist burnout. Although not the intended focus of this study, psychologists working in public psychiatric hospital settings experienced a greater degree

of burnout and lower job satisfaction than counseling center psychologists, and lower life satisfaction than VA and counseling center psychologists.

Given this is the only existing study to simultaneously examine correctional psychologist burnout, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction with standardized instruments, the results have significant potential for highlighting areas of professional concern for correctional psychologists. Several researchers have recommended that more attention focus on the orientation process of correctional psychologists (Levinson, 1985), as well as the retention of current correctional psychologist in the work force (Boothby & Clements, 2002). The results from the present study may provide a framework to educate correctional psychologists on the occupational issues they likely face. Additionally, administrators may benefit from incorporating these results into the structure and support of the correctional work environment.

There are several areas to consider for future research. In particular, a larger and more representative sample of correctional psychologists should be obtained. This sample should target and differentiate psychologists employed in both state and federal correctional environments. The present study included a few psychologists working in Canadian correctional facilities due to their APA membership. Future research should specifically target Canadian correctional psychologists in larger numbers, as the experiences of psychologists in these two correctional systems appear to be different (Hughes & Zamble, 1993), along with psychologists from other countries for comparison purposes.

Although there was no evidence of gender differences associated with correctional psychologist burnout, future research should examine the impact of inmate gender on the work-related experiences of correctional psychologists. In particular, some correctional psychologists have asserted that working with female inmates is more stressful than working with their male counterparts (R. E. Gregg, personal communication, April 2006). Female inmates represent approximately 6.7% of the federal inmate population (BOP, 2006), but there are no extant studies in the literature exploring the effects of working with these inmates on correctional employees.

Several researchers found psychologists employed in public service settings experience more burnout than their private practice peers (Ackerly, et al., 1988; Raquepaw & Miller, 1989; Rupert & Morgan, 2005). In a similar vein, a comparison of public service and private practice psychologists is warranted to identify any differences in job and life satisfaction. Since correctional psychologists typically work with colleagues, another area to explore is the potential impact of coworker relationships on job satisfaction. Examining the influence of these relationships on job satisfaction might identify key areas for intervention.

Given the promising results of professional identity from this study, the protective effects of this construct should be more comprehensively and empirically examined. For example, a study of the effects of employee training programs, which emphasize the fostering of professional identity, on psychologist occupational issues is warranted. Future research should continue to advance our understanding of burnout, job

satisfaction, and life satisfaction of public service psychologists, especially the clinicians working in correctional settings.

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APPENDIX A

EXTENDED LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a plethora of empirical research to suggest that working in the human service field is associated with negative effects, such as stress and burnout (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). The intense and close working relationships of social service employees with patients over time often elicit strong emotional reactions (Pines & Maslach, 1978). The end result of these emotional experiences can have several possible outcomes for mental health professionals. Correctional facilities employ workers representing several occupations, including the medical and mental health disciplines.

The following review begins with a brief discussion of the correctional environment as it relates to correctional employees. Due to the paucity of studies regarding occupational issues of correctional mental health professionals, particularly psychologists, the bulk of this review will focus on correctional officer stress and stress-related matters. However, an overview is provided on the existing studies of stress, burnout, and job satisfaction of correctional mental health professionals and psychologists. Additionally, the constructs of job burnout, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction are reviewed. This review represents a summary of the existing literature regarding correctional employees and the research relevant to the occupational issues of these workers.

Corrections

There are approximately 2,138 psychologists employed within American and Canadian correctional facilities (Camp & Camp, 2002). Hawk (1997) described the correctional environment as a unique and dangerous society that creates an omnipresent threat of violent outbursts and assaults on grossly outnumbered staff. Kalinich and Pitcher (1984) highlighted the extreme sense of isolation for staff and compared the noise level of a correctional facility to a football stadium. Similarly, Magaletta and Boothby (2003) asserted, “most anyone working in corrections will encounter the despair, hopelessness, and web of self-pity that flavor most prisons” (p. 33). Horne (1985) described this occupational environment as generally marked by low salaries, poor training, and demanding working conditions.

These varied images only describe some the more notable physical characteristics of a correctional work environment. Also of importance are the traits of the inmates confined within the walls, razor wire, and guard towers of a correctional facility. The following sections on inmate growth, inmate dangerousness, and mental illness prevalence rates will describe the current situation of inmates as contributors to correctional workplace stress.

Inmate Growth

There is an estimated nine million people incarcerated worldwide (Fazel & Danesh, 2002). Slightly more than two million of these inmates are housed in American federal, state, and local correctional institutions (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2004). Between the years 1990 and 1999, more than 80,000 inmates were added each year to the

correctional population (Finn, 2000). Innes (1997) attributed the rise in inmate population to stricter enforcement of drug laws and stronger sentencing guidelines. This trend in inmate growth does not appear to be leveling off or declining in the near future (Dvoskin, Spiers, & Pitt, 2003). Compounding this issue is the observation that increases in prison staffing is disproportionate to increases in inmate growth (Boothby & Clements, 2000).

Inmate Dangerousness

Along with the rise in inmate population, some studies have found that inmates are representing a greater danger and security risk to prison personnel. Between the years 1990 and 1995, the ratio of inmates to security staff increased from 4.2-to-1 to 4.6-to-1 (Finn, 2000) along with a nearly 33% increase, from 10,731 to 14,165, in the number of inmate assaults on correctional staff (Bureau of Justice Statistics). In an archival study of Federal Bureau of Prisons (BOP) inmate disciplinary records, Innes (1997) found an increase in the number of filed inmate misconduct reports from 43.6 per 100 inmates to 53.7 per 100 inmates during the years 1992 to 1995.

Mental Illness Prevalence Rates

In conjunction with the increasing prison population, there has been an increase in the number of inmates presenting with mental illness. In a review of 62 surveys involving 22,790 prisoners in 12 countries, Fazel and Danesh (2002) observed that “prisoners were several times more likely to have psychosis and major depression, and about ten times more likely to have antisocial personality disorder” than the general non-incarcerated population (p. 545). According to the American Psychiatric Association

(2000), an estimated 20% of inmates are in need of mental health care. Ditton (1999) found that 16% of jail offenders, 7% of federal inmates, 16% of probationers, and 16% of state prisoners had evidence of mental impairment. A review of existing literature indicated that inmates incarcerated in prisons have higher rates of mental illness than inmates confined in jails (Diamond, Wang, Holzer, Thomas, & Cruser, 2001).

Along with noting the contribution of inmate growth, dangerousness, and mental illness prevalence rates on correctional worker stress (Finn, 2000), researchers have explored the myriad of stressors endemic to a correctional facility. The following sections will review these stressors and explain their significance in relation to various correctional personnel.

Correctional Personnel

Correctional Officers. The bulk of research regarding work-related issues of prison personnel has focused primarily on correctional officers (Fry, 1990). Correctional officers are charged with the chief responsibility of enforcing institutional security and preventing inmates from escaping (Davis, 2002, Wicks, 1980). There are at least 281,332 correctional officers employed in state and federal correctional institutions (Finn, 1998). These workers represent the first line of security and experience the most direct contact with inmates (Culliver, Sigler, & McNeely, 1991).

Researchers have attempted to identify and explore the potential harmful effects associated with employment in a correctional environment. Within the cognitive appraisal literature, stress is conceptualized as an affective response elicited by stressors that are perceived as dangerous or threatening (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Daily

stressors encountered by correctional employees include inmate threats (e.g., verbal and physical assaults, bodily fluids, needle pricks; Ellis, 2003), inmate conflicts, and administrative conflicts (Brodsky, 1982). These examples represent only a few of the myriad of stressors encountered by correctional personnel.

