THE IMPACT OF COMMUNITY SUPERVISION OFFICER (CSO) OCCUPATIONAL STRESS ON SUPERVISION ORIENTATION AND COMMUNITY SUPERVISION OUTCOMES

by

Robert L. Evans III

ELIZABETH KOMAN, PhD, Faculty Mentor and Chair

ANGELA BRUCH, PhD, Committee Member

REBECCA LOEHRER, PhD, Committee Member

Andrea Miller, PhD, Dean of Psychology

Harold Abel School of Social and Behavioral Sciences

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

Capella University

May 2016

Abstract

Discovering the relationship between the occupational stress of community supervision officers (CSO), their supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes will improve the field of community corrections with respect to CSO job satisfaction, work performance, turn-over rates, workload distribution and training officers in evidence based practices. It also expands already rich research on offender recidivism. An ex post facto non-experimental quantitative design was used to describe the relationship between the independent variables (IV) under observation: the occupational stress level and supervision orientation of CSOs, and the dependent variables (DV): the number of client arrests on the caseloads of CSOs, the offenders' successful completion of community supervision, the offenders' unsuccessful completion of community supervision, and the number of violation reports a CSO sends to the releasing authorities for offenders on their caseloads. Two survey instruments called the Job Stress Survey (JSS) and the Revised Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale (RCC) were used to collect data from CSOs. Multiple regression analyses of the IVs and DVs concluded that there was no statistically predictive relationship between the occupational stress and supervision orientation of CSOs. Additionally, there was no statistically predictive relationship between the occupational stress of CSOs, their supervision orientation, or community supervision outcomes. This research began a valuable discussion about the influence of stress on CSO interactions with their offenders, which may influence offender noncompliance with community supervision. Further research should include a larger representation of CSOs, so that more variables can be incorporated into a study for a more robust analysis.

Dedication

I dedicate this body of work to my children, Shawn, Ryan and Roman Evans. I have been in school throughout all of their lives and working on my doctorate for Ryan and Roman's entire life. This project has stood firm throughout many life challenges. Yet, my children have continued to be my life's blood unwaveringly, providing me oxygen, energy and hope when obstacles presented themselves. They fuel my passion for social and criminal justice and strengthen my desire to learn and offer scientific expansion to the field of psychology. I would like to dedicate this project to my parents, Veltina and Robert Evans Jr. for being my unbreakable support, my cheerleaders and motivators, and to my brother and sister, Michael and Jennifer Evans for allowing me to blaze a trail and lead them towards scholarly excellence. Lastly, to my angel, my nitrogen boost, Tresh… thank you for being my H2O.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge Dr. Elizabeth Koman, my mentor, committee chair and now friend. You have been a candlelight in a world of darkness. Your positive energy, ability to redirect doubt and continued support has provided guidance through this journey. You faced the challenges with me and I will forever appreciate you for that. I would like to acknowledge my mentor and friend Dr. Veronica Powell, who completed her doctorate at Capella University and has remained a champion of positivity and completion. I would like to thank the director of a special community corrections agency on the East Coast, Nancy Ware, who believed in my vision and fostered an atmosphere of support and encouragement. I also acknowledge Associate Directors Tom Williams and Jasper Ormond, who provided support through the red tape of federal government firewalls. I would like to send a special thanks to Claire Fay. You were on the front line with me for as long as you could go. Thank you. I acknowledge the community supervision officers who participated in this project. Thank you for taking time out of your busy schedules to complete surveys. This is just the beginning. Finally, I acknowledge that God is the source of my will, determination and capacity to succeed. I am truly grateful for all of you.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

At the start of 2016 there were approximately four million people on probation in the United States, and this number has been increasing yearly for the past two decades (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2016; Georgiou, 2013; Piar, 2003; Lattimore & Baker, 1992). This equates to approximately 1 in every 50 adults being on community supervision (Georgiou, 2013). Approximately 650,000 ex-prisoners are released into the community from incarceration annually in the United States, which equates to about 1,600 ex-prisoners daily (Georgiou, 2013; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2016). Throughout this paper, the terms ex-prisoner, offender and client will be used interchangeably to refer to individuals who have been convicted of crimes and are serving community supervision sentences on probation, parole or supervised release. Roughly 80% of them are released with the obligation to report to a community supervision officer to begin community supervision.

