

Correctional Officer Punitiveness, Self-Control, and Rehabilitative Training

by

Wesley T. Smith

A Thesis Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science

Approved April 2018 by the
Graduate Supervisory Committee:

Kevin Wright, Chair

Cody Telep

Jacob Young

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

May 2018

ABSTRACT

Correctional officers are increasingly being trained in evidence-based practices and the willingness of officers to implement what they have learned is crucial for organizational reform. Most of the literature in this area has examined officer attitudes about rehabilitation and punitiveness. Left out are additional characteristics, such as self-control, that may affect an officer's receptivity to learn and implement new techniques. The present study examines officer receptiveness to motivational interviewing using 280 surveys administered to correctional officers tasked with both delivering and supervising program delivery to inmates within the Arizona Department of Corrections. Three broad questions are asked: 1) Are officer attitudes about punishment associated with receptivity toward implementing rehabilitative techniques? 2) Are officer levels of self-control associated with receptivity toward implementing rehabilitative techniques? and 3) Is the association between officer attitudes toward punishment and receptivity toward implementing rehabilitation techniques moderated by officer self-control? The results suggest that punitiveness and self-control both have statistically significant direct effects on correctional officer receptivity to training and that self-control does not moderate the relationship between punitiveness and receptivity to training. However, these findings could be due to limitations in the present study's sampling and statistical methods. Policy implications and future research are discussed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my committee, Drs. Kevin Wright, Cody Telep, and Jacob Young for their unwavering guidance and support throughout this project. I would also like to thank Kerry Hyatt, the Reentry Coordinator and Grant Manager at the Arizona Department of Corrections, for being a champion not only of this project but, for Arizona State University's research relationship with ADC. I would also be remiss if I did not thank the nearly countless (okay, 280) correctional officers who admirably, sat through and completed the numerous surveys included in this project and our greater data collection efforts to aid us in obtaining the insights central to the project at hand. Finally, special recognition is deserved to my mother, colleagues in the California Army National Guard, and academic family at ASU for their unwavering support and encouragement. This thesis is based upon work supported by the U.S. Department of Justice's Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) Second Chance Act Statewide Recidivism Reduction Program, Award 2016-CZ-BX-0016. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the BJA or ADC.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES.....	v
LIST OF FIGURES.....	vi
INTRODUCTION.....	1
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	3
Evidence-Based Practice in Modern Correctional Environments.....	3
Moving Past Global Attitudes.....	4
Motivational Interviewing.....	5
Role-Conflict and Punitive Orientations.....	7
Self-Control.....	8
CURRENT FOCUS	12
DATA AND METHODS	13
Study Setting.....	13
Independent Variables.....	14
Dependent Variables.....	17
Control Variables.....	18

Analytic Strategy.....	20
RESULTS	21
DISCUSSION	29
CONCLUSION	34
REFERENCES.....	40
APPENDIX	
A FACTOR RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF SCALE MEASURES.....	50
B FACTOR RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF BRIEF SELF-CONTROL.....	52
C VARIANCE INFLATION FACTOR.....	54
D CORRELATION MATRIX OF ALL VARIABLES IN STUDY.....	56
E SURVEY TOOL.....	58

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Descriptive Statistics.....	19
2. Effect of Punitiveness on Receptivity to Training.....	22
3. Effect of Self-Control on Receptivity to Training.....	24
4. Effect of Punitiveness, Self-Control, and Receptivity to Training.....	27
5. The Moderating Effect of Self-Control on Receptivity to Training.....	28

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Punitive Dimensions of Self-Control.....	10
2. Scale of Self-Control Scale Eigenvalues.....	15
3. Punitive Orientation Scale Eigenvalues.....	17

INTRODUCTION

Multiple correctional agencies across the country have moved past Martinson's (1974) once agreed upon claim that nothing works in corrections. Much of the current criminological literature suggests that the most sensible and responsible long-term approach to corrections or rather, *what works*, may be rehabilitation (Cullen, 2007)—so long as programs are run effectively, efficiently, and are carried out until curriculum completion (Griffith, Hiller, Knight & Simpson, 1999). The growing evidence-based practice movement in the United States is predicated upon the premise of a need for rigorous, independent evaluation of program effectiveness, often measured by the metric of recidivism reduction. Further methods of evidence-based practice such as the Risk-Need-Responsivity (RNR) model suggest that it is important for rehabilitative efforts aimed at recidivism reduction to focus upon who should receive treatment, the appropriate targets of treatment, and the most effective means of delivering treatment (Andrews & Bonta, 2010).

While measuring program effectiveness against the goal of diminished levels of reoffending is ideal, current research has begun to pay close attention to the roles which staff play in programmatic delivery (Bonta & Andrews, 2007; Coyle, 2002). However, few if any studies have considered the construct of staff receptivity to implementing methods in which they are trained that may conflict with professional attitudes towards those they supervise and what they believe should be the overarching goal of correctional institutions. This is problematic given that the receptivity to implement new and novel methods of supervision and programming on the part of correctional officers may be

crucial when such programs require substantial time, planning, and preparation from correctional officers to enact them within the prison environment. Because officer attitudes towards training have been a major hindrance in some rehabilitative program implementations in the past (Miller & Rollnick, 2002; Thigpen et al., 2012), examining correctional officer receptivity to training may be the key to explaining unknown slippage between program design and delivery within research models.

The current study uses data from surveys administered to correctional officers prior to training to examine the relationship between correctional officer characteristics and receptivity to deliver programming. Specifically, the study contains information from 280 surveys delivered to correctional officers prior to their participation in classes in motivational interviewing (MI), a rehabilitative approach centered upon encouraging clients to commit to goals of behavioral change (McMurrin, 2009; Thigpen et al., 2007; Thigpen et al., 2012). Three broad research questions are addressed: 1) Are officer attitudes toward punishment associated with receptivity toward implementing rehabilitative techniques, 2) Are officer levels of self-control associated with receptivity toward implementing rehabilitative techniques, and 3) Is the association between officer attitudes toward punishment and receptivity toward implementing rehabilitation techniques moderated by officer self-control? The broader purpose of this study is to determine what factors influence correctional officer receptivity to implement training.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Evidence-Base Practice in Modern Correctional Environments

In recent years, there has been a strong emphasis by the federal and state governments on recidivism reduction. This, in concert with an evidence-based practice effort to improve programmatic outcomes, standardization, and fidelity, has undoubtedly given rise to numerous research opportunities and a more robust body of literature in the last several decades. The National Institute of Corrections (NIC) defines evidence-based practice as “the objective, balanced, and responsible use of current research and the best available data to guide policy and practice decisions, such that outcomes for consumers are improved” (Crime and Justice Institute at Community Resources for Justice, 2009, p.ix). Under the NIC definition, practices which are evidence-based make use of critical research to determine what practices are most effective in reaching underlying programmatic goals and have outcomes which are definable, measurable, and which are in alignment with practical realities and goals such as recidivism reduction. Considering these principles, evidence-based practices should necessarily lead to the rigorous evaluation of programs to ensure they meet their stated goals in the most effective manner. However, over the past several decades, evidence-based practices have been found to require substantial organizational development, through the improvement of infrastructure, training of frontline actors, and the transformation of organizational culture (Clawson, Bogue & Joplin, 2005).

Existing literature has specifically assessed orientations towards organizational changes and adopting emerging practices and found that there are four dimensions of attitudes towards evidence based practices: 1) intuitive Appeal of EBP; 2) likelihood of adopting EBP given requirements to do so; 3) openness to new practices; and 4) perceived divergence of usual practice with research-based/academically developed interventions (Aarons, 2004). In correctional environments in which newer rehabilitative methods diverge from past practices that were more punitive, one might expect individual factors such as openness (receptivity) and appeal of evidence-based practice (framed by officer punitiveness) to be a large component of the decision by individual officers to be either receptive, ambivalent, or resistant to the implementation of emerging evidence-based practices.

Moving Past Global Attitudes

When the existing literature is more critically considered, it can be observed that the operationalization of support for rehabilitation may be problematic (Applegate et al., 1996). Simply put, current operationalizations of support for programming can be classified as largely general. For the most part, scholars have only asked correctional officers whether they support rehabilitation and to what degree they support rehabilitation relative to the more punitive goals of correctional institutions. Few, if any studies, move past questions relating to global attitudes to determine if correctional officers support rehabilitation to the degree that they will dedicate their own individual level resources such as time, energy, and focus towards the implementation of rehabilitative practice.

Because of this, most literature can be classified as determining whether correctional staff offer *general* support for rehabilitative techniques and concepts.

There is little research that is explicit in asking correctional officers if they are willing to implement rehabilitative programs, methods, and techniques in addition to addressing the numerous environmental and organizational concerns they are required to meet daily. Similar to specific attitudes towards contextualized policies or cases, one might expect to find a gap between global and specific attitudes regarding receptivity to training (Cullen, Fischer & Applegate, 2000). While it is outside of the scope of the current study to compare global versus specific attitudes, it does serve to address the often-overlooked side of this knowledge gap in contemporary criminal justice research – specific attitudes. Going forward, it is suggested that scholars do not solely focus on support for the general ideal of rehabilitation, but also include measures which are concerned with correctional officers implementing specific interventions. This will frame the concept of rehabilitation to officers in such a manner that they may weigh the tangible implications of their answers - and the individual cost. Measures built upon this *specific support* not only gauge an officer's feelings towards the concept of rehabilitation, but also if they will act upon those feelings and dedicate the substantial time and work such initiatives may require.

Motivational Interviewing

One such evidence-based practice, motivational interviewing, was originally instituted in the substance abuse and treatment field in the 1980's as an alternative to the

confrontational and often polarized counseling methods employed at the time (Thigpen et al., 2007). After over 170 randomized clinical control trials in various fields (Thigpen, Beauclair, Brown, & Guevara, 2012), motivational interviewing is now considered a somewhat standardized, brief, formal intervention as well as an evidence-based practice (Burke et al., 2003; Lundahl et al., 2007). As such, motivational interviewing is a widely-accepted tool in fields ranging from psychology, to healthcare, and corrections, where it is used to change criminogenic behaviors by helping offenders explore and resolve ambivalence towards change (Miller & Rollnick, 2002). Rather than relying on offenders to be highly responsive to change and initially motivated to seek changes in behaviors that are criminal, motivational interviewing serves as a structured, novel method of re-scripting purposeful and targeted conversations between correctional officers and offenders. Instead of using more traditional methods, which rely on institutional rules, targeted programs, and external pressure from correctional officers to inspire change in offenders, motivational interviewing looks for ways to access offender's internal motivations for change (Thigpen et al., 2007).