Researchers have identified several physical concerns associated with employment as a correctional officer. Cheek and Miller (1983) noted that correctional officers experience greater rates of cardiovascular diseases, such as hypertension and heart disease, and ulcers than a comparison sample of police officers. Cheek and Miller also found correctional officers in New York had a 300% higher absenteeism rate than the average rate of all other professions in the state, and experienced a 200% higher divorce rate than other blue and white collar workers. There is evidence to suggest correctional officers are at greater risk for substance abuse (Svenson, Jarvis, & Campbell, 1995), high employee turnover (Finn, 1998), and excessive sick leave (Brodsky, 1982; Cheek & Miller, 1982; Harenstam, Palm, & Theorell, 1988).

In addition to studying the physical effects associated with employment as a correctional officer, researchers have observed several psychological correlates. Cullen, Link, Cullen, and Wolfe (1990) found correctional officers reported lower levels of job satisfaction than workers in other occupations. Moreover, Stack and Tsoudis (1996) reported correctional officers are at a 39% greater risk of suicide than similar aged individuals that were not employed within a correctional environment.

In a survey of 241 correctional officers, Lindquist and Whitehead (1986) found that 29% of their sample reported their jobs to be moderately stressful and 39% reported

their jobs were either more than moderately stressful or very stressful. Other researchers also found the correctional work environment to be stressful for officers (Cheek & Miller, 1983; Finn, 2000; Huckabee, 1992; Lasky, Gordon, & Srebalus, 1986). In a comparison study of stress and burnout on municipal employees, Anson and Bloom (1988) found correctional and police officers reported comparable levels of stress. Additionally the correctional and police officers reported significantly greater stress than firefighters, probation officers, and emergency medical technicians.

Lindquist and Whitehead (1986) asserted that occupational stress leads to correctional officer burnout. From their sample of correctional officers, Lindquist and Whitehead found that nearly 25% reported high levels of depersonalization and 33% reported high levels of emotional exhaustion. According to Morgan, Van Haveren, and Pearson (2002), correctional personnel have fewer resources than inmates to deal or cope with stress. The resulting experience of long term stress associated with working with others might lead to burnout (Cheek & Miller, 1982; Jackson et al., 1986; Maslach, et al., 1996).

Occupational stress does not appear to be limited to officers employed in adult correctional institutions despite the notable differences between adolescent and adult facilities including younger inmates, greater emphasis on rehabilitation, and generally smaller facilities (Mitchell, MacKenzie, Gover, & Styve, 2001). Auerbach, Quick, and Pegg (2003) surveyed 413 correctional officers working at eight different facilities housing juvenile offenders. These authors found that line officers reported greater stress

as measured by the Job Stress Index, a general measure of job stress, than the normative comparison sample.

In summary, many studies have examined the negative correlates associated with the correctional officer work environment. These negative effects range from a myriad of psychosomatic (i.e., hypertension and heart disease), psychological (i.e., suicide and stress), and deleterious life behaviors (i.e., substance abuse and divorce). Moreover, the few existing studies on juvenile correctional officers found similar results despite the differences in incarcerated populations. The following discussion will review the effects of institutional and demographic variables on correctional officer stress, burnout, and job satisfaction. Although many of these studies and results are specific to correctional officers, the variables of interest might also apply to other correctional personnel.

Shift Work. Correctional officers are required to work in shifts due to the continuous security needs of inmates. In a survey of 241 correctional officers employed within the Alabama correctional system, Lindquist and Whitehead (1986) found that officers assigned to the day shift reported greater levels of role conflict than their counterparts assigned to the late evening shift. Additionally, Hughes and Zamble (1993) found work shift to be a stressor among Canadian correctional officers.

Although stressful for correctional officers, Morgan et al. (2002) found no significant relationship between shift work and burnout. Van Voorhis et al., (1991) found no differences between officer job stress, but noted that officers working the night shift were less likely to have a rehabilitation orientation than officers working during the day shift.

Personal Safety. Given the potentially dangerous nature of working with inmates convicted of crimes ranging from robbery to homicide, safety appears to be a salient issue for security personnel (Brodsky, 1982). Finn (2000) noted that correctional officers have the second highest rate of nonfatal violent incidents per 1,000 employees, with police officers experiencing the highest rate. These incidents may include stabbings, sexual assaults, hostage taking, and riots (Peternelj-Taylor & Johnson, 1995). Violence may also include verbal threats and daily swearing by offenders.

In a study of 245 correctional officers employed in a medium security correctional facility, Triplett, Millings, and Scarborough (1996) found that safety concerns contributed the greatest amount of variance to work-related stress. Other researchers have found perceived dangerousness to be associated with correctional officer work-related stress (Brodsky, 1982; Grossi & Berg, 1991; Long & Voges, 1987; Shamir & Drory, 1982). In a survey of 155 correctional officers, Cullen, Link, Wolfe, and Frank (1985) found that perceived dangerousness was significantly related to job dissatisfaction. In a sample of juvenile correctional officers, Auerbach et al. (2003) found that concerns regarding physical demands and danger produced the highest stress scores among juvenile correctional officers relative to workers in other vocations.

Security Level. Researchers have examined the effect of security level on correctional officer occupational stress. Correctional facilities are categorized by security level, which dictates the type of offender (i.e., history of violence, security needs) housed within the institution. Common security levels include minimum, medium, maximum, and the more recent addition of super-maximum. Inmates with less violent criminal

histories (i.e., non-violent convictions) and demonstrate little risk or danger are assigned to minimum security and inmates considered dangerous are assigned to maximum security (Davis, 2002). Medium security is reserved for inmates that fall between minimum and maximum. Super-maximum is a more secure version of maximum-security with greater inmate segregation and isolation. Researchers have found that maximum-security facilities were significantly correlated with correctional officer stress and perceived dangerousness (Cullen et al., 1985; Van Voorhis et al., 1991).

Lasky et al. (1986) surveyed 147 male correctional officers working at eleven federal institutions representing six different security levels. Although these authors found a significant relationship between officer's concern regarding personal safety and security levels, there was not a significant difference in stress across security levels. That is, correctional officers were more concerned about their personal safety when working in higher security level facilities, but differences in security level did not increase their reported stress. Other researchers have failed to find a significant relationship between security level and correctional officer burnout (Morgan et al., 2002) or job dissatisfaction (Hepburn & Albonetti, 1980).

Work Load. In a survey of 201 Israeli correctional officers, Shamir and Drory (1982) found that role overload (i.e., workplace expectations exceed staff resources) was significantly related to work-related stress. Similar results were found in a survey sample of 166 correctional officers (Dignam et al., 1986) and a different sample of 245 correctional officers (Triplett et al., 1996). Shamir and Drory recommended that

increasing the number of staff and improvements in security technology (e.g., automatic doors) might reduce staff workload and stress.

Inmate Contact. As correctional officers are charged with guarding inmates, researchers have examined the effects of inmate contact on officer stress. Several researchers have demonstrated that direct inmate contact is associated with correctional officer stress (Cheek & Miller, 1983; Hughes & Zamble, 1993).

Regarding the relationship between inmate contact and correctional officer burnout, Dignam et al. (1986) found that negative direct contact with inmates was a significant predictor of burnout and positive direct contact was not significantly related to burnout. Conversely, Lindquist and Whitehead (1986) demonstrated that number of hours of direct inmate contact was a significant predictor of reported personal accomplishment and Morgan et al. (2002) found that inmate contact was not a significant predictor of correctional officer burnout. Morgan et al. (2002) concluded that direct inmate contact may be associated with stress, but does not necessarily lead to burnout. That is, positive inmate contact may actually buffer a correctional officer from stress and contribute to a healthier working relationship. Therefore, the quality, as opposed to the quantity, might be of more significance when explaining the effects of inmate contact on correctional officer burnout.

Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity. Employees working within a correctional facility are often subjected to conflicting roles of rehabilitation, punishment, and confinement (Lasky et al., 1986). In a study of 258 correctional officers, Whitehead & Lindquist (1986) found role conflict significantly reduced job satisfaction and increased

job stress for security personnel. Other researchers have demonstrated a significant relationship between role conflict and work-related stress (Dignam et al., 1986; Shamir & Drory, 1982).