In 2001, approximately thirteen percent of the two million people who completed supervision completed it by having the terms of their supervision revoked and being sent to jail (Piar, 2003). Within 3 years, a little over half of the ex-prisoners on community supervision will be sent back to prison due to violating the conditions of their release (Georgiou, 2013; Langan & Cunniff, 1992; Langan & Levin, 2002; Megan, Brame & Shawn, 2006; Minor, Wells, & Angel, 2008; Minor, Wells, & Sims, 2003). These statistics reflect the magnitude of ex-prisoner recidivism and the importance of discovering the factors contributing to community supervision outcomes.

Background of the Problem

A major factor that contributes to ex-prisoner recidivism is the working relationship between the client and their community supervision officers (CSO; Anzalone, 2011; Bangasser, 2010; Bracken, 2007; Petersilia, 2007; Piar, 2003; Weldon & Ritchie, 2010). One of the critical functions of a CSO is to assist clients with changing their thought processes so that they refrain from committing more crimes. This is done via establishing trust and building a healthy rapport with the client. (H. Allen, 1979; Anzalone, 2011; Bangasser, 2010; Smith, 2001). The approach a CSO takes in establishing a working relationship with his/her client is also known as correctional orientation (Bangasser, 2010). *Supervision orientation* will be used for the remainder of this text. More specifically, CSOs can choose to approach their clients from a punitive or retributive standpoint (Robinson, Porporino, & Simourd, 1996), a rehabilitative standpoint (Cullen, Link, Wolfe, & Frank, 1985), or a combination of both which is most effective in building a rapport with the reentry population (DeMichele & Payne, 2007).

The stress associated with correctional officer positions such as parole and probation officers has been more widely researched over the past thirty years (P. Brown, 1987; Burrell, 2000; Cherniss, 1980a,b; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Holgate & Clegg, 1991; Kim & Stoner, 2008; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2002; Whitehead, 1989; Whitehead & Lindquist, 1985). CSO occupational stress has been linked to variables such as job satisfaction, burnout, turnover intentions, correctional orientation, as well as physical and mental health (Bangasser, 2010; Burrell, 2000; Collins, 2004). Meta-analytic studies on the subject of job satisfaction have found that occupational stress is a

component of job satisfaction, and job satisfaction is ultimately associated with work performance (Bowling, 2007; A. Brown & Kelly, 2006; Burrell, 2000; Fried, Shirom, Gilboa, & Cooper, 2008). Moreover, the factors that influence the work performance of a CSO are of interest, because a primary responsibility of a CSO is to build a solid rapport with his/her client (H. Allen, 1979; Anzalone, 2011; Bangasser, 2010; Smith, 2001). Thus, this research examined the occupational stress factors that influence a community supervision officer's work performance, as measured by supervision orientation. Additionally, the relationship between occupational stress and supervision orientation was explored as influences on community supervision outcomes.

Statement of the Problem

It is well known that the supervision orientation of a CSO has an influence on whether or not an offender may decide to positively adjust his/her criminal thinking and successfully integrate into the challenges, expectations and necessities of the community, or give up on community supervision and go back to a lifestyle of criminal and anti-social activities, leading to repeat incarceration (Bracken, 2007; DeMichele & Payne, 2007). However, it is not yet known whether the occupational stress of CSOs directly influences an officer's supervision orientation, which in turn impacts an offender's community supervision outcomes.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research was to determine if the occupational stress of CSOs has a statistically significant influence on the relationship between the supervision orientation of CSOs and the community supervision outcomes of the offenders on their

caseloads. The results may lead to policy changes, workload adjustments, training implications, performance management changes and other agency interventions to address CSO occupational stress levels. Moreover, the work done for this study can possibly increase insight and develop interest for further research on the relationship between the occupational stress of CSOs, CSO supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes.

Significance of the Study

This research is significant to the field of Industrial Organizational (I/O) psychology as well as the field of criminal justice. Discovering the relationship between community supervision officer occupational stress, supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes is of interest to the field of I/O psychology because the impact of stress on work productivity and job satisfaction is one of the most highly researched I/O topics (Bowling, 2007; Burrell, 2000; Fried et al., 2008; Gaines & Jermier, 1983; Landy & Conte, 2010; Polisky, 1981). Accordingly, it can be argued that for community supervision officers, work productivity and supervision orientation are synonymous constructs (Schlager, 2008). Furthermore, supervision orientation has been linked with community supervision outcomes (Anzalone, 2011; Bangasser, 2010; Bracken, 2007; Petersilia, 2007; Piar, 2003; Weldon & Ritchie, 2010); thus, this research explored all of these concepts simultaneously.