Motivational interviewing is done through preplanned, structured conversations or interviews between correctional officers and offenders. In these conversations, correctional officers lead offenders to identify their own internal motivations for change. The structured interviews of motivational interviewing are designed to then lead offenders to engage in programs within the institutions they are incarcerated, increasing their responsivity to whatever correctional programs they are receiving, and fulfilling offenders' internal motivations for change. There is a growing body of research regarding

the practice, which has been found to successfully change criminogenic behaviors in offender populations (Hartzler & Espinosa, 2011; Thigpen et al., 2007; Thigpen et al., 2012) and more specifically, reduce predatory aggression (Clair-Michaud, et al., 2015), as well as increase the likelihood of client initiation into treatment programs for substance abuse (Spohr et al., 2014). While such outcomes are not directly related to recidivism, one can easily imagine the downstream effects that lower levels of aggression and higher rates of treatment participation may have on desistance from crime.

Role-Conflict and Punitive Orientations

Correctional officers serve dual roles which are sometimes at odds with one another as both custodians tasked with policing offenders within institutions and caregivers focused on enabling personal growth and change in offenders (Thigpen et al., 2012). The expectations of correctional officers as both a carceral custodian and caregiver seem to some degree to result in ambiguous behavioral expectations and result in role conflict (Hepburn & Albonetti, 1980). This role conflict has been described as a spectrum with concerns relating to security and crime control on one end, and offering both assistance and rehabilitations to offenders on the other (Lutze, 2013). The role-conflict previously identified happens in the middle where correctional officers work, in an effort to meet demands on both ends of the spectrum. As an adaptation to address role conflict correctional officers typically align themselves within different orientations: 1) welfare workers whose goal is to introduce clients to a better way of life by motivating constructive behavioral patterns via support and guidance, 2) punitive agents whom

enforce compliance through strict adherence to organizational and legal policies, and 3) protective agents who represent a synthesis of the other two, seeking to reconcile the functions of legal agents with those of counselors (Allard, Wortley & Stewart, 2010).

The literature indicates that adopting the dual role as caregiver in addition to custodian is beneficial, particularly when allowing the formation of relationships or treatment alliances between offenders and correctional officers, which may positively affect the fidelity of programs (Brown & O'Leary, 2000; Skeem et al., 2007; Taft et al., 2003). Kenneally and colleagues (2012) find that relationships characterized by firm, fair, and caring approaches insulate offenders against rearrests and that regardless of risk factor, demonstrate that the characteristics of relationships matter when supervising offenders. However beneficial when exercised effectively, the dualistic nature of the roles which correctional officers fill may represent an adaptation of officers in response to the competing goals of supervisor and counselor.

Self-Control

While officer receptivity to training is likely in part, contingent upon training aligning with their professional orientations, it must be considered that at least in some cases programs and the punitive orientations of officers do not align. How then do correctional officers in situations with misalignments either choose to comply with or resist training, rehabilitative programs, and agency policies? Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) posit that amongst other things, at the individual level, low self-control is the cause of crime and analogous behaviors. Further, they posit that those with low self-

control seek immediate gratification, lack the capacity to understand or foresee the consequences of their actions, have little regard for how their actions affect others, and ostensibly seek to avoid discomfort (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). The positions outlined in their seminal work have been supported through many studies over the past 30 years, specifically regarding criminal activity (Gibbs, Giever, & Higgins, 2003; Pratt & Cullen, 2000; Sellers, 1999). However, Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) propose a general theory, which means that their presumption of a self-control link to deviance is not only applicable to crime but also to deviance in general (Reisig & Pratt, 2011).

Tests of the theory which observe the relationship between self-control and deviance, or analogous behaviors – those that are not necessarily categorized criminal – generally, support Gottfredson and Hirschi’s claims as well (Cochran et al., 1998; Donner & Jennings, 2014; Reisig & Pratt, 2011). Other research has been conducted to analyze the link between low self-control and occupational deviance. Such research has generally supported the notion that low self-control is correlated with deviance in the workplace, often observing criminal acts related to employment, unethical conduct in the workplace and violation of workplace rules, policies and regulations (Piquero, Schoepfer, & Langton, 2010; Simpson & Piquero, 2002; Van Wyk, Benson, & Harris, 2000). These studies are particularly concerned with deviant actions as violations of workplace norms, occurring within a professional environment.

Studies regarding workplace deviance are not relegated solely to analogous behaviors within commercial enterprises. Donner and Jennings (2014) apply the

theoretical framework presented by Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) to police officer misconduct. They find low self-control to be a predictor of verbal and physical abuse complaints against officers, being the subject of an internal affairs investigation, and having engaged in general misconduct in the course of duty (Donner & Jennings, 2014). However, low self-control in the workplace is not necessarily correlated with malicious acts of deviance, but rather serves as an explanation of compulsivity, that is, to take the “easy way out” or the path with the most immediate and substantial gratification.

Self-control can be thought of as a guidance system that correctional officers use to navigate the organizations in which they operate. If correctional officers with lower levels of self-control naturally follow “paths of least resistance” within an organization, it could be expected that officers with lower self-control follow organizational policies and procedures more often and compliantly than officers whose personal attitudes conflict with organization goals and have relatively higher levels of self-control. The relationship

Figure 1. Punitive Dimensions of Self-Control

	Punitive Orientation	Rehabilitative Orientation
High Self-Control	Disciplined Punitive Agents	Disciplined Rehabilitators
Low Self-Control	Unrestrained Punitive Agents	Unrestrained Rehabilitators

between self-control and correctional officer orientation can be considered at its most basic level, a 2x2 table (see Figure 1). There are four potential patterns: 1) high self-control and punitive orientation (disciplined punitive agents), 2) low self-control and punitive orientation (unrestrained punitive agents), 3) high self-control and rehabilitative orientation (disciplined rehabilitators), and 4) low self-control and rehabilitative orientation (unrestrained rehabilitators).

In line with the existing literature, disciplined punitive agents and rehabilitators are expected to be less likely to be involved in analogous behaviors such as resisting training due to their relatively high levels of self-control. This is seen as the ability to override individual needs to validate their own attitudinal orientations in favor of organizational norms. Conversely, unrestrained punitive agents and rehabilitators might be more likely to deviate from organizational norms due to their low self-control. When the moderating effect of self-control on the relationship between punitiveness and receptivity is considered, it is expected to find that unrestrained punitive agents are the least receptive, while disciplined rehabilitators are the most receptive to training.

The relationship between self-control and officer implementation of rehabilitative practices may be somewhat complex and nuanced in its pragmatic application within correctional environments. After all, it may be easy for an officer with little supervision from middle managers in a parole or probation environment to break a small rule here and there. In the case of rehabilitative training programs and techniques, officers are not likely to be overtly combative towards their organization (as this would likely result in the termination of their employment), but rather act ambivalent or disinterested towards

training and techniques which conflict with their attitudes. It is these officers who are likely to comprise the 30% of all trainees determined by Thigpen and colleagues (2012) to be noncompliant towards learning motivational interviewing.

Taken altogether, there is a need to fill the current gap in the evidence-based practice literature. While there is general support for rehabilitative practices from correctional administrators to frontline staff, there is less clarity regarding who will dedicate nonpecuniary resources to these measures. Some research has indicated that receptivity to training is based on both organizational and individual determinants (Aarons, 2004; Stirman et al., 2013). As such, researchers are still left wondering just *who* wants to implement specific rehabilitative methods amongst frontline actors and if punitiveness, self-control, or otherwise unknown characteristics influence this calculus. Considering the large amount of resources that must be dedicated to instituting such programs in any given state correctional agency with custodianship of tens of thousands of offenders, the implications of answering such a question may be as practical to departments of corrections as they are impactful to current theories.

CURRENT FOCUS

Much recent criminological literature suggests that the most sensible and responsible long-term approach to the growing corrections industry may be rehabilitation (Cullen, 2007). This is assuming such programs are run effectively, efficiently, and are carried out until curriculum completion (Griffith, Hiller, Knight & Simpson, 1999). When analyzing how programs are run and their efficacy, researchers should observe those who have a direct role in delivering them. While this has been done to some degree

in prior literature, little research has been focused upon the individual characteristics of officers and how they influence receptivity to programming. In the cases of correctional officers who have punitive attitudes counter to rehabilitative programming and reform, there are questions as to how and if these attitudes are overridden in alignment with departmental policies and evolving cultures favoring such programming. Simply put, the current study seeks to determine what correctional officer characteristics are associated with receptivity or *willingness* towards implementing supervision techniques which are rehabilitative in nature.

DATA AND METHODS

Study Setting

The data used in this study were collected during the Arizona Department of Corrections' (ADC) implementation of MI training. In collaboration with ADC, researchers from Arizona State University administered pen and paper surveys to correctional officers over the course of one year. The correctional officers contained in the sample are Correctional Officers III and IV. Correctional Officer III's are responsible for meeting the programmatic needs of various institutional facilities across the state of Arizona. Correctional Officer IV's deliver programming to offenders in institutions as well as manage and supervise Correctional Officers Level III to ensure correctional program fidelity.