Hepburn and Albonetti (1980) surveyed role conflict levels among 253 front-line correctional officers and 83 treatment staff (i.e., caseworkers, teachers, and parole officers). These researchers found role conflict was negatively associated with job satisfaction. Additionally, Hepburn and Albonetti found the mean level of role conflict for treatment staff was significantly greater than the mean level of role conflict for security personnel. When both groups of staff were collapsed together, role conflict was significantly higher among correctional staff employed in minimum-security facilities than medium or maximum-security settings. However, there were no differences in role conflict among staff between the medium and maximum-security facilities. These researchers concluded there was greater role conflict associated with minimum-security prisons as a result of the greater organizational goals combining treatment and security at less custody-oriented facilities.

In a study of 143 correctional officers, Cheek and Miller (1983) identified role conflict or a “double bind” as a major contributor to officer stress. These authors (1982) asserted that a “double bind” is created by administrative demands on officers to increase control over inmates combined with a lack of administrative support. After noting a relationship between role conflict and correctional officer stress, Brodsky (1982) recommended that, “role expectations need to be clearly communicated and achievable-people should know what is to be done any by whom” (p. 97).

Other Variables. In addition to the previously described institutional conditions, researchers have examined the effects of other factors on correctional officer occupational issues. However, there is considerably less research examining these variables. A brief review will follow regarding financial compensation, inmate growth, understaffing, participation in decision-making, and administrative/management concerns.

In a study of 81 British correctional officers, Rutter and Fielding (1988) found security personnel ranked inadequate pay as the second highest ranked perceived cause of stress. With the growing inmate population, Cheek and Miller (1982) asserted overcrowding produces stress and tension for correctional personnel. Brodsky (1982) contended that “overcrowding breeds idleness and discontent; it also tends to breed violence and gang conspiracy” (p. 91). Similarly, researchers have argued that correctional understaffing is a constant problem that leads to personnel stress (Brodsky, 1982; Finn, 1998).

Researchers found participation in decision-making was a significant predictor of depersonalization for correctional officers (Lindquist & Whitehead, 1986) and significantly correlated with work-related stress (Lasky et al., 1986; Rutter & Fielding, 1988). On a related matter, others have found that lack of autonomy from administration is related to correctional officer stress (Cheek & Miller, 1983; Rutter & Fielding, 1988) and Brodsky (1982) noted, that “many officers have little faith that the system functions fairly” in reference to the strained relationship with administration (p. 89).

Age. Among the many demographic variables of interest, researchers have examined the impact of age on correctional officer occupational issues. In a study of 241 correctional officers, Lindquist and Whitehead (1986) found that younger officers reported greater work-related stress and burnout than their older counterparts. Similarly, Morgan et al. (2002) found older officers were more likely to report stronger feelings of personal accomplishment than younger officers.

There have been inconsistent results regarding the effects of age on correctional officer stress. In a study of 166 correctional personnel, Gerstein et al. (1987) found older officers reported greater levels of stress. Other researchers have found no relationship between age and officer stress (Triplett et al., 1996, Van Voorhis et al., 1991). An explanation for these overall discrepant findings might be that older officers report greater stress than younger officers due to increased job responsibilities associated with greater rank (i.e., lieutenant). However, these older officers might report less burnout because of a greater ability to garner peer support (Van Voorhis et al., 1991), which might buffer the contributing effects of stress on burnout.

Tenure. Given the myriad of stressors found in correctional work environments, researchers have examined whether length of employment is related to correctional officer stress. Several studies suggest that longer tenure is associated with increased stress (Dollard & Winefield, 1995; Grossi & Berg 1991; Lasky et al, 1986; Saylor & Wright, 1992; Triplett et al., 1996, Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Other studies have demonstrated that tenure is unrelated to correctional officer stress (Dignam et al., 1986; Gerstein et al., 1987; Shamir & Drory, 1982). It is noted the studies that demonstrated no

association between tenure and stress were conducted in the 1980's; whereas, the studies that demonstrated a relationship between these two variables were primarily conducted in the 1990's. Based on this observation, it might be that longer tenure has become more associated with stress in recent years.

Researchers have also examined the effects of tenure on correctional officer burnout. Morgan et al. (2002) found that more experienced officers (i.e., greater than three years) reported significantly more depersonalization than less experienced officers (i.e., less than one year). Additionally, more experienced officers reported significantly lower levels of personal accomplishment than less experienced officers. Lindquist and Whitehead (1986) also found that longer officer tenure was a significant predictor of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion.

Collectively, these results suggest that longer correctional employment is associated with greater degrees of burnout. Although there are inconsistent findings regarding tenure and correctional officer stress, the more recent results suggest that longer tenure is associated with greater stress.

Gender Differences. As with many nontraditional employment settings for women (Etheridge, Hale, & Hambrick, 1984), there has been consistent growth in the number of female correctional officers employed in correctional facilities since the 1970's (Walters, 1992). This traditionally male-dominated correctional occupation was opened for female employment opportunities because of a culmination of a series of legislative and judicial efforts (Zupan, 1986; Horne, 1985). Some researchers have argued that correctional employment may be stressful for female officers because of

sexual harassment from inmates (Etheridge et al., 1984) and from fellow male officers (Owen, 1985). Due to the relatively recent hiring of women to correctional security positions, several studies have examined the effects of the work environment on these employees.

Jurik and Halemba (1984) observed the following demographic differences between female and male correctional officers: females were more educated, lived in urban areas, had less prior military or law enforcement experience, and more likely to be divorced, separated, or single than their male counterparts. These authors noted female correctional officers are more likely to report taking their job because of interest in human service work or inmate rehabilitation. Conversely, male correctional officers are more likely to report job security and fringe benefits as the primary reasons for accepting their jobs. Savicki, Cooley, and Gjesvold (2003) found female correctional officers reported greater perceived harassment by inmates than male officers.

Several researchers have assessed gender differences on correctional officer occupational issues. Researchers found female correctional officers experience more work related stress (Cullen, et al., 1985) and more depersonalization (Savicki et al., 2003) than their male counterparts. Conversely, Morgan et al. (2002) found male correctional officers reported significantly more depersonalization than female officers. Wright and Saylor (1991) observed female correctional officers rated their jobs and supervisors more negatively than male correctional officers. Moreover, Zupan (1986) reported female correctional officers endorsed greater job tension than male officers in a survey of 224 correctional officers.

Some researchers found no significant differences between female and male correctional officers on job stress (Triplett, et al., 1996; Walters, 1992). Additionally, researchers have found no significant gender differences in stress among juvenile correctional officers (Auerbach et al., 2001; Mitchell et al., 2001). Several studies found no significant gender differences on correctional officer job satisfaction (Blau et al., 1986; Cullen et al., 1985; Jurik & Winn, 1987; Walters, 1992; Wright & Saylor, 1992).

Morgan et al. (2002) asserted the inconsistent results regarding gender difference might be due to female officers learning how to adjust or cope to the correctional work environment in more recent years. To support this argument, these authors noted studies reporting gender differences were conducted in the 1980's and studies reporting no differences were conducted in the 1990's. Despite these contradictory findings, the experience of working in correctional security appears different for male and female correctional officers.

Race. With increasing numbers of ethnic minority groups obtaining employment as correctional officers (Van Voorhis et al, 1991), researchers have examined the effect of race on work-related stress and job satisfaction. When discussing race, many authors have posited the “identification” theory, which asserts that ethnic minority employees are more effective in identifying, empathizing, and communicating with inmates due to their common cultural and socio-economic backgrounds with the increasing ethnic minority inmate population (Mitchell et al., 2001). Issues of job stress, job satisfaction, and identification theory as they relate to race will be summarized in the following paragraphs.