I/O psychology can further benefit from this research because this study can support or refute previous studies done on parole officer occupational stress via expansion of the research to focus on a specific demographic of both community

supervision officers and offenders. Previous research has focused on areas of the United States such as Minnesota (Bangasser, 2010), Texas (Lee, Phelps, & Beto, 2009), and Virginia (Tabor, 1987). The research for this study was conducted at a community corrections agency on the East Coast. Accordingly, the offender population in this particular area is primarily African American. Therefore, the work done for this dissertation can possibly increase insight and develop interest for further research on the relationship between the occupational stress of community supervision officers, supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes for offenders and community supervision officers who fall within this specific demographical construct.

Research Design

This study used an ex post facto non-experimental quantitative design to describe the relationship between the independent variables under observation: occupational stress level and supervision orientation of CSOs, and the dependent variables: the number of client arrests on the caseloads of CSOs within a six month timeframe, the offenders' successful completion of community supervision within a six month timeframe, the offenders' unsuccessful completion of community supervision within a six month timeframe, and the number of violation reports a CSO sends to the releasing authorities for offenders on their caseloads within a six month timeframe.

Data pertaining to the independent variables were collected via two survey instruments hosted by Survey Monkey, called the Job Stress Survey (JSS) and the Revised Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale (RCC). Data pertaining to the dependent variables were collected via archival information maintained by the

Supervision and Management Automated Record Tracking (SMART) computerized case management system managed by the research site. The JSS was administered to community supervision officers (CSOs) of the research site who volunteered for the study, and was used to measure their level of occupational stress. The RCC was also administered to voluntary CSOs of the research site and was used to measure their supervision orientation. Multivariate statistics were used to simultaneously analyze independent and dependent variables to examine if a relationship exists between the predictor and criterion variables. It was assumed that the predictor and criterion variables were meaningfully related. Multivariate statistics minimized the likelihood of a Type I error and produced a set of regression coefficients (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Warner, 2008).

This research sought to find out if the occupational stress of an officer influences his/her choice to approach his/her clients from a punitive or a rehabilitative perspective. Upon completing the surveys, the caseloads of the participants were evaluated to determine the frequency of offender arrests, successful and unsuccessful completions of supervision for the offenders on their caseloads, and the number of violation reports written during a 6 month time period. The time period under observation for all of the archival research was six months prior to the completion of the JSS and RCC. This six month time period was chosen because the JSS focuses on the intensity of and how often stressful events have been experienced within the 6 months prior to completion of the JSS (Haseth, 1999; Holmstrom, Molander, Jansson, & Barnekow-Bergqvist, 2008; Spielberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1

Q1: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation?

Hypothesis 1

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation.

H1: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation.

Research Question 2

Q2: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests?

Hypothesis 2

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests amongst the offenders on their caseloads.

H2: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests amongst the offenders on their caseloads.

Research Question 3

Q3: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions?

Hypothesis 3

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

H3: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

Research Question 4

Q4: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions?

Hypothesis 4

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

H4: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

Research Question 5

Q5: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports?

Hypothesis 5

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports they send to the releasing authorities prior to their assigned offenders' community supervision completion.

H5: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports they send to the releasing authorities prior to their assigned offenders' community supervision completion.

Assumptions and Limitations

The assumptions for multiple regressions include: (a) variables are normally distributed, (b) linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables (c) no multicollinearity exists, (d) homoscedasticity, (e) homogeneity and (f) independent variables are assumed to be measured without error (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Warner, 2008).

It was assumed that the JSS and the RCC are both valid and reliable survey instruments for evaluating occupational stress and supervision orientation. Due to both instruments being self-report surveys, it was assumed that the participants answered the questions honestly and without any outside influences. The participants took the surveys

at their personal workstations, so it was assumed that their test environments were all similarly conditioned and without distractions.

There were many limitations to this study, which developed as the data was being collected. There are multiple variables that may impact an offender's supervision outcomes; ie., repeat arrests and unsuccessful supervision completion. These variables include, but are not limited to employability, education, illicit drug usage, criminal history, peer associations, antisocial attitude/personality, mental illness and housing stability (Benedict, 1994; Kevin, James, & Sims, 2003; Megan et al., 2006). Accordingly, this study initially sought to evaluate the relationship between all of the above variables, in addition to CSO tenure and caseload sizes. Due to all of the variables being studied, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was going to be used as a method for data analysis. This specific form of analysis was chosen for two principle reasons. Firstly, there were many moving pieces involved, which made it complex and multivariate. SEM is a collection of statistical techniques that allow researchers to test complex models such as this (Weston, 2006). Weston (2006) referred to SEM as a blend of factor analysis and path analysis; meaning that SEM provides a conservative summary of the interrelationships between variables (factor analysis), while also having the ability to test hypothesized relationships between constructs (path analysis; p. 720). As exhibited by the model below labeled Figure 1, this study would have been a combination of a factor analysis and path analysis, as it pursued to discover the interrelationships between CSO tenure, caseload sizes and offender risk on occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision outcomes. Simultaneously, this study was intended to test the hypotheses