The surveys within the study took place at an ADC administrative center and training facility in downtown Phoenix, Arizona as well as at the Correctional Officer

Training Academy in Tucson, Arizona. Surveys were administered to correctional officers on the morning of the sample's first MI class, directly prior to such training taking place. The number of correctional officers approached to complete the survey was 280. This sample consists of approximately one-half of all Correctional Officer IIIs (70.36% of the sample), and all but one Correctional Officer IVs (26.43% of the sample) employed statewide by ADC at the time of the study. The survey contained 77 questions, 70 of which were five-item response Likert scale type questions. No correctional officers refused to participate in the survey.¹

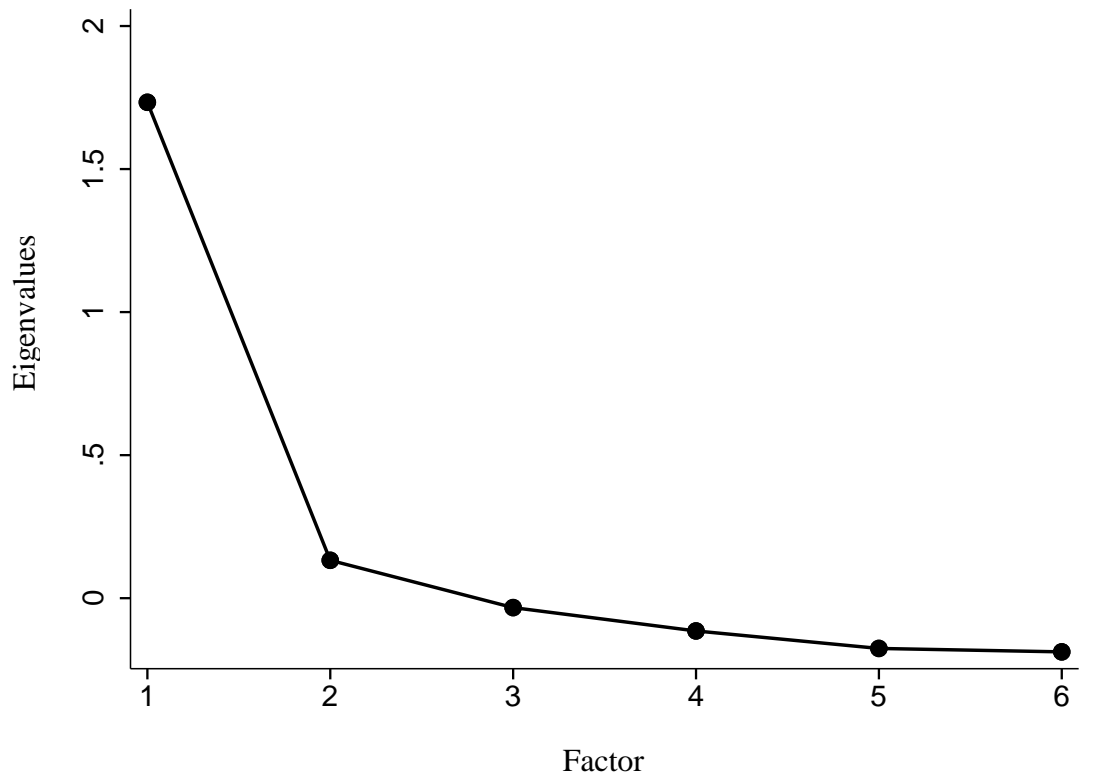
Independent Variables

Self-Control. The self-control scale is derived from items in the Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone (2004) Brief Self-Control Scale, which have been adapted to be appropriate to assessing self-control as it relates to the duties of correctional officers whose primary responsibility is case management. It consists of six, five-item Likert scale questions that form an additive scale: I am good at resisting the temptation to take “the easy way out” during my daily duties; I often have trouble concentrating on tasks related to case managing inmates (reverse-coded); I am able to work effectively towards long term goals relevant to my duties as a correctional officer; In my work, I try to avoid projects that I know will be difficult (reverse-coded); When approaching my work as a correctional officer, I always think through all possible alternatives before acting; and I

¹ Approximately 3.2% of the sample either did not respond to the survey item asking correctional officer position or answered in such a manner where the respondents position was undeterminable.

have a high level of self-discipline when approaching my work. The mean level of self-control in the current sample is 24.53 and ranges from possible values of 6 to 30 (See Table 1). These variables are interrelated and load on a single factor using exploratory factor analysis as seen in Figure 3, with an eigenvalue of 1.733 on the primary factor and all factors loading above .45, demonstrating sufficiently fair loadings that are of practical significance (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 1998). The scale has a relatively high reliability ($\alpha = .71$) and is adequate for the purposes of the current analysis (see Appendix A).²

Figure 2. Scale of Self-Control Scale Eigenvalues

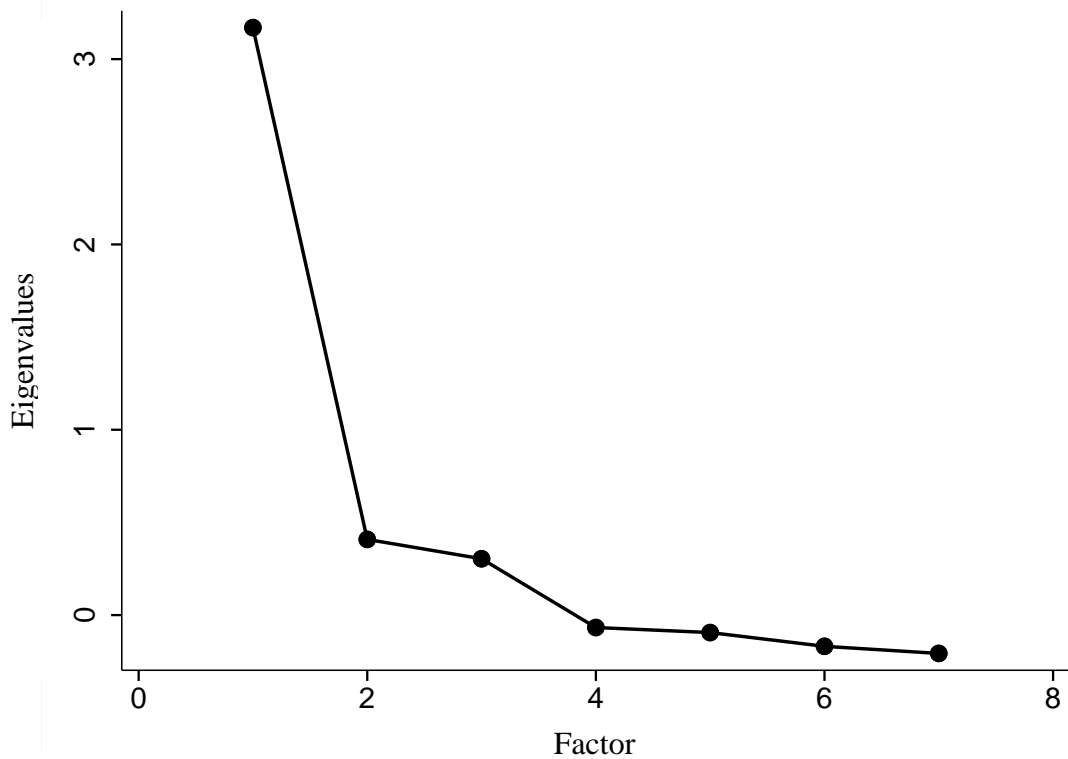


² Items were removed from this Brief Self-Control Scale due to poor factor loadings likely resulting from the contextualization of the scale in the present study to address self-control as it relates to respondent's occupation rather than the general measure of self-control in Tangney, Baumeister, and Boone (2004). Results in the current analysis did not diverge significantly from

Punitiveness. The punitiveness measure is derived from items relating to the measure of toughness in Skeem, Louden, Polaschek, and Camp's (2007) Dual Role Relationship Inventory-Revised as well as other measures of punitiveness and attitudinal orientations counter to rehabilitative training models (Farkas, 1999; Whitehead, Lindquist, and Klofas, 1987). It consists of seven, five-item Likert scale questions which form an additive scale: I believe that correctional officers should play an important role in the rehabilitation of inmates (reverse-coded); I believe that the purpose of prisons should be to punish, not to offer treatment programs; I believe that most inmates can go on and lead productive lives with help and hard work (reverse-coded); I think that we should punish inmates rather than rehabilitate them; I believe that with help, most inmates have the ability to change their own problem behaviors (reverse-coded); I believe that attempting to rehabilitate offenders is a waste of time; and I believe that rehabilitation programs are a waste of time and money. The mean level of punitiveness in the current sample is 21.01 and ranges from possible values of 7 to 35 (See Table 1). These variables are interrelated and load on a single factor using exploratory factor analysis as seen in Figure 4, with an eigenvalue of 3.17 on the primary factor and all factors loading above .45, demonstrating sufficiently fair loadings that are of practical significance (Field, 2009; Jolliffe et al., 1998). The scale has a high reliability ($\alpha = .841$) and is sufficient for the purposes of the current analysis (see Appendix A).

those using the full Brief Self-Control Scale. See Appendix B for a factor analysis on the original scale within the sample.

Figure 3. Punitive Orientation Scale Eigenvalues



Dependent Variables

The dependent variable used in the current analysis is the receptiveness of an officer to implement MI in their daily duties and tasks. This measure was created by providing officers with a five-item Likert scale question gauging the level to which they agree with the following statement: I want to use Motivational Interviewing in my work with inmates. Initial possible responses to this question were: Strongly Agree ($n = 64$), Agree ($n = 110$), Neutral ($n = 95$), Disagree ($n = 9$), and Strongly Disagree ($n = 1$). The variable was then recoded into a binary outcome with measuring either compliance to use

MI ($n = 174$) or ambivalence ($n = 105$) (See Table 1)³. One response was missing from this variable resulting in an overall $n = 279$.

Control Variables

Consistent with prior research on correctional officers' punitiveness and orientation, a variety of demographic variables serve as controls in the current analysis (See Table 1). Officer age is a continuous variable, ranging from 26 to 70 years of age, with a mean of 44.92. Correctional officer gender is coded as a dichotomous variable with 142 males (50.71%) and 138 females (49.29%). Race/ Ethnicity is broken up into four dummy variables: White (52.17%), Black (9.06%), Hispanic (30.43%), and Other (8.32%). It is of note that the "Other" racial/ethnic category primarily consisted of officers who self-reported as being of Native American, Asian, and Asian Pacific Islander heritage. "White" will serve as a reference category in the following analyses as it is the most common racial/ ethnic category. Additionally, educational attainment is coded as four dummy variables: High school (14.64%), Some College (58.93%), College Degree (18.93%), and Graduate Degree (7.5%). "High School" will serve as a reference category in the analyses as a High School Diploma serves as the mandatory minimum educational attainment to become a correctional officer in the state of Arizona. Last, current length of employment (LOE) within ADC will serve as a continuous variable, ranging from 4 to 360 months, with a mean length of employment of 164.31 months, or 13.69 years.