From a sample of 2,979 correctional officers and supervisors employed within the Federal Bureau of Prisons (BOP), Britton (1997) found Caucasian male officers reported more job stress than their African-American counterparts. Other researchers have confirmed these findings regarding Caucasian officers experiencing more stress than minority officers (Blau et al., 1986; Cullen et al. 1985; Jurik & Winn, 1987; Wright and Saylor, 1992). Conversely, Morgan et al. (2002) found no significant racial differences on correctional officer burnout and Triplett et al. (1996) found no racial differences on work-related stress. Moreover, there does not appear to be any significant racial differences on reported stress for correctional officers working with juvenile offenders (Auerbach et al., 2003, Mitchell et al., 2001).

Some researchers have found African-American officers reported less job satisfaction than Caucasian officers (Britton, 1997; Cullen et al., 1985; Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Other researchers have found that Caucasian officers reported greater levels of job satisfaction than their non-white counterparts (Blau et al., 1986; Jurik & Halemba, 1984; Wright & Saylor, 1991). Mitchell et al. (2001) found no consistent relationship between race and job satisfaction among juvenile correctional officers and other researchers have found no relationship among adult correctional officers (Wright & Saylor, 1992).

Britton (1997) found African-American and Hispanic male correctional officers perceived themselves as more effective than Caucasian officers when working with inmates, which is consonant with aspects of the “identification” theory. Other studies have supported this theory with adult (Van Voorhis et al., 1991; Whitehead & Lindquist,

1989) and juvenile offenders (Mitchell et al., 2001). Conversely, Cullen et al. (1989) found no racial differences among correctional staff perceptions of inmates.

There are conflicting empirical findings regarding the effects of race on correctional officer stress and job satisfaction. Additionally, there is inconclusive research regarding the “identification” theory as it relates to ethnic minority correctional officer perceptions of inmates (Mitchell et al., 2001). These inconsistent results might be explained by minority officers learning how to cope with the demands of the correctional setting in recent years. Many of the studies demonstrating racial differences were conducted in the 1980’s; whereas, more recent studies in the late 1990’s and early 2000’s found no racial differences. Despite these discrepant findings, race appears to impact correctional officer work perceptions of inmates, which might contribute to greater overall work stress.

Education. As with other demographic variables, researchers have examined the role of education on correctional officer occupational experiences. This variable is particularly relevant given the increase in correctional officer education level attainment over the past thirty years (Mitchell et al., 2001; Rogers, 1991).

There is strong evidence to indicate that higher levels of education are associated with job dissatisfaction of correctional staff (Cullen et al., 1985; Jurik & Halembe, 1984; Jurik, Halembe, Musheno, & Boyle, 1987; Robinson, Porporino, & Simourd, 1997; Van Voorhis, et al., 1991). Additionally, Mitchell et al. (2001), found more educated juvenile correctional staff reported significantly greater levels of job dissatisfaction than less educated staff.

Notwithstanding the research supporting the relationship between education and job dissatisfaction, other researchers have either found the absence of negative effects or even positive effects associated with higher education. In their study of correctional officer burnout, Morgan et al. (2002) found officer education contributed significantly to personal accomplishment and was unrelated to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Grossi and Berg (1991) demonstrated that officers with higher education reported significantly more job satisfaction. Rogers (1991) found officers with some college education reported lower levels of job satisfaction than officers with either a college education or no college degree. When explaining these results, Rogers suggested that officers with a college degree might view their jobs as temporary; whereas, officers with some college might believe they have less employment opportunities, which contributes to lower job satisfaction.

Two main hypotheses have been advanced in the correctional literature to account for the differences in job satisfaction for personnel with more education. Rogers (1991) posited that more educated staff experience alienation from other staff with less education, which creates tension and a sense of disrespect for staff with less education. Jurik et al. (1987) asserted that individuals with more education may experience less job satisfaction due to the limited autonomy and promotional opportunities found in paramilitary like organizations, such as correctional settings.

The previous review summarizes the literature related to the institutional and demographic variables associated with correctional officer stress, burnout, and job satisfaction. Despite some noted contradictory findings, the overall results suggest that

the correctional work environment is stressful for officers. Although the bulk of existing literature explores the work experiences of correctional officers, researchers have investigated the effects of the correctional environment on other employees.

Other Correctional Personnel. As with most occupational settings, correctional environments employ personnel representing many disciplines. Typical occupational areas include administration, education, and medicine. The warden is the chief administrator and is responsible for the overall operation of a correctional facility

In a national survey of 641 state prison wardens, Flanagan, Johnson, and Bennett (1996) found that respondents generally reported high levels of job satisfaction. However, a comparison of these survey results with results from a similar survey conducted in 1989 (Cullen, Latessa, Kopache, Lombardo, & Burton, 1993) indicated a qualitative decline in several aspects of job satisfaction. More specifically, the percentage of wardens that reported they would keep their job if free to change occupations declined from approximately 73% in 1989 to 66% in 1995 and the percentage of respondents that would recommend their job to a friend fell from 73% in 1989 to 68% in 1995. Flanagan et al. (1996) suggested changes in prison politics and increasing bureaucracy in recent years might account for some of this observed decrease in job satisfaction. There were no significant differences in job satisfaction associated with gender, education level or age. However, these researchers found that Caucasian wardens reported significantly less job satisfaction than their non-white counterparts. Although the authors did not discuss this observed relationship, it is feasible that non-white wardens experienced greater job satisfaction due to greater “identification” with

inmates. This “identification” theory has been demonstrated with correctional officers (e.g., Britton, 1997; Van Voorhis et al., 1991; Whitehead & Lindquist, 1989).

In a study of 40 post-secondary educators working with inmates, Tewksbury (1993) found that participants reported high levels of job satisfaction. Tewksbury attributed these results to the social and structural compensations of the correctional work environment. The former includes the interpersonal interactions and emotional benefits of teaching, and the latter refers to the unique teaching opportunities provided in a correctional facility. Notwithstanding the reported job satisfaction of correctional educators, Tewksbury asserted that post-secondary educators experience stress related to the unpredictability of daily correctional operations, interactions with custodial staff, and deficient inmate academic skills.

Within state and federal correctional facilities, the predominate health care workers include nurses, physician assistants, and health care technicians (Gulotta, 1987). From these disciplines, nurses represent the largest group of correctional health care employees (Flanagan & Flanagan, 2002).

Gulotta (1987) surveyed 50 registered nurses with at least six months employment in a state correctional hospital to assess job satisfaction and factors influencing their work. The results indicated nurses perceived the goals and policies of administration as opposed to nursing services. Notwithstanding this observation, nurses reported high overall levels of job satisfaction. Gulotta concluded that nurses were satisfied with their jobs due to the uniqueness of the work environment, which was attributed to the new technological hospital setting, competitive salaries, low turnover, and high morale.

In a study of correctional nurse job stress and job satisfaction, Flanagan and Flanagan (2002) surveyed 287 registered nurses employed in state prison health care facilities. These authors found that participants reported high levels of job satisfaction and moderate levels of stress associated with their jobs. Additionally, there was a negative correlation between perceived stress and job satisfaction. That is, as perceived stress increased, job satisfaction levels decreased for nurses.

In summary, correctional facilities employ workers representing several different disciplines. From the existing literature, it appears that wardens, educators, and nurses are generally satisfied with their jobs. However, research suggests a decline in some aspects of job satisfaction for prison wardens from 1989 to 1995. Regarding correctional educators, Tewksbury (1993) asserted that the work environment is marked by stress due to interactions with security personnel, deficient inmate academic skills, and unpredictable daily operations. Furthermore, the medical care of mentally ill offenders create difficult situations for nurses, including professional isolation, challenging relationships with offenders, and role ambiguity or blurring of job tasks (Paternel-J-Taylor & Johnson, 1995).