that as occupational stress increases, supervision orientation becomes more punitive, thus increasing unfavorable community supervision outcomes, while conversely; as occupational stress decreases, supervision orientation becomes more rehabilitative, thus increasing favorable community supervision outcomes.

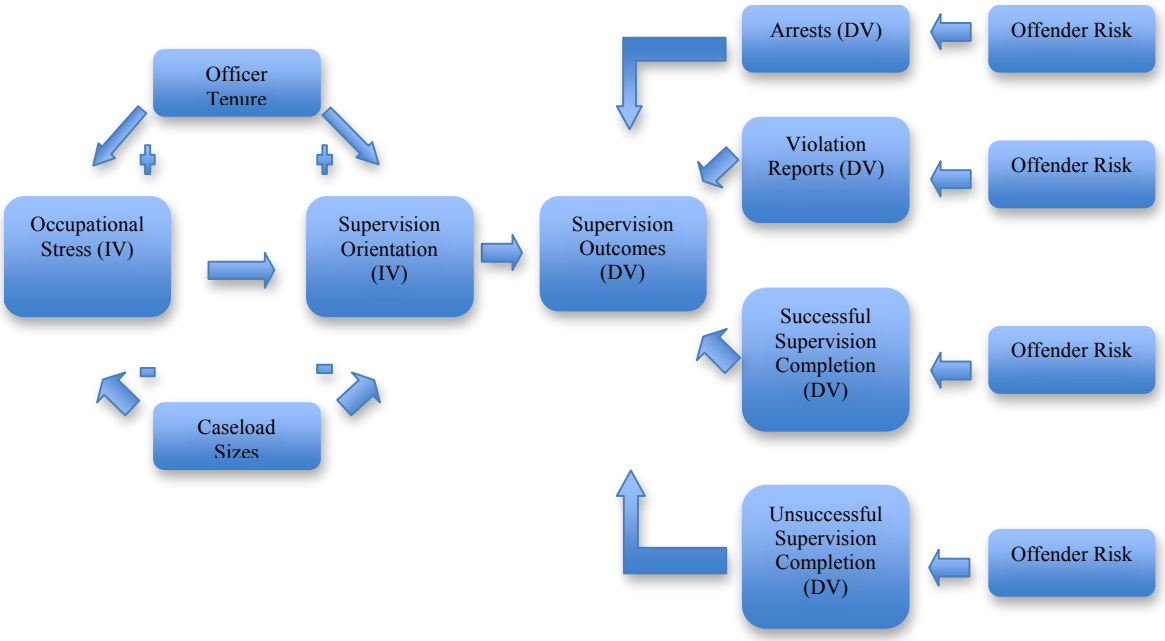

Figure 1. The originally intended relationship of variables in this study. Fully Mediated Structural Equation Model

To successfully use SEM as an approach for data analysis, over 100 CSOs were needed for this study (Weston, 2006). This would have provided an adequate enough sample size to soundly run the data analysis and incorporate all of the variables being evaluated. Due to unforeseen circumstances, several barriers to research arose, which limited the participation of CSOs. The email addresses of the research site were used to solicit CSO participation. Some of the potential participants had a Windows 10 operating system on their computers, while others had Windows 11. Only those who had Windows 11 were able to access the surveys that were sent out, due to unexpected requirements of

the Survey Monkey website. This was a major restriction and the only remedy was for potential participants to contact the technical support department of the research site to have their systems upgraded to Windows 11. This presented a critical barrier, as it required CSOs to take time out of their workday to contact a support team to upgrade their computer systems, to participate in a study, which was already going to distract them from their work duties.