³ The results of the current analysis did not significantly diverge from additional models not included which removed officers who disagreed or strongly disagreed to using MI in their daily duties.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

Variable	%	<i>N</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	Mean	(SD)
Correctional Officer Position						
CO III	70.36	197				
CO IV	26.43	74				
Gender						
Male	50.71	142				
Female	49.29	138				
Education						
High School	14.64	41				
Some	58.93	165				
College						
College	18.93	53				
Degree						
Graduate	7.50	21				
Degree						
Race						
White	52.17	114				
Black	9.06	25				
Hispanic	30.43	84				
Other	8.33	23				
Receptivity						
Receptive	62.37	174				
Ambivalent	37.63	105				
Age					44.9	9.35
Length of Employment					164.31	68.98
Punitiveness			7	35	21.01	5.61
Self-Control			6	30	24.53	3.04

Note: Correctional Officer Level: *N* = 271; Receptivity: *N* = 279.

All other descriptive statistics: *N* = 276

Analytic Strategy

The current project used three separate analyses. To answer the first two research questions, “Are officer attitudes toward punishment associated with receptivity toward implementing rehabilitative techniques?” and “Are officer levels of self-control associated with receptivity toward implementing rehabilitative techniques?” two logistic regression models (logit) with control variables listed in the preceding section will be used (StataCorp, 2017). The first two models are structured in such a way that the dependent variable (receptivity to implementing MI) is dichotomous and the independent variables (the punitiveness scale or self-control) are continuous variables in separate models, with gender, length of employment, race/ethnicity, and education serving as control variables. Additionally, a variance inflation factor (VIF) post regression estimation was conducted to determine if any variables were disproportionately affecting the variance within models (See Appendix C). After initially running the VIF test (uncentered option), it was determined that age highly inflated the variance within models. Additionally, age was determined to be moderately correlated with length of employment (See Appendix D). Due to this, age was omitted from all the following models. Finally, to answer the third research question, “Is the association between officer attitudes toward punishment and receptivity toward implementing rehabilitation techniques moderated by officer self-control?” two logistic regression models will be used (StataCorp, 2017). Each of these models will include punitiveness and self-control measures. The final model will add a multiplicative interaction term which is the product of punitiveness and self-control.

Missing Data. In the current analysis 26 cases (9.26%) had missing data. It was determined that listwise deletion was the appropriate method to be used to address missing data in each model due to the data being missing completely at random (MCAR) as determined by analysis of results from a missing data estimation calculator statistical component add-on in Stata (Medeiros & Blanchette, 2011). Variables which were missing data were: receptive to using MI ($n = 1$, 0.36%), punitiveness ($n = 9$, 3.21%), self-control ($n = 6$, 2.14%), race ($n = 4$, 1.01%), age ($n = 4$, 1.01%), and length of employment ($n = 1$, 0.36%). It is of note that listwise deletion does reduce the statistical power of models. After conducting a missing data analysis, it has been determined that in variables pertinent to the current models 5% of cases had missing data in one or more variables. Therefore, it has been deemed that the current data are sufficiently complete for the use of listwise deletion (Allison, 2002; Graham, 2008).

RESULTS

Q1: Are officer attitudes toward punishment associated with receptivity toward implementing rehabilitative techniques. The results for the first model are included in Table 2. Unstandardized coefficients and odds ratios are reported. The analysis found a significant relationship between officer punitiveness, gender, and receptivity to implement MI.

Model 1 demonstrates that for every one-unit increase in punitiveness, there is a .196 decrease in the log-odds of receptivity to use MI (see Table 2). For a one unit increase in punitiveness, the odds of being receptive to MI are .821 times less, given that

Table 2: Effect of Punitiveness on Receptivity to Training

Variable	B	(SE)	Odds Ratio
Punitiveness	-.196***	(.039)	.821***
Correctional Officer Position	-.138	(.115)	.870
Male	-.761**	(.290)	.466**
Length of Employment	.001	(.002)	1.001
White	<i>omitted as reference category</i>		
Black	.593	(.524)	1.811
Hispanic	.364	(.325)	1.439
Other	.191	(.568)	1.210
High school	<i>omitted as reference category</i>		
Some College	.058	(.421)	1.060
College Degree	-.065	(.660)	.936
Graduate Degree	-.645	(.880)	.524

Pseudo R^2 .143

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

all other variables in the model are held constant. This effect is statistically significant ($p < .001$). Gender was significant in this model as well ($p < .05$) with the likelihood of being receptive to MI being .466 times lower amongst males given all else equal. Length of employment had virtually no effect on the odds of officer receptivity towards the training. Correctional officer position, race, and educational attainment were not

found to be statistically significant within the current model.

Q2: Are officer levels of self-control associated with receptivity toward implementing rehabilitative techniques. The results for the second model are included in Table 3.⁴

Unstandardized coefficients and odds ratios are reported. The analysis found a significant relationship between officer self-control, gender, and receptivity to implement MI.

Model 2 demonstrates that for every one-unit increase in self-control, there is a .157 increase in the log-odds of receptivity to using MI (see Table 3). For a one unit increase in self-control, the odds of being receptive to MI is 1.170 times greater, given that all other variables in the model are held constant. This effect is statistically significant ($p < .001$). Gender was significant in this model as well ($p < .01$) with the likelihood of being receptive to MI being .489 times lower amongst males given all else equal. Length of employment had virtually no effect on the odds of officer receptivity towards the training. Correctional officer position, race, and educational attainment were not found to be statistically significant within the current model.

⁴ Results did not substantially differ from those using the full Brief Self-Control Scale (Tangney, Baumeister & Boone, 2004).

Table 3: Effect of Self-Control on Receptivity to Training

Variable	B	(SE)	Odds Ratio
Self-Control	.157***	(.046)	1.170
Correctional Officer Position	-.131	(.107)	.876
Male	-.755**	(.279)	.469**
Length of Employment	.004	(.002)	1.004
White	<i>omitted as reference category</i>		
Black	.578	(.498)	1.784
Hispanic	.398	(.316)	1.489
Other	.332	(.534)	1.395
High school	<i>omitted as reference category</i>		
Some College	.437	(.397)	1.548
College Degree	.088	(.473)	1.092
Graduate Degree	-.136	(.630)	.872

Pseudo R^2 .091

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Q3: Is the association between officer attitudes toward punishment and receptivity toward implementing rehabilitation techniques moderated by officer self-control? The results for the third and fourth models are included in Table 4 and Table 5.⁵

⁵ See Appendix D for Model 1, using the full Brief Self-Control Scale (Tangney, Baumeister & Boone, 2004).

Unstandardized coefficients and odds ratios are reported. The analysis did support a moderating effect of self-control on the relationship between officer punitiveness and receptivity to implementing MI.

Model 3 (See Table 4) demonstrates that for every one-unit increase in punitiveness, there is a .177 decrease in the log-odds of receptivity to using MI. For a one unit increase in punitiveness, the odds of being receptive to MI is .837 times less, given that all other variables in the model are held constant. This effect is statistically significant ($p < .001$). Gender was significant in this model as well ($p < .05$) with the likelihood of being receptive to MI being .489 times less amongst males given all else equal. Length of employment had virtually no effect on the odds of officer receptivity towards the training. Correctional officer position, race, and educational attainment were not found to be statistically significant within the current model.

Model 4 (See Table 5) demonstrates that for every one-unit increase in self-control, there is a .604 increase in the log-odds of receptivity to using MI ($p < .05$). For a one unit increase in self-control, the odds of being receptive to MI is 1.829 times greater, given that all other variables in the model are held constant. Additionally, the multiplicative term representing the interaction between punitiveness and self-control (Punitiveness*Self-Control) is found to be statistically significant ($p < .05$), indicating that the effect of punitiveness on receptivity becomes more positive as self-control increases. Gender was significant in this model as well ($p < .05$) with the likelihood of being receptive to MI being .510 times lower amongst males given all else equal. Length of

employment had virtually no effect on the odds of officer receptivity towards the training. Correctional officer position, race, and educational attainment were not found to be statistically significant within the current model.

In the first two models, self-control, punitiveness, and gender are significantly related to receptivity to MI. When an interaction effect is included in the fourth model, it is shown that self-control does have a moderating effect on officer receptivity to using MI. It is important to note that correctional officer position, race, length of employment, and education were not statistically significant in any of the prior models.

Table 4: Effect of Punitiveness, Self-Control, and Receptivity to Training

Variable	B	(SE)	Odds Ratio
Punitiveness	-.177***	(.041)	.837***
Self-Control	.076	(.052)	1.079
Correctional Officer Position	-.122	(.116)	.884
Male	-.713*	(.292)	.489*
Length of Employment	.002	(.002)	1.002
White	<i>omitted as reference category</i>		
Black	.588	(.526)	1.801
Hispanic	.349	(.372)	1.418
Other	.185	(.568)	1.203
High school	<i>omitted as reference category</i>		
Some College	.135	(.426)	1.145
College Degree	-.029	(.502)	.970
Graduate Degree	-.660	(.666)	.516

Pseudo R^2 .149

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 5: The Moderating Effect of Self-Control on Receptivity to Training

Variable	B	(SE)	Odds Ratio
Punitiveness	.012	(.097)	1.012
Self-Control	.604*	(.260)	1.829*
Punitiveness*Self-Control	.013*	(.006)	1.013*
Correctional Officer Position	-.110	(.115)	.895
Male	-.672*	(.297)	.510*
Length of Employment	.001	(.002)	1.001
White	<i>omitted as reference category</i>		
Black	.698	(.540)	2.090
Hispanic	.392	(.432)	1.480
Other	.225	(.508)	1.252
High school	<i>omitted as reference category</i>		
Some College	.129	(.432)	1.138
College Degree	-.098	(.508)	.906
Graduate Degree	-.630	(.663)	.532

Pseudo R^2 .163

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

DISCUSSION

While there are substantial bodies of literature regarding receptivity to training, self-control, and punitiveness, few studies have combined any of these concepts into a singular framework and no known studies have done so examining the unique and important demographic that are correctional officers. Considering the vast financial resources dedicated to rehabilitation in the United States and the important overall goals of evidence-based practices, there is a practical need to understand not only how to deliver high efficacy evidence-based programs (MacKenzie, 2000), but also to recognize that not all staff in correctional institutions may be willing to do so. The current study set out to understand what factors influence correctional officer receptivity to training in and implementing rehabilitative practices. This was done by focusing on two distinct concepts which offer explanatory value toward officer receptivity to implement rehabilitative methods: officer punitiveness and officer self-control, as well as how self-control moderates the relationship between punitiveness and receptivity to training. Based on the results of the current study, four conclusions are evident.