Mental Health Professionals. There is a network of mental health professionals representing several different disciplines, including social work, counseling, psychiatry, and psychology, providing treatment services for inmates (Magaletta & Boothby, 2003). When working with offenders, mental health professionals often encounter unique challenges within the correctional environment, including therapeutic resistance, malingering, and high levels of confrontation (Norton, 1990). Additionally, these mental

health professionals must adhere to the overall correctional goals of prisoner management and security (Ferrell, Morgan, & Winterowd, 2000).

In an effort to study the job satisfaction of correctional mental health professionals providing group therapy, Ferrell et al. (2000) surveyed 162 staff working in 79 state facilities. Their participants included 22 clinicians with doctoral training, 99 with master's level training, and 38 with a bachelor's or other training. These authors found that the participants were generally satisfied with their jobs, but were less satisfied with performing administrative tasks and with the amount of individual supervision they received relative to their other work responsibilities. Additionally, there were no significant differences between gender and education on levels of job satisfaction.

Mental health professionals are often involved in the provision of specialized rehabilitative services to inmates. State and federal correctional facilities have developed specialized treatment programs to address the increasing number of incarcerated sex offenders (Becker & Murphy, 1998). These comprehensive treatment approaches typically include cognitive-behavioral therapy in conjunction with relapse prevention strategies. Often sex therapists work with inmates that exhibit the following barriers to treatment: denial, minimization, poor empathy, self-absorption, and poor motivation (Farrenkopf, 1992). All of these therapeutic barriers likely hinder the therapeutic process, which presents a challenging and stressful task for sex therapists that may contribute to burnout (Reitzel, 2003; Thorpe, Righthand, & Kubik, 2001).

Farrenkopf (1992) surveyed 24 sex offender therapists with a structured questionnaire to assess perceived impact of working with sex offenders, perceived stages

of impact, coping strategies, and possible gender differences between therapists.

Farrenkopf found that 54% of the surveyed therapists experienced a decrease in hope and an increase in cynicism toward working with sex offenders. Farrenkopf also reported that 42% of the sample reported increased anger, decreased toleration for the behavior of others, and emotional hardening after working with this group of offenders.

Additionally, Farrenkopf observed that 38% of the therapists reported disillusionment with the correctional system and 25% of the therapists reported feelings of depression, exhaustion, stress, and burnout. Farrenkopf concluded that “therapists working with sex offenders experience considerable stress due to clients’ criminal personality traits and their offenses, the involuntary nature of treatment, questionable prognosis and recidivism, shortcomings of the judicial and rehabilitation system and a shortfall of support” (p. 222).

Regarding gender differences, Farrenkopf found female sex offender therapists reported feelings of increased vulnerability and paranoia when compared to their male counterparts. Additionally, female respondents reported greater concern regarding their children’s safety and tended to spend less time working with sex offenders than male therapists. From these observations, the work experience of female sex offender therapists in correctional facilities might be qualitatively different than their male counterparts.

In an effort to assess the effects of sex offender contact on workers from different occupations, Thorpe et al. (2001) surveyed 70 professionals representing the following disciplines: psychiatrists (n = 2), psychologists (n = 4), clinical social workers (n = 6), attorneys (n = 8), judges (n = 5), Department of Human Service (DHS) caseworkers (n =

35), DHS administrators (n = 9), and one unidentified occupation. These researchers found that DHS caseworkers and administrators reported the highest level of emotional distress, which corresponded to the “intensity with which the different professionals interact with sex offenders” (p. 202). Moreover, Thorpe et al. suggested that caseworkers might experience the greatest potential for burnout due to extended contact with both the sexual perpetrators and victims. These researchers recommended that sex offender therapists employ stress management techniques to help them cope with the adverse effects of working with sex offenders.

In addition to group therapies and specialized sex offender treatments, there is a myriad of other mental health services provided within a correctional facility. Clinicians representing many different disciplines perform many of these tasks. However, some unique mental health services require psychological expertise.

Correctional Psychologists. Correctional psychologists are one of the primary providers of mental health services in correctional facilities (Boothby & Clements, 2002), and are charged with tasks of diagnostic assessment, treatment, and consultation. Other professional opportunities for correctional psychologists include hostage negotiations, court-ordered forensic evaluations, suicide psychological autopsies, staff training, and staff counseling (Hawk, 1997). To this end, Magaletta and Boothby (2003) asserted that psychologists are likely more versatile than other mental health professionals in providing these unique mental health services within a correctional environment due to their education and training. Despite the importance of psychologists working in a

correctional environment, there are only a handful of existing studies examining the experiences of psychologists working in correctional settings.

Due to the rising number of inmates with mental health needs, the ranks of correctional psychologists have grown from approximately 80 in 1945 (Corsini, 1945) to a more recent estimate of 2,138 (Camp & Camp, 2002). Of this latter estimate, approximately 800 psychologists are trained at the doctoral level and 1200 have their master's degree (Clements, 1999). However, this increase is disproportionate to the increase in the number of inmates needing mental health services (Clements, 1999; Boothby & Clements, 2000). Boothby and Clements (2002) concluded, "attracting, recruiting, and retaining qualified professional staff remains a challenge" (p. 730). In response, Boothby and Clements recommended that correctional facilities establish a work environment that attracts and retains qualified psychologists. To this end, Levinson (1985) asserted that correctional administrators should afford more attention to the orientation process of newly hired correctional psychologists since they either have little or no previous correctional working experience.

In one of the first empirical studies of correctional psychologists, Corsini and Miller (1953) surveyed 43 psychologists employed in adult American correctional settings. These authors noted that only one out of four psychologists possessed an advanced doctoral degree. The top ten most frequently cited professional activities included (with percentage of reporting respondents in parentheses): intellectual assessment (95%), personality measurement (93%), report writing (93%), staff meetings (72%), counseling (72%), aptitude assessment (60%), research (58%), administration

(58%), group therapy (58%), and academic assessment (33%). When asked about institutional complaints, Corsini and Miller found that many respondents mentioned conflict with the differing role concepts of a correctional psychologist, regard by other personnel as psychometricians, and poor cooperation from security when needing to remove inmates for interviewing.

Norton (1970) surveyed 47 full-time and 30 part-time correctional psychologists employed in Canadian juvenile and adult correctional facilities. Norton found participants reported spending 48% of their time conducting assessment, 30% of their time providing therapy, 13% of their time in administrative tasks (i.e., staff training and departmental committees), and 8% of their time conducting research. Norton concluded the total number of psychologists employed in corrections was small relative to other correctional personnel.

Otero, McNally, and Powitsky (1981) surveyed adult correctional facilities operated by U.S. state and federal governments along with Canadian regional and state authorities to explore the roles and duties of psychologists. Of the 617 psychologists responding, 352 respondents were trained at the master's level and 265 had their doctorate. Researchers found psychologists reported spending an average of 16.7% of their time providing individual therapy, 15.2% of their time conducting referred evaluations, 12.3% of their time performing initial screenings, and 10% of their time performing administrative tasks. When the actual and ideal percentages of time devoted to these activities were compared, the results indicated correctional psychologists would like a significant decrease in administrative tasks and psychological evaluations.

Additionally, the respondents reported dissatisfaction with the limited opportunities for advancement and advancement often equated to an administrative position with a concomitant reduction in traditional psychological responsibilities.

In a survey of 121 correctional psychologists affiliated with the Association of Correctional Psychology (ACCP), Smith and Sabatino (1990) found their respondents spent their time primarily engaged in the following activities: 24% performing diagnostics and assessment, 20% conducting counseling and psychotherapy, and 18% involved with program administrative tasks. Additionally, these authors found correctional psychologists indicated they would prefer a reduction of time spent performing diagnostic assessments and administrative functions and an increase in time spent conducting research and psychotherapy.

Boothby and Clements (2000) surveyed 830 state and federal correctional psychologists. It was noted that 59% of their sample held a doctorate and 37% were trained at the master's level. Additionally, 38% of their respondents were female and 62% were male. These researchers found correctional psychologists reported spending their time engaged in the following activities: administrative tasks (30%), treatment (26%), assessment (18%), crisis intervention (9%), staff training (8%), consultation (7%), and research (1%). Boothby and Clements (2000) observed correctional psychologists reported a desire to spend less time performing administrative tasks and more time devoted to inmate treatment.