Since this research was looking at a specific function of CSOs, only CSOs who participated in that exact function were best suited for this study; therefore, some of the participants who responded to the survey could not be used in the final data analysis. Due to the window of time available for data collection in accordance with permissions to use the test instruments, permissions from the research site to make contact with CSOs and permissions from Survey Monkey to use the website and run analysis, the participants were unintentionally solicited for participation in this research during a time, which potentially presented more stress. At the research site, the CSO performance-rating year ends in July of every year, and participation in the research was solicited in May and June of 2015. Most participants completed surveys in July and August, which was in the middle of performance rating time and also a time of summer vacationing for officers. As a result of the limitations associated with data collection, there was a smaller response rate than expected, which significantly impacted the structure of this research design.

Upon receiving a sample size of approximately 50 participants, measures had to be taken to reduce the size and intricacy of the research model. Accordingly, the current variables being studied, occupational stress, supervision orientation, arrests, successful

supervision completion, unsuccessful supervision completion and violation reports written to the releasing authorities, are a direct result of the CSO participation rate.

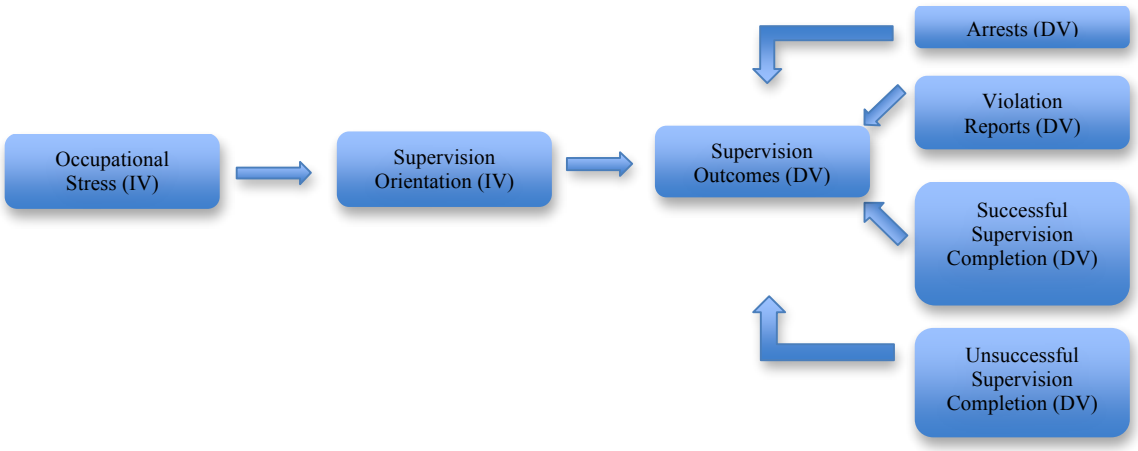

Figure 2. The final relationship of variables in this study. Regression Model

Definition of Terms

Community supervision will be used throughout this text to describe an offender falling under the category of probation or parole, since they both function essentially the same; meaning that offenders under either condition are supervised by an officer in the community (H. Allen, 1979; Anzalone, 2011; Smith, 2001).

Community supervision officer (CSO) will be used to represent both parole and probation officer, as according to information made available by the research site, a CSO maintains a dual function and supervises all individuals on any form of community supervision.

Criminal parole is defined by Anzalone (2011) as an opportunity for a prisoner to be released early into the community under the release conditions of the state or federal parole board.

Criminal Probation is defined by Piar (2003) as an alternative to incarceration where by a person convicted of a crime is allowed to serve all or part of his/her sentence at liberty, subject to the supervision of the sentencing court. The goal of probation is to assist people who have criminal convictions with re-shaping or rehabilitating their ways of thinking and behaving, so that they become law-abiding citizens without having to experience the hardships of imprisonment (H. Allen, 1979; Smith, 2001).

Job Ambiguity is when an individual is unclear about his/her role within an organization (Bangasser, 2010; Tabor, 1987). This employee is unsure of his/her authority to make decisions or how he/she will be judged for making decisions (Tabor, 1987). Therefore, this employee will likely hesitate to make decisions, and will be unsure of him/herself when approaching challenges; which will increase the likelihood of job dissatisfaction and decreased work productivity (Cheeseman, 2006; Tabor, 1987).

Parole officers experience job ambiguity because of the immense amount of information and resources that they must be aware of to assist their clients, coupled with the aptitude of their clients. Due to the uniqueness of every supervision case, it can be challenging to universally train parole officers on how to effectively assist every client (Bangasser, 2010; Jones & Kerb, 2007). This lack of clarity subsequently leads to increased stress, resulting in increased turnover rates among parole officers (Bangasser, 2010; Burrell, 2000; Jones & Kerb, 2007; Pitts, 2007; Tabor, 1987).

Job Satisfaction