First, punitiveness is significantly correlated with receptivity to implement training. As correctional officer punitiveness increased, receptivity to implementing the rehabilitative method observed (Motivational Interviewing) decreased. Existing literature has indicated that correctional officer attitudes play important roles in the formation of support for rehabilitative programs (Robinson, Porporino, & Simourd, 1993). In the

current sample, which makes use of measures intended to gauge receptivity to specific programs rather than the broad concept of rehabilitation, the results hold true.

Second, self-control is significantly and positively correlated with receptivity to implementing training. In short, as self-control increases in the second model, the receptivity of officers to implementing MI in their daily duties increased. If lack of responsiveness to training is considered in conflict with organizational policies and thusly, “deviant,” the present findings are supported by existing literature which finds that low self-control is associated with analogous deviant behaviors and workplace misconduct (Piquero, Schoepfer, & Langton, 2010; Van Wyk, Benson, & Harris, 2000). As the findings suggest, officers who are disciplined, punitive agents are less likely to deviate from organizational policies, procedures, culture, and norms despite their own misgivings about particular interventions and programs.

Third, contrary to some prior research, gender was found to be significantly correlated with receptivity to training (Jurik, 1985; Cullen, et al.,1989). In the current sample, being male was identified across models as decreasing the odds that correctional officers were receptive to motivational interviewing training. In all the present models, this was found to be statistically significant. The current study also found that being non-white was not statistically significant in regard to training receptivity. Existing literature is mixed in this area. Farkas (1999) finds that race is unrelated to officer attitudes toward rehabilitation. Other research indicates that being nonwhite is a significant predictor of punitiveness and support for rehabilitation (Jackson & Ammen, 1996; Jurik, 1985). While

the directionality between race was maintained across models, it was at no point statistically significant, supporting the notion that race may not matter when considering correctional officer support for rehabilitation. Additionally, the current study finds that education is not significantly correlated with receptivity towards MI.

Fourth, the present study found that self-control did moderate the relationship between punitiveness and receptivity. The findings in the current analysis indicated two things: 1) self-control has a stronger positive effect on officers with higher levels of punitiveness, and 2) punitiveness has a greater positive effect among those officers who have higher self-control. Taken altogether, this may mean that those most likely to be receptive to MI are officers with high self-control and high punitiveness. However, punitiveness and self-control are just two responsivity factors. While the current analysis does indicate significant direct effects on receptivity by both independent variables and that self-control does moderate the relationship between punitiveness and receptivity, future research should be expanded to observe other individual responsivity factors as well as organizational determinants of correctional officer responsiveness to training.

The current study does have limitations. One primary issue is the limited sampling procedure employed. The current study examines 280 correctional officers in the State of Arizona whose primary purpose is the delivery and management of rehabilitative and developmental programs for offenders within institutional settings. Therefore, the sample may not be completely generalizable to all correctional staff, especially those with duties that may seem at least in an anecdotal sense oppositional to

the ideals of rehabilitative practices. Next, the duties and focuses of COIIs and COIVs are different than security-track correctional officers. Considering this, as well as the differential experiences of the two groups by their job focus, the results of the current analysis may not be applicable to correctional officers whose primary function is security and security management. Additionally, ADC's correctional culture may be somewhat unique in comparison to other departments of corrections which may in turn have had an impact on the responsiveness of the officers sampled.

Omitted variable bias may also be a limiting factor in the current study. First, this may be suggested by the relatively low pseudo R^2 in all presented models (none of which surpassed values of .1603). While this could potentially be attributed to the use of a multiplicative interaction term which has been found to be problematic in past studies (Mood, 2010), it is more likely that the low level of variance explained in the current models is due to omitted variables. Pseudo R^2 is an imperfect measure of variance. McFadden's R^2 values from .2 to .4 typically indicate an acceptable goodness of fit (Hensher, & Stopher, 1979). All the models in the current study fall under this threshold. This may indicate that there are one or more variables omitted in the current analysis which are important in explaining the relationship between punitiveness, self-control, and receptivity to training. One such variable may be skepticism, which has Bourgon (2013) suggests affects negativity towards training or, as operationalized within the current study, receptivity. Considering the directionality within the current study of the educational attainment variables, we might expect that having a Graduate Degree is

correlated with a higher level of skepticism, resulting in the negative relationship between this level of education and receptivity in all presented models.

Past research has indicated that education is an important predictor of receptivity to training (Aarons, 2004). While the current analysis does examine educational attainment, perhaps the categories employed are too broad (High School, Some College, College Degree, and Graduate Degree). This may be seen in combining officers with five college credits in categories with officers who could potentially be one or two credits short of a Bachelor's Degree. Future research should then specify more diverse educational attainment categories or request college credit hours to disaggregate variables which are patently vague such as "some college."

Additionally, the present study has shown that some factors within the analysis merit greater attention in future studies. One such factor which might be examined more closely is gender. Being male has been demonstrated by the current study to have a significant and negative direct effect on receptivity. However, such findings may be meaningless when presented to correctional administrators who are looking to increase the receptivity of current staff to training. As such, there is a need to determine *why* male correctional officers are less receptive to training.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study suggest that correctional officer characteristics play an important part in the process of correctional officer receptivity to rehabilitative training methods. Increases in correctional officer levels of punitiveness are associated with lower receptivity to training, while increased correctional officer self-control is associated with higher receptivity to training. Further, it seems that self-control moderates the relationship between officer punitiveness and receptivity to implement MI. The results of the current study generally support the previous literature regarding self-control, punitiveness, and gender. There is no research known to the author which examines whether race and education affect correctional officer receptivity to training. However, the findings conflict with prior research regarding police officers which suggests that race and education affect receptivity to training (Telep, 2017). While it is not initially evident why the findings of the current project are at odds with existing research focused upon law enforcement officers, it may be attributable to the fact that correctional officers are somehow substantially different to police officers, the unique study setting, and the goals of the current project, which to the author's knowledge, have not been previously examined. Future research should examine the unique context of correctional environments for staff training more closely to determine if these differences are due to model limitations, construct validity, or the fact that institutional correctional environments are substantially different from those in which studies have previously occurred.

Despite the documented effectiveness of motivational interviewing in correctional settings, almost 30% of all correctional officers who go through motivational interviewing training either lack the ability or are unwilling to learn the method (Thigpen et al., 2012). In observing the rise and spread of all manners of evidence-based practice in past years, it could be argued that many correctional staff and administrators generally support the goal of rehabilitation as long as such programs do not engender security concerns (Cullen et al., 2002; Lipsey & Cullen, 2007; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2008). However, implementing new programming and methods, especially if they are counter to security concerns or the policies of a more punitive, previous administration is difficult – after all, change is hard, not only for offenders, but for correction agencies and staff themselves. Latessa (2004) observes that assessing a correctional organization’s responsivity toward implementing rehabilitative practices is as important, if not more so, than assessing offender’s receptivity to change before applying programmatic responses to criminal behavior. If this is the case, then the literature should apply equal focus to assessing the receptivity of those front-line actors responsible to executing programs within facilities.

It has been observed that middle managers serve as the gatekeepers between policy makers and street-level actors, ensuring newly implemented policies and regulations are understood and followed (Rudes, 2012). However, street-level actors such as parole officers have varying degrees of autonomy and discretion regarding how they carry out their duties (Lipsky, 2010; Lutze, 2013). Considering this, it is important how middle-management supervisors of correctional officers manage and represent programs

focused on rehabilitation in correctional facilities to street-level actors. If programs are not supported by middle-managers, street-level actors are much less likely to consider them important and may not take them seriously (Rudes, 2012; Tsai & Tai, 2002). As such, there is a need to expand the current analysis and future studies to consider organizational factors such as administrative support and how middle-managers frame training to determine if the effects of such variables on receptivity are substantial, to what degree they may be significant, and which street-level actors they affect most.

While the existing literature has not substantially focused on the effect that these individual officer orientations have on rehabilitative programs, some research has indicated that punitively oriented approaches at the organizational level are not only ineffective at reducing recidivism (Cullen & Gendreau, 2000), but also that organizations which focus on control and punishment inhibit the effectiveness of rehabilitative programs under their purview (Craig, 2004). Jurik (1985) finds that both organizational factors such as how middle-management frames training and demographic factors such as race and gender are important determinants of correctional officers' relationships and attitudes towards offenders. However, little has been done to extend past these findings to determine the disparate effects correctional officer attitudes and organizational culture have on programming in institutional settings. This demonstrates a need for future research to focus on the interactions between organizational support for rehabilitative methodologies, individual officer attitudes, and receptivity.

There are multiple policy implications that can be derived from the current study. First, and perhaps most telling, due to response limitations, receptivity to training had to

be operationalized as dichotomous with response categories being either receptive or ambivalent (neutral towards the training). This was due to the initial five-item Likert response scale demonstrating that remarkably few (3.5%) of correctional officers were totally unreceptive, or unwilling participants to motivational interviewing training. This is an overwhelmingly positive outcome, demonstrating that correctional officers, despite individual characteristics and punitive attitudes, are generally receptive to specific forms of evidence-based practice that are rehabilitative in nature. However, a significant portion of the sample (37.63%) were ambivalent towards the training. Past research has indicated that managerial support for training is a significant predictor of motivation to participate in training (Tsai & Tai, 2002) and that agencies can influence how training is framed by street-level actors through middle management (Rudes, 2012). Therefore, departments of corrections should be mindful of correctional officer views towards evidence-based methods to ensure staff are receptive to the methodologies in which they are trained.