In a follow-up article utilizing the same data set, Boothby and Clements (2002) found correctional psychologists reported the least job satisfaction with the professional

atmosphere, opportunities for advancement, and influence on decision making. Additionally, there was a significant negative correlation between total job satisfaction and number of inmates per facility. That is, correctional psychologists were less satisfied in facilities with more inmates. These researchers found psychologists reported significantly higher levels of job satisfaction if they had prior training working with offenders. Moreover, they found correctional psychologists employed in federal facilities were significantly more satisfied than their state employed counterparts in the following areas: job security, salary, achievement in job, status of job, professional atmosphere, safety, opportunity for advancement, and appropriate level of responsibility.

In summary, there are relatively few existing studies examining the work-related experiences of correctional psychologists (Boothby & Clements, 2002). Despite the dearth of research in this area, there are notable findings emerging related to this occupation. The roles and functions of correctional psychologists have generally remained the same throughout the last fifty years (Magaletta & Boothby, 2003). However, the percentage of time devoted to these responsibilities appears to have shifted over the years, with greater time associated with administrative tasks in recent years. Despite the contribution to the literature of the aforementioned studies on correctional psychologists, no studies have compared these mental health professionals with other public service psychologists.

Public Service Psychology

Psychologists work in a variety of jobs and settings (Roediger III, 2000), including private practice, academia, hospitals, counseling centers, corporations, and government. Many psychologists work in settings that primarily serve the public. Examples of these work environments include Veteran Affairs (VA) medical centers, community mental health agencies and state hospitals, and criminal justice settings, such as correctional facilities (Public Service Psychology, 2004). The patients served in these settings, by public service psychologists, are underserved and often present with severe mental illness, violence, and substance abuse (Safarjan, 2002).

According to the APA Division of Psychologists in Public Service (i.e., Division 18), psychologists employed in community and state hospitals treat individuals with serious mental illness, conduct research, and program evaluation within the confines of public mental health settings. Psychologists working within criminal justice settings primarily serve incarcerated individuals in state or federal correctional facilities. Psychologists working for the Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) provide mental health services to American veterans within a large network of inpatient and outpatient health care facilities.

Although no existing studies have compared the various public service work environments, there are likely to be several key similarities among these settings for psychologists. Each of these facilities receives monetary funding from governmental bodies, either direct federal funds or combined state and federal funding. Due to the source of funding, there are likely to be similar regulations in place governing the

operation of service provision (e.g., administrative oversight). Additionally, the patients served in these settings are frequently institutionalized due to histories of severe mental illness, violence, and substance abuse (Safarjan, 2002).

Notwithstanding these similarities, there are also distinctive characteristics unique to each public service work environment. Within the correctional environment, the work experiences of psychologists might be different than psychologists employed in VA medical settings, community and state hospitals, and counseling centers. Occupational constructs that might assess these experiences include burnout, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction.

Burnout

During the mid-1970's, researchers began exploring the effects of occupational stressors on worker performance and functioning, especially within the human service disciplines (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). In his seminal work on burnout, Freudenberger (1974) posited that burnout is a process of emotional depletion that leads to personal and work-related difficulties. After personally experiencing this phenomenon as a psychiatrist working in a community health care agency, Freudenberger identified the following physical signs: physical exhaustion and fatigue, shortness of breath, frequent headaches, gastrointestinal difficulties, and sleeping disturbance. Additionally, Freudenberger delineated several factors that increase employee vulnerability and proposed preventative steps to thwart the development of burnout symptomatology.

Shortly after Freudenberger published his personal observations of burnout, Maslach began a line of burnout research from a social psychology perspective (Maslach,

1978). Maslach and colleagues defined burnout as a “syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity” (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996, p. 4). Jackson, Schwab, and Schuler (1986) noted that burnout is more common among people who engage in intensive work-related interactions. Moreover, Pines and Maslach (1978) asserted that burnout was more prevalent among workers in the health and social service fields.

Emotional exhaustion, the most overt manifestation of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001), is characterized by feelings of emotional overextension and emotional draining due to contact with other people (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). Excessive emotional exhaustion often results in a distancing of the worker and the service recipient (Maslach et al., 2001), which is referred to as depersonalization. This process involves the development of cynical and callous responses toward the recipient of services (Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Maslach et al., 1996). Due to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Maslach et al., 2001), the sense of personal effectiveness is likely to erode, which results in reduced personal accomplishment or the decline in feelings of competency and successful achievement (Leiter & Maslach, 1988).

Researchers have identified several negative consequences associated with burnout. Studies have revealed the following correlates observed in the workplace: increased job turnover, higher absenteeism, lower productivity, and decreased job satisfaction (Maslach et al., 2001). Additionally, Maslach (1978) found burnout is

associated with psychosomatic illness, increased use of alcohol and drugs, mental illness, and marital problems.

In addition to the physical correlates of burnout, researchers have asserted that burnout is associated with negative job attitudes and a negative self-concept (Pines & Maslach, 1978), feelings of anger, cynicism, frustration, personal incompetence or inefficacy (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998), and physical exhaustion (Maslach et al., 1996). Several personal factors have been identified as influencing the degree of burnout, including age, formal education, work attitudes, and personality traits (Maslach et al., 2001).

Job Satisfaction

Although some researchers confuse burnout and job dissatisfaction, Whitehead and Lindquist (1989) asserted the two are conceptually different and should be assessed separately. Instead of describing a process of coping with stress, Whitehead and Lindquist argued that job satisfaction is the appraisal of global satisfaction with the employment setting. Similarly, Martin and Schinke (1986) contended that job satisfaction is the overall assessment of positive emotions related to an individual's work.

Notwithstanding the reported theoretical differences between job satisfaction and burnout, these two concepts are not unrelated (Jayaratne, Himie, & Chess, 1991). Similar to burnout, job satisfaction is negatively correlated with higher absenteeism (Steel & Rentsch, 1995; VandenHeuvel & Wooden, 1995). Wolpin, Burke, and Greenglass (1991) asserted that a one-way relationship exists between burnout and job satisfaction with emotional burnout lowering levels of job satisfaction over time.

However, job satisfaction does not reportedly impact levels of employee burnout. Additionally, these authors contended that the types of work stressors are more predictive of poor job satisfaction than burnout. That is, burnout might be more related to specific internal traits of a worker and less related to the situational external characteristics of the work environment, which is more associated with job satisfaction. In sum, these two related but conceptually different constructs appear to be indicators of a worker's response to an occupational setting.

Life Satisfaction

Similar to the overlap between burnout and job satisfaction, many researchers have used life satisfaction and subjective well-being (i.e., happiness) interchangeably. As one of several methods to conceptualize subjective well-being, social scientists have focused on an individual's personal evaluation of life satisfaction (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). Consequently, this individual assessment is subjective in nature and based on the individual standards or criteria for what constitutes a good life. Global assessments of life satisfaction along with individual domain satisfactions and emotional responses comprise the much broader concept of subjective well-being (Diener et al., 1999).

Researchers have explored the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Tait, Padgett, and Baldwin (1989) found individuals reporting greater life satisfaction are more productive at work. Others have found a positive and reciprocal relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction (Judge & Watanabe, 1993).

Overall, it appears that individuals experience greater job satisfaction when they are satisfied with their life (Robbins & Kliewer, 2000).

Professional Identity

In an effort to understand the relationship between professional identity and burnout, Kremer and Hofman (1985) studied 183 teachers representing different levels of seniority and school level. This research found that weak professional identity was associated with greater levels of teacher burnout. To prevent burnout, the authors recommended an education program aimed at increasing teacher professional identity through challenging and fulfilling experiences related to teaching.

Other researchers have examined the effects of professional identity stress on mental health professionals. In a survey study of 218 psychiatrists holding executive administrative positions, Sherwood and Greenblatt (1987) identified three sources of stress: professional identity, job related, and scrutiny. These authors describe stress related to professional identity as threats to the core elements of a psychiatrist's professional being, such as research, clinical practice, and medicine. Job related stress was conceptualized as difficulties associated with work responsibilities, such as limited resources, restrictions on hiring and terminating of personnel, and confusion regarding work performance feedback. Lastly, Sherwood and Greenblatt defined stress associated to scrutiny as bureaucratic paperwork, continuous reviews of job performance, and politically charged committee investigations. These authors identified professional identity, job related, and scrutiny as three major sources of stress for psychiatrists.

Summary

The previous review has described the existing literature related to the correctional work environment. It should be noted that much of this review involved studies employing passive research designs (i.e., ex post facto survey) and reliance on correlational data. Due to the associative nature of this research methodology, causation between variables cannot be established with confidence. Notwithstanding this weakness, quantitative surveys are conducive for collecting data from individuals actively employed within their natural work environment. Therefore, the findings from these studies have merit in describing the naturalistic phenomena associated with correctional employment.

Although a few of the aforementioned studies found discrepant and contradictory results (e.g., gender and race effects for correctional officers), a review of the correctional literature highlights consistent themes regarding correctional employees. These findings strongly suggest that the correctional work environment is replete with occupational stressors for security personnel. Institutional and demographic variables appear to influence the effects of these stressors on correctional employees. Examples of these variables range from role conflict, personal security, shift work, gender, race, and educational attainment.

Within the past two decades, researchers have examined several occupational issues related to correctional workers. Although the bulk of this research has focused primarily on correctional officers, it is reasonable to extrapolate the findings to other occupations employed within the same work environment. One of these occupations in

question is that of correctional psychologists. There are no published peer reviewed studies that have simultaneously examined the constructs of burnout, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction of these mental health service providers. In response, the present study seeks to ascertain whether psychologists employed within correctional facilities experience greater degrees of burnout, job dissatisfaction, and life dissatisfaction when compared to other public service psychologists.

APPENDIX B
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions

Please complete the following questionnaire.

- 1) Age: _____ 2) Gender: ____ Male ____ Female
- 3) What is your racial/ethnic origin?
____ African American/Black ____ Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander
____ Hispanic/Latino(a) ____ Native American/American Indian
____ Non-Hispanic White/Caucasian ____ Other (please specify) _____
____ Biracial/Multiracial (please specify) _____
- 4) What is your relationship status?
____ Single or Never Married ____ Widow/Widower
____ Cohabiting/Living Together ____ Divorced
____ Separated ____ Other (please specify) _____
____ Married/Partnered
- 5) What is the highest degree you have obtained or earned?
____ Ph.D. ____ Psy.D. ____ Ed.D. ____ M.A./M.S. ____ Other (specify) _____
- 6) What specialty area is your psychology training in?
____ Counseling ____ School
____ Clinical ____ Other (please specify) _____
____ Combined
- 7) Rate how you professionally identify with your psychology training (answer to question #6):
Not at all Slightly Moderately Strongly Very Strongly
____ 1 ____ 2 ____ 3 ____ 4 ____ 5
- 8) What other professional postgraduate credentials/training have you obtained?
____ Postdoctoral Fellowship ____ ABPP Certification
____ Other graduate training (e.g., pharmacology training) _____
- 9) What is your primary theoretical orientation?
____ Psychoanalytic/Psychodynamic ____ Client Centered
____ Cognitive/Cognitive-Behavioral ____ Humanistic/Existential
____ Behavioral ____ Interpersonal
____ Eclectic/Integrative ____ Gestalt
____ Reality Oriented Therapy ____ Other (please specify) _____
- 10) Which is your primary occupational setting?
____ Community or State Hospital ____ Corrections/Prison
____ University Counseling Center ____ Other (please specify) _____
____ Veteran Affairs Hospital
- 11) Rate how you professionally identify as a psychologist representing your occupational setting (answer to question #10):
Not at all Slightly Moderately Strongly Very Strongly
____ 1 ____ 2 ____ 3 ____ 4 ____ 5

PLEASE TURN OVER

- 12) How long have you worked in your present occupational setting?
 _____ Year(s) _____ Month(s)
- 13) How many hours per week do you work in this setting? _____ Hours per week
- 14) What category most accurately describes your job title?
 _____ Staff Psychologist _____ Director/Administrator
 _____ Chief Psychologist _____ Other (please specify) _____
 _____ Training Coordinator
- 15) Which one best describes your employment arrangement? _____ Salaried _____ Consultant
- 16) Approximately what percentage of your week is spent performing the following activities in your primary employment setting (total should = 100%):
 _____ Individual Psychotherapy _____ Group Psychotherapy _____ Formal Assessments
 _____ Crisis Intervention _____ Supervising others _____ Receiving supervision
 _____ Case Management/Rounds _____ Administrative Tasks _____ Report Writing/notes
 _____ Other (please specify) _____
- 17) If you work in a correctional facility, what is the security level?
 _____ Minimum _____ Super-maximum
 _____ Medium _____ Not Applicable
 _____ Maximum _____ Other (please specify) _____
- 18) If you work in a correctional facility, what is the approximate ratio of psychologists to inmates?
 One psychologist to _____ inmate/patients
- 19) Please list below the professional organizations/associations that you belong to:

- 20) On average, how many hours a week do you engage in supplementary work outside your primary occupational setting (i.e., private practice, consultation, etc.)? _____ Hours per week
- 21) In the past 3 years, how many students/interns have you supervised? _____
- 22) In the past 3 years, how many times have you served on an editorial board of a peer reviewed journal?

- 23) In the past 3 years, how many times have you served as an ad hoc reviewer for a peer reviewed journal?

- 24) In the past 3 years, how many articles have you published or had accepted for publication in a peer reviewed journal? _____
- 25) In the past 3 years, how many posters, papers, and/or symposiums have you presented at a conference?

- 26) In the past 3 years, how many continuing education workshops have you provided? _____
- 27) In the past 3 years, how many professional conferences have you attended? _____
- 28) In the past 3 years, how many college level courses have you taught? _____
- 29) Please list below how you would best characterize your professional identity (e.g., clinical psychologist, counseling center psychologist, correctional psychologist, VA psychologist, etc.)

APPENDIX C

SATISFACTION WITH LIFE SCALE (SWLS)

Below are five statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 1-7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding. The 7-point scale is as follows:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Slightly Disagree
- 4 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 5 = Slightly Agree
- 6 = Agree
- 7 = Strongly Agree

- ___ 1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
- ___ 2. The conditions of my life are excellent.
- ___ 3. I am satisfied with my life.
- ___ 4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
- ___ 5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

APPENDIX D

INTRODUCTORY LETTER/CONSENT FORM

Dear Psychologist:

I am a counseling psychology doctoral candidate at Texas Tech University. As part of my dissertation research project, I am examining professional issues of public service and counseling center psychologists. Your name was randomly selected as a part of a national sample of practicing psychologists. I would greatly appreciate it if you would consider taking the time to complete the enclosed questionnaires. However, if you do not consider your primary employment (i.e., working more than 35 hours per week) to be in a correctional facility, community or state hospital, Veteran Administration (VA) medical setting, or university counseling center, please return the uncompleted materials in the self-addressed stamped envelope.

Your participation in this study will consist of completing a demographic form and three questionnaires that will take between **15 and 20 minutes of your time**. There are no foreseeable risks and your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose to participate, please complete these survey materials and return them in the self-addressed postpaid envelope by **April 21, 2005**. By completing and returning these questionnaires, you are giving your informed consent for participation in this study.

We ask that you do not provide your name on any of the forms, as all of the information you provide is strictly confidential. Identification numbers are included on the questionnaire packets in order to ensure that confidentiality of participation is maintained. These identification numbers are for data analysis and logistical purposes only.