When considering the moderating effect of self-control in the last analysis, the current study indicates that officers who are most punitive and have the highest levels of self-control (disciplined punitive agents) may be the most likely to be receptive to motivational interviewing training. However, these results should be interpreted with caution. While one interpretation is that the most punitive officers with the highest level of self-control (disciplined punitive agents) are the most likely to be receptive to MI, this is predicated upon the assumption that officers who are more punitive start at the same level of self-control as all others. However, as the first model in the current analysis

suggests, more punitiveness negatively effects receptivity to training. Therefore, it is possible if not likely that self-control improves only receptivity outcomes in the cases of more punitive officers and higher levels of self-control may not necessarily result in more punitive officers being the most receptive to training.

Correctional administrators should keep in mind that while individual officers may hold beliefs that at first seem more adversarial to certain types of training, such beliefs may be overridden by self-control or other factors not explored in the current analysis. Moving forward, if departments of corrections intend to spend large amounts of money and time to train officers in emerging evidence-based practices, there is utility in studying the training of these practices to determine who wants to be trained and why. This will allow researchers to refine existing theories regarding training receptivity and more importantly, determine *who* should be trained.

Taken altogether, with a high level of support for MI, there is promise for this method as means for gaining program compliance and a stand-alone intervention targeting criminalistic behavior within correctional agencies. Surprisingly, when both punitiveness and self-control are considered, officers with the highest relative levels of both are the most receptive to training in this specific methodology. Policy makers should then consider that officers who express views counter to rehabilitative methods may not only be receptive to such programs, but their most ardent supporters. While there is a strong literature regarding training receptivity, little of the existing research has occurred within the unique confines of correctional institutions. Considering the limitations of such

research and the findings of the current study regarding disciplined punitive agents' high levels of receptivity to training, we might assert that there are still factors yet to be examined regarding individual willingness to engage in programming. Simply put, there are likely still more important concepts to explore when criminologists move beyond *What works in corrections?* And instead ask *Who works in corrections?* and *why?*

REFERENCES

- Aarons, G. A. (2004). Mental health provider attitudes toward adoption of evidence-based practice: The Evidence-Based Practice Attitude Scale (EBPAS). *Mental health services research, 6*(2), 61-74.
- Allard, T. J., Wortley, R. K., & Stewart, A. L. (2003). Role conflict in community corrections. *Psychology, Crime and Law, 9*(3), 279-289.
- Andrews, D., & Bonta J. (2010). Rehabilitating criminal justice policy and practice. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 16*(1), 39-55.
- Applegate, B. K., Cullen, F. T., Turner, M. G., & Sundt, J. L. (1996). Assessing public support for three-strikes-and-you're-out laws: Global versus specific attitudes. *Crime & Delinquency, 42*(4), 517-534.
- Arneklev, B., Grasmick, J., Tittle, H., & Bursik, G. (1993). Low self-control and imprudent behavior. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology, 9*(3), 225-247.
- Berry, W., DeMeritt, J., & Esarey, J. (2010). Testing for Interaction in Binary Logit and Probit Models: Is a Product Term Essential? *American Journal of Political Science, 54*(1), 248-266.
- Bishop, D. (2012). Evidence-based practice and juvenile justice. *Criminology & Public Policy, 11*(3), 483-489.
- Bonta, J., & Andrews, D. A. (2007). Risk-need-responsivity model for offender assessment and rehabilitation. *Rehabilitation, 6*(1), 1-22.
- Bourgon, G. (2013). The demands on probation officers in the evolution of evidence-based practice: The forgotten foot soldier of community corrections. *Fed. Probation, 77*, 30.

- Brown, P., & O'Leary, K. (2000). Therapeutic alliance: predicting continuance and success in group treatment for spouse abuse. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 68(2), 340-345.
- Burke, B., Arkowitz, H., Menchola, M., Peterson, Lizette, & Vandenbos, Gary R. (2003). The Efficacy of Motivational Interviewing: A Meta-Analysis of Controlled Clinical Trials. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 71(5), 843-861.
- Clair-Michaud, M., Martin, R. A., Stein, L. A., Bassett, S., Lebeau, R., & Golembeske, C. (2016). The impact of motivational interviewing on delinquent behaviors in incarcerated adolescents. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment*, 65, 13-19.
- Clawson, E., Bogue, B., & Joplin, L. (2005). *Implementing evidence-based practices in corrections*. Boston, MA: Crime and Justice Institute.
- Cochran, J., Wood, P., Sellers, C., Wilkerson, W., & Chamlin, M. (1998). Academic dishonesty and low self-control: An empirical test of a general theory of crime. *Deviant Behavior*, 19(3), 227-255.
- Coyle, A. (2002). A human rights approach to prison management: Handbook for prison staff. *The Journal of the Scottish Association for the Study of Delinquency*, 113.
- Craig, S. C. (2004). Rehabilitation versus control: An organizational theory of prison management. *The Prison Journal*, 84(4), 92S-114S.
- Crime and Justice Institute at Community Resources for Justice (2009). *Implementing evidence-based policy and practice in community corrections*, 2nd ed. Washington, DC: National Institute of Corrections.
- Cullen, F. T., Lutze, F. E., Link, B. G., & Wolfe, N. T. (1989). The correctional orientation of prison guards: Do officers support rehabilitation. *Fed. Probation*, 53, 33.

- Cullen, F., Latessa, E., Burton, V., & Lombardo, L. (1993). The correctional orientation of prison wardens: Is the rehabilitative ideal supported? *Criminology*, 31(1), 69-92.
- Cullen, F., Fisher, B., & Applegate, B. (2000). Public opinion about punishment and corrections. *Crime and Justice*, 27, 1-79.
- Cullen, F. T., & Gendreau, P. (2000). Assessing correctional rehabilitation: Policy, practice, and prospects. *Criminal Justice*, 3(1), 299-370.
- Cullen, F., Pealer, J., Fisher, B., Applegate, B., & Santana, S. (2002). Public support for correctional rehabilitation in America: Change or consistency? *Changing attitudes to Punishment*, (128-47). Willan.
- Cullen, F. T. (2007). Make rehabilitation corrections' guiding paradigm. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 6(4), 717-727.
- Cullen, F., Jonson, C., & Nagin, D. (2011). Prisons do not reduce recidivism. *The Prison Journal*, 91, 48S-65S.
- Donner, C. M., & Jennings, W. G. (2014). Low self-control and police deviance: Applying Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory to officer misconduct. *Police Quarterly*, 17(3), 203-225.
- Durose, M. R., Cooper, A. D., & Snyder, H. N. (2014). *Recidivism of prisoners released in 30 states in 2005: Patterns from 2005 to 2010*. Washington, DC: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- Evans, T. D., Cullen, F. T., Burton, V. S., Dunaway, R. G., & Benson, M. L. (1997). The social consequences of self-control: Testing the general theory of crime. *Criminology*, 35(3), 475-504.
- Farkas, M. A. (1999). Correctional officer attitudes toward inmates and working with inmates in a "get tough" era. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 27(6), 495-506.

- Field, A. (2009) *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. Third edition. Sage publications.
- Friedmann, P. D., Taxman, F. S., & Henderson, C. E. (2007). Evidence-based treatment practices for drug-involved adults in the criminal justice system. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment*, 32(3), 267-277.
- Gendreau, P., Smith, P., & Theriault, Y. L. (2009). Chaos theory and correctional treatment: Common sense, correctional quackery, and the law of fartcatchers. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 25(4), 384-396.
- Gibbs, J. J., Giever, D., & Higgins, G. E. (2003). A test of Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory using structural equation modeling. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 30(4), 441-458.
- Goshe, S. (2017). The lurking punitive threat: The philosophy of necessity and challenges for reform. *Theoretical Criminology*, 1-18.
- Gottfredson, M. R., & Hirschi, T. (1990). *A general theory of crime*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Grasmick, H. G., Tittle, C. R., Bursik Jr, R. J., & Arneklev, B. J. (1993). Testing the core empirical implications of Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory of crime. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 30(1), 5-29.
- Griffith, J. D., Hiller, M. L., Knight, K., & Simpson, D. D. (1999). A cost-effectiveness analysis of in-prison therapeutic community treatment and risk classification. *The Prison Journal*, 79(3), 352-368.
- Hartzler, B., & Espinosa, E. M. (2011). Moving criminal justice organizations toward adoption of evidence-based practice via advanced workshop training in motivational interviewing: A research note. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 22(2), 235-253.

- Hensher, D. A., & Stopher, P. R. (Eds.). (1979). *Behavioural travel modelling*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.
- Hepburn, J. R., & Albonetti, C. (1980). Role conflict in correctional institutions. *Criminology*, 17(4), 445-460.
- Jackson, J. E., & Ammen, S. (1996). Race and correctional officers' punitive attitudes toward treatment programs for inmates. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 24(2), 153-166.
- Jolliffe, I., Hair, J., Anderson, R., & Tatham, R. (1988). Multivariate Data Analysis with Readings. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 151(3), 558-559.
- Jurik, N. (1985). Individual and organizational determinants of correctional officer attitudes toward inmates. *Criminology*, 23(3), 523-540.
- Keane, C., Maxim, P. S., & Teevan, J. J. (1993). Drinking and driving, self-control, and gender: Testing a general theory of crime. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 30(1), 30-46
- Kennealy, P., Skeem, J., Manchak, S., & Eno Louden, J. (2012). Firm, Fair, and Caring Officer-Offender Relationships Protect Against Supervision Failure. *Law and Human Behavior*, 36(6), 496-505.
- Kifer, M., Hemmens, C., & Stohr, M. K. (2003). The goals of corrections: Perspectives from the line. *Criminal Justice Review*, 28(1), 47-69.
- Latessa, E. J., Cullen, F. T., & Gendreau, P. (2002). Beyond correctional quackery- Professionalism and the possibility of effective treatment. *Fed. Probation*, 66, 43.