If you are interested in obtaining the results of this study, please complete the form at the bottom of this letter and return this page with your survey. To maintain the confidentiality of your participation, we will separate this sheet from the survey measures upon receiving them. This letter does not contain an identification number so your responses will not be connected to your name in any way after this form has been separated from the instruments.

Thank you for your time and participation in this study. If you have any questions, please contact me at (214) 616-8501 or via e-mail at aven.senter@ttu.edu. As the faculty advisor, Dr. Morgan is also available at (806) 742-3711 x 231 to answer any questions you might have about the study. For questions about your rights as a subject or about injuries caused by this research, contact the Texas Tech University Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, Office of Research Services, Texas Tech University, Lubbock, Texas 79409, or you can call (806) 742-3884.

Sincerely,

W. Aven Senter, M.A.
Doctoral Candidate

Robert D. Morgan, Ph.D.
Co-Director, Division of Counseling Psychology
Dissertation Committee Chairperson

If you are interested in the results, please complete and return with your survey:

Name: _____
Address: _____

APPENDIX E
FOLLOW-UP POSTCARD

FRONT LEFT CORNER

Aven Senter, M.A.
Department of Psychology
Texas Tech University
Box 42051
Lubbock, TX 79409-2051

BACK OF POSTCARD

Dear Psychologist,

I hope this postcard finds you well. This correspondence is to follow-up on the previously mailed surveys from my dissertation research project examining professional issues of public service and counseling center psychologists. If you have already participated, thank you for your time and please disregard this postcard. If not yet returned, but willing to participate please return the materials by **March 21, 2005**. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at (214) 616-8501 or via e-mail at aven.senter@ttu.edu. My faculty advisor, Dr. Morgan, is also available at (806) 742-3711 x 239 to answer any questions you might have regarding the study.

Sincerely,

Aven Senter, M.A.
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX F
SECOND FOLLOW-UP POSTCARD

FRONT LEFT CORNER

Aven Senter, M.A.
Department of Psychology
Texas Tech University
Box 42051
Lubbock, TX 79409-2051

BACK OF POSTCARD

Dear Psychologist,

I hope this postcard finds you well. This correspondence is the final follow-up on the previously mailed survey from my dissertation research project examining professional issues of public service and counseling center psychologists. If you have already participated, thank you for your time and please disregard this postcard. I have approximately 70% of the data for my dissertation. I only need between 10 and 20 more participants per group. So, if your willing to participate, please return the materials in the self addressed postpaid envelope. If you need new copies of the instruments, please e-mail me at aven.senter@ttu.edu. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at (214) 616-8501 or via e-mail. My faculty advisor, Dr. Robert Morgan, is also available at (806) 742-3711 x 231 to answer any questions you might have regarding this study.

Sincerely,

Aven Senter, M.A.
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX G

TABLES

Table 1. The Age of Participants.

Group	N	Mean	SD
CJ	43	52.05	8.32
VA	55	53.49	7.79
CC	49	50.65	8.95
PPH	54	53.94	8.36
Total	201*		

Note. *N does not equal 203 due to missing data

Table 2. The Gender of Participants.

Group	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
CJ	23	52.27	21	47.73
VA	32	59.26	22	40.74
CC	24	48.98	25	51.02
PPH	32	59.26	22	40.74
Total	111*		90*	

Note. *N does not equal 203 due to missing data

Table 3. The Race of Participants.

Race	<u>CJ</u>		<u>VA</u>		<u>CC</u>		<u>PPH</u>	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
African American	0	0	1	1.85	3	6.12	1	1.89
Asian American	1	2.27	0	0	0	0	1	1.89
Biracial/Mulitracial	0	0	0	0	2	4.08	0	0
Caucasian	41	93.18	51	94.44	43	87.75	49	92.45
Hispanic	2	4.55	0	0	0	0	0	0
Native American	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other	0	0	2	3.7	1	2.04	2	3.77
Total	44	100	54*	99.99	49	99.99	53*	100

Note. *N does not equal 56 and 54, respectively, due to missing data; Some percentages do not equal 100 due to rounding error

Table 4. The Marital Status of Participants.

Marital Status	<u>CJ</u>		<u>VA</u>		<u>CC</u>		<u>PPH</u>	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Cohabiting	1	2.27	1	1.82	0	0	2	3.70
Divorced	7	15.91	7	12.73	0	0	12	22.22
Married/Partnered	34	77.27	41	74.55	42	85.7	136	66.67
Separated	0	0	1	1.82	0	0	0	0
Single	2	4.55	5	9.09	2	4.08	3	5.55
Widowed	0	0	0	0	1	2.0	41	1.85
Total	44	100	55*	100.01	49	99.99	54	99.99

Note. * *N* does not equal 56 due to missing data; Some percentages do not equal or exceed 100 due to rounding error

Table 5. Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS) Scores.

Group	<u>EE</u>		<u>DP</u>		<u>PA</u>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
CJ	21	9.22	7.41	4.64	40.10	5.09
VA	17.17	9.45	5.16	4.32	41.50	4.50
CC	16.84	7.62	4.26	3.46	42.95	3.73
PPH	20	9.98	5.39	4.68	39.96	5.85

Note. EE = Emotional Exhaustion; DP = Depersonalization; PA = Personal Accomplishment

Table 6. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form (MSQ-SF) Scores.

Group	<u>INT</u>		<u>EXT</u>		<u>GEN</u>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
CJ	49.36	5.57	19.52	4.50	76.02	9.67
VA	50.29	5.28	18.89	3.74	76.77	9.23
CC	52.18	3.91	20.72	4.35	81.23	7.70
PPH	49.37	5.30	19.06	4.58	75.50	9.97

Note. INT = Intrinsic Satisfaction; EXT = Extrinsic Satisfaction; GEN = General Satisfaction

Table 7. Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) Scores.

Group	Total Score	
	Mean	SD
CJ	26.95	4.49
VA	28	4.46
CC	28.34	4.57
PPH	25.15	5.63

Table 8. Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS) Scores by Gender.

Group	<u>EE</u>		<u>DP</u>		<u>PA</u>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Males	20.78	8.86	8.70	4.96	40.54	5.68
Females	21.24	9.81	6.00	3.91	39.62	4.44

Note. EE = Emotional Exhaustion; DP = Depersonalization; PA = Personal Accomplishment

Table 9. Correlation Matrix for Dependent Variables.

	DegProf	JobProf	EE	DP	PA	GEN	SWLS
DegProf	1	.209**	-.110	-.035	.103	.058	.152*
JobProf	.	1	-.209**	-.071	.303**	.382**	.173*
EE			1	.564**	-.242**	-.487**	-.427**
DP				1	-.255**	-.335**	-.323**
PA					1	.407**	.275**
GEN						1	.474**
SWLS							1

Note. DegProf = Professional Identity of Psychology Training; JobProf = Professional Identity of Occupational Setting; EE = Emotional Exhaustion; DP = Depersonalization; PA = Personal Accomplishment; GEN = General Job Satisfaction; SWLS = Life Satisfaction; *N* ranged from 200-203 due to missing data; * $p < .01$; ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed)

Table 10. Factor Matrix with One Factor.

Variable	Factor 1
ProfOrg	.225
Supplmnt	.030
Students	.088
Editor	.534*
AdHoc	.719*
JnlPub	.952*
ConPresent	.501*
Workshop	-.001
ConAttend	-.043
Courses	-.043

Note. * Loading $\geq .32$

Table 11. Factor Matrix with Two Factors.

Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2
ProfOrg	.228	-.030
Supplmnt	.029	.320
Students	.087	.309
Editor	.535*	-.012
AdHoc	.722*	-.066
JnlPub	.948*	.008
ConPresent	.503*	.111
Workshop	-.002	.283
ConAttend	-.045	.207
Courses	-.047	.701

Note. * Loading $\geq .32$