- Latessa, E. J. (2004). The challenge of change: correctional programs and evidence-based practices. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 3(4), 547-560.
- Lee, L. C., & Stohr, M. K. (2012). A critique and qualified defense of “correctional quackery”. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 28(1), 96-112.
- Lipsky, M. (2010). *Street-level bureaucracy: dilemmas of the individual in public service* (30th Anniversary ed.). New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Lumsden, K. (2017). Police Officer and Civilian Staff Receptivity to Research and Evidence-Based Policing in the UK: Providing a Contextual Understanding through Qualitative Interviews. *Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice*, 11(2), 157-167.
- Lundahl, B., Moleni, T., Burke, B.L., Butters, R., Tollefson, D., Butler, C., & Rollnick, S. (2013). Motivational interviewing in medical care settings: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Patient Education and Counseling*, 93(2), 157-168.
- Lutze, F. E. (2013). *Professional lives of community corrections officers: The invisible side of reentry*. SAGE Publications.
- MacKenzie, D. L. (2000). Evidence-based corrections: Identifying what works. *Crime & Delinquency*, 46(4), 457-471.
- Martinson, R. (1974). What works? -Questions and answers about prison reform. *The Public Interest*, (35), 22.
- Medeiros, R. & Blanchette, D. 2011. MDESC: Stata module to tabulate prevalence of missing values Statistical Software Components (version S457318) [software].
- McMurrin, M. (2009). Motivational interviewing with offenders: A systematic review. *Legal and Criminological Psychology*, 14(1), 83-100.

- Miller, W. R., & Rollnick, S. (2002). *Preparing people for change: Motivational Interviewing*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Miller, H. V., Jennings, W. G., Alvarez-Rivera, L. L., & Lanza-Kaduce, L. (2009). Self-control, attachment, and deviance among Hispanic adolescents. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 37(1), 77-84.
- Mitchell, O., Cochran, J. C., Mears, D. P., & Bales, W. D. (2017). Examining prison effects on recidivism: A regression discontinuity approach. *Justice Quarterly*, 34(4), 571-596.
- Mood, C. (2010). Logistic regression: Why we cannot do what we think we can do, and what we can do about it. *European Sociological Review*, 26(1), 67-82.
- Leeper Piquero, N., Schoepfer, A., & Langton, L. (2010). Completely out of control or the desire to be in complete control? How low self-control and the desire for control relate to corporate offending. *Crime & Delinquency*, 56(4), 627-647.
- Lipsey, M. W., & Cullen, F. T. (2007). The effectiveness of correctional rehabilitation: A review of systematic reviews. *Annual Review of Law and Social Sciences*, 3, 297-320.
- Piquero, A., & Tibbetts, S. (1996). Specifying the direct and indirect effects of low self-control and situational factors in offenders' decision making: Toward a more complete model of rational offending. *Justice Quarterly*, 13(3), 481-510.
- Piquero, A. R. (2009). Self-control theory: Research issues. In *Handbook on crime and deviance* (pp. 153-168). New York, NY: Springer.
- Pratt, T. C., & Cullen, F. T. (2000). The empirical status of Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory of crime: A meta-analysis. *Criminology*, 38(3), 931-964.

- Reisig, M. D., & Pratt, T. C. (2011). Low self-control and imprudent behavior revisited. *Deviant Behavior, 32*(7), 589-625.
- Robinson, D., Porporino, F. J., & Simourd, L. (1993). The influence of career orientation on support for rehabilitation among correctional staff. *The Prison Journal, 73*(2), 162-177.
- Rudes, D. (2012). Framing Organizational Reform: Misalignments and Disputes among Parole and Union Middle Managers. *Law & Policy, 34*(1), 1-31.
- Rudes, D. S., Viglione, J., & Taxman, F. S. (2017). Gendered Adherence: Correctional Officers and Therapeutic Reform in a Reentry Facility. *The Prison Journal, 97*(4), 496-519.
- Sellers, C. S. (1999). Self-control and intimate violence: An examination of the scope and specification of the general theory of crime. *Criminology, 37*(2), 375-404.
- Simpson, S., Piquero, N., & Paternoster, R. (2002). Rationality and corporate offending decisions. *Rational choice and criminal behavior: Recent research and future challenges, 32*, 25-39.
- Skeem, J. L., Louden, J. E., Polaschek, D., & Camp, J. (2007). Assessing relationship quality in mandated community treatment: Blending care with control. *Psychological Assessment, 19*(4), 397.
- Spohr, S. A., Taxman, F. S., Rodriguez, M., & Walters, S. T. (2016). Motivational interviewing fidelity in a community corrections setting: Treatment initiation and subsequent drug use. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment, 65*, 20-25.
- StataCorp. 2017. *Stata Statistical Software: Release 15*. College Station, TX: StataCorp LLC.

- Stirman, S. W., Gutiérrez-Colina, A., Toder, K., Esposito, G., Barg, F., Castro, F., Beck, A., & Crits-Christoph, P. (2013). Clinicians' perspectives on cognitive therapy in community mental health settings: Implications for training and implementation. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health and Mental Health Services Research*, 40(4), 274-285.
- Taft, C. T., Murphy, C. M., King, D. W., Musser, P. H., & DeDeyn, J. M. (2003). Process and treatment adherence factors in group cognitive-behavioral therapy for partner violent men. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 71(4), 812.
- Tangney, J. P., Baumeister, R. F., & Boone, A. L. (2004). High self-control predicts good adjustment, less pathology, better grades, and interpersonal success. *Journal of Personality*, 72(2), 271-324.
- Telep, C. (2017). Police Officer Receptivity to Research and Evidence-Based Policing: Examining Variability Within and Across Agencies. *Crime & Delinquency*, 63(8), 976-999.
- Tewksbury, R., & Mustaine, E. E. (2008). Correctional orientations of prison staff. *The Prison Journal*, 88(2), 207-233.
- Thigpen, M. L., Beauclair, T. J., Keiser, G. M., & Guevara, M. (2007). *Motivating Offenders to Change: A Guide for Probation and Parole*. US Department of Justice, Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Corrections.
- Thigpen, M.L., Beauclair, T. J., Brown, R., & Guevara, M. (2012). *Motivational interviewing in corrections: A comprehensive guide to implementing MI in corrections*. US Department of Justice, Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Corrections.
- Thompson, G. J. (2010). *Verbal judo: the gentle art of persuasion*. Grand Rapids, MI: Zondervan Press.

- Tittle, C. R., Ward, D. A., & Grasmick, H. G. (2003a). Self-control and crime/deviance: Cognitive vs. behavioral measures. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, *19*(4), 333-365.
- Tittle, C. R., Ward, D. A., & Grasmick, H. G. (2003b). Gender, age, and crime/deviance: A challenge to self-control theory. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, *40*(4), 426-453.
- Tsai, W. C., & Tai, W. T. (2003). Perceived importance as a mediator of the relationship between training assignment and training motivation. *Personnel Review*, *32*(2), 151-163.
- Van Wyk, J. A., Benson, M. L., & Harris, D. K. (2000). A test of strain and self-control theories: Occupational crime in nursing homes. *Journal of Crime and Justice*, *23*(2), 27-44.
- Whitehead, J., Linqvist, C., & Klofas, J. (1987). Correctional officer professional orientation: A replication of the Klofas-Toch measure. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *14*(4), 468-486.

APPENDIX A

FACTOR RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF SCALE MEASURES

Table A1. Factor and Reliability Analysis of Scale Measures

Scale	Factor Loadings
Punitiveness	N = 271
*I believe that correctional officers should play an important role in the rehabilitation of inmates.	.521
I believe that the purpose of prisons should be to punish, not to offer treatment programs.	.711
*I believe that most inmates can go on and lead productive lives with help and hard work.	.582
I think that we should punish inmates rather than rehabilitate them.	.782
*I believe that with help, most inmates have the ability to change their own problem behaviors.	.602
I believe that attempting to rehabilitate offenders is a waste of time.	.797
I believe that rehabilitation programs are a waste of time and money.	.664
Alpha	.841
Self-Control	N = 274
I am good at resisting the temptation to take “the easy way out” during my daily duties.	.507
I often have trouble concentrating on tasks related to case managing inmates.*	.474
I am able to work effectively towards long term goals relevant to my duties as a correctional officer.	.595
In my work, I try to avoid projects that I know will be difficult.*	.523
When approaching my work as a correctional officer, I always think through all possible alternatives before acting.	.498
I have a high level of self-discipline when approaching my work.	.625
Alpha	.710

* Indicates reverse coding

APPENDIX B

FACTOR RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF BRIEF SELF-CONTROL SCALE

Table B1. Factor and Reliability Analysis of Scale Measures

Scale	Factor Loadings
Punitiveness	N = 271
I am good at resisting the temptation to take “the easy way out” during my daily duties.	.456
*I am not always as proactive as I should be when performing my duties as a correctional officer.	.403
*I often have trouble concentrating on tasks related to case managing inmates.	.564
I am able to work effectively towards long term goals relevant to my duties as a correctional officer.	.479
*I sometimes say things that are ineffective in communicating my thoughts or intentions to those I case manage.	.329
*In my work, I try to avoid projects that I know will be difficult.	.505
When approaching my work as a correctional officer, I always think through all possible alternatives before acting.	.511
*Sometimes when approaching work, it is hard for me to break habits that I know are bad.	.469
I have a high level of self-discipline when approaching my work.	.630
*Sometimes fun or pleasurable activities prevent me from performing my duties as a correctional officer.	.474
*I wish I had more self-discipline in regards to fulfilling my duties as a correctional officer.	.367
*Sometimes I take a course of action regarding those I case manage, even if I know it is not the “right way” to handle a situation.	.373
I refuse things that are bad for me.	.244
Alpha	.841

* Indicates reverse coding

APPENDIX C

VARIANCE INFLATION FACTORS

Table C1. Variance Inflation Factors

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	VIF	1/VIF	VIF	1/VIF	VIF	1/VIF	VIF	1/VIF
Punitiveness	8.61	.116	–	–	9.74	.102	10.20	.098
Self-Control	–	–	22.39	.037	25.49	.039	26.19	.038
Punitiveness * Self-Control	–	–	–	–	–	–	14.84	.067
Male	2.17	.461	2.09	.478	2.17	.460	2.21	.452
Age	20.61	.048	26.84	.037	28.26	.035	34.45	.029
Length of Employment	9.74	.102	9.84	.101	9.78	.102	9.91	.100
Correctional Officer Position	1.05	.949	1.06	.942	1.07	.930	1.08	.929
Black	1.23	.815	1.24	.805	1.24	.808	1.24	.808
Hispanic	1.53	.655	1.68	.596	1.68	.564	1.73	.577
Other	1.22	.820	1.22	.818	1.23	.811	1.23	.810
Some College	4.68	.422	4.96	.201	5.01	.199	5.50	.181
College Degree	2.29	.436	2.32	.430	2.38	.420	2.44	.409
Graduate Degree	1.56	.639	1.61	.621	1.63	.614	1.65	.607

APPENDIX D

CORRELATION MATRIX OF ALL VARIABLES IN STUDY

Table D1. Correlation Matrix of all Variables in Current Study

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
(1) Receptivity	1.000													
(2) Punitiveness	-0.3639	1.000												
(3) Self-Control	.02197	-0.3692	1.000											
(4) Punitiveness*	-0.0084	-0.1390	-0.8479	1.000										
(5) Age	0.0845	-0.1752	-0.0502	0.1741	1.000									
(6) Correctional Officer Position	-0.0864	0.0906	-0.1498	0.1061	0.0315	1.000								
(7) Male	-0.1929	0.1156	-0.1086	0.0321	-0.1241	-0.0041	1.000							
(8) Length of Employment	0.1017	-0.1560	-0.1048	0.2055	0.4342	0.1637	-0.0309	1.000						
(9) Black	0.0345	-0.0450	0.0282	-0.0225	0.0300	0.0503	0.1082	-0.0902	1.000					
(10) Hispanic	0.0428	-0.0079	0.0743	-0.0650	-0.2174	-0.0390	0.0702	-0.1002	-0.2009	1.000				
(11) Other	0.0723	-0.1060	0.0339	0.0231	0.1183	0.0653	-0.2056	0.0750	-0.0947	-0.2058	1.000			
(12) Some College	0.1006	-0.1272	-0.1096	0.1841	0.0282	-0.0198	-0.1036	0.2137	-0.0339	-0.1605	0.0885	1.000		
(13) College Degree	-0.0839	0.1499	0.0134	-0.0829	0.0060	0.0395	0.0558	-0.2179	-0.0022	0.0090	-0.0086	-0.5828	1.000	
(14) Graduate Degree	-0.0402	-0.1060	0.1218	-0.0862	0.0586	-0.0424	0.0888	-0.1466	0.1893	0.0175	-0.0850	-0.3340	-0.1298	1.000

APPENDIX E

SURVEY TOOL



CORRECTIONAL OFFICER SURVEY

SURVEY ID# _____

DATE _____

The following two questions will be used to create a unique identifier for your survey. We will not be able to link the responses to any specific person.

1. In what year were you born?

2. What are your mother's initials?

SECTION ONE

In section one, we will begin by asking some questions designed to understand how you approach your work as a correctional officer and your personal beliefs regarding both your work and inmates. Please take a moment to think about how accurate these statements are in describing yourself or your own views. Afterwards, mark the specific box (1,2,3,4, or 5) which indicates how accurate the statement in the left-hand column is in describing you or your views.

	1 Strongly Agree	2 Agree	3 Neutral	4 Disagree	5 Strongly Disagree
I am good at resisting the temptation to take “the easy way out” during my daily duties.					
I believe even the worst young inmates can grow out of criminal behavior.					
I am not always as proactive as I should be when performing my duties as a correctional officer.					
I am open to trying any new method while performing my duties as a correctional officer.					
Most inmates really have little hope of changing for the better.					
I often have trouble concentrating on tasks related to case managing inmates.					
I believe that rehabilitation programs are a waste of time and money.					
I am able to work effectively towards long term goals relevant to my duties as a correctional officer.					

	1 Strongly Agree	2 Agree	3 Neutral	4 Disagree	5 Strongly Disagree
I believe that correctional officers <i>should</i> play an important role in the rehabilitation of inmates.					
I sometimes say things that are ineffective in communicating my thoughts or intentions to those I work with or case manage.					
I believe that the purpose of prisons <i>should</i> be to punish, not to offer treatment programs.					
In my work, I try to avoid projects that I know will be difficult.					
I believe that most inmates can go on and lead productive lives with help and hard work.					
Some inmates are so damaged that they can never lead productive lives.					
I think that new programs aimed at rehabilitating inmates should be instituted within the department of corrections.					
When approaching my work as a correctional officer, I always think through all possible alternatives before acting.					
I think that we should punish inmates rather than rehabilitate them.					
Sometimes when approaching work, it is hard for me to break habits that I know are bad.					

	1 Strongly Agree	2 Agree	3 Neutral	4 Disagree	5 Strongly Disagree
I believe that with help, most inmates have the ability to change their own problem behaviors.					
I have a high level of self-discipline when approaching my work.					
I believe that correctional officers <i>currently</i> play an important role in the rehabilitation on inmates.					
Sometimes fun or pleasurable activities prevent me from performing my duties as a correctional officer.					
I believe that attempting to rehabilitate offenders is a waste of time.					
I wish I had more self-discipline in regards to fulfilling my duties as a correctional officer.					
I want to use Motivational Interviewing in my work with inmates.					
Sometimes, I take a course of action regarding those I case manage, even if I know it is not the “right way” to handle a situation.					
I refuse things that are bad for me.					

SECTION TWO

In section two, we will ask questions intended to assess how you interact with those whose cases you manage. Please take a moment to think about how you generally interact with the inmates whose cases you manage. Afterwards, mark the specific box (1,2,3,4, or 5) which indicates how often the components in the left-hand column occur in your interactions with inmates.

	1 Always	2 Most of the time	3 Sometimes	4 Rarely	5 Never
I care about those I case manage as people.					
Those I case manage feel free to discuss the things that worry them with me.					
I explain to those I case manage what they are supposed to do and why it would be good to do it.					
I try very hard to do the right thing for those I case manage.					
When those I case manage have trouble doing what is required, I talk with them and listen to what they have to say.					
If those I case manage break the rules, I calmly explain what should be done and why.					
I am enthusiastic and optimistic with those I case manage.					
Those I case manage seem to feel safe enough to be open and honest with me.					
I talk down to those I case manage.					

	1 Always	2 Most of the time	3 Sometimes	4 Rarely	5 Never
I encourage those I case manage to work with me.					
I trust those I case manage to be honest with me.					
I make allowances for the situations of those I case manage when deciding what they need to do.					
I am devoted to helping those I case manage overcome their problems.					
If those I case manage do something wrong, I put them down to prevent the problem from happening again.					
I am very warm and friendly with those I case manage.					
I treat those I case manage fairly.					
I really care about the personal concerns of those I case manage.					
I praise those I case manage for the good things they do.					
When those I case manage are going in a bad direction, I talk with them before taking serious action.					
I genuinely want to help those I case manage.					
I consider the views of those I case manage.					
Those I case manage generally seem worried that I am looking to punish them.					
I give those I case manage enough room to voice complaints.					

	1 Always	2 Most of the time	3 Sometimes	4 Rarely	5 Never
those I case manage.					
I expect those I case manage to do things independently, and don't help them too much.					
I know that I can trust those I case manage.					
Those I case manage seem to feel I am someone they can trust.					
I take enough time to understand those I case manage.					
I consider the individual needs of those I case manage.					
I show those I case manage respect in absolutely all my dealings with them.					

SECTION THREE

In section three, we will ask questions intended to assess your personal style of communicating and enabling change within inmates whose cases you manage. Please take a moment to think about the methods you generally use when communicating and inspiring change within those you case manage. Afterwards, mark the specific box (1,2,3,4, or 5) which indicates how often the components in the left-hand column occur in your interactions with inmates.

	1 Always	2 Most of the time	3 Sometimes	4 Rarely	5 Never
It is important to help inmates identify which of their behaviors are problematic and why.					
When speaking to inmates, I should help them identify motivations for changing their behavior.					

	1 Always	2 Most of the time	3 Sometimes	4 Rarely	5 Never
When speaking to inmates about problematic behavior, it is important to tailor the conversation to that inmate's learning style, culture and intelligence.					
Being able to empathize with inmates is an important component of encouraging inmates change.					
Determining which behaviors an inmate is most motivated and ready to change is not very important.					
It is important to help inmates identify which of their behaviors conflict with their own desired personal changes.					
When an inmate's changes are internally motivated and not simply responsive to "staying out of trouble" they are longer lasting and more effective.					
It is more constructive to help lead inmates to make their own conclusions regarding problematic behaviors than directly informing them.					
When speaking to inmates about problematic behavior, the goal should be to influence them to want to change their behaviors, rather than demand change.					
When inmates are resistant to making needed changes, they should be confronted about their behavior.					

	1 Always	2 Most of the time	3 Sometimes	4 Rarely	5 Never
It is important for inmates to believe they can succeed in changing their problematic behaviors.					
Inmate's views of the rehabilitation programs they take part in are not significant.					
As a correctional officer, I should coordinate with practitioners and those who conduct rehabilitative programming to create a treatment environment which extends outside of the classroom.					

SECTION FOUR

In this final section, we will ask a variety of questions regarding your personal background. *Please provide answers to the best of your abilities. In the cases of questions 3 – 5 please indicate your answer by circling the letter which best corresponds to your answer.*

1. **How long have you worked for the Arizona Department of Corrections?** _____years
_____months

2. **What is your current position within the ADC?**

3. **What is your gender?**
 - a. Male
 - b. Female

4. **What would you identify as your race or ethnicity?** (Circle all that apply)
 - a. White
 - b. Black or African American

- c. Hispanic
- d. American Indian or Alaska Native
- e. Asian
- f. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- g. Other: _____

5. What is the highest level of education that you have completed? (Circle one)

- a. High school diploma or GED
- b. Some college, associate's degree, vocational training, or technical school
- c. College degree (4-year degree)
- d. Graduate studies or graduate degree

END OF SURVEY *Thank you for your participation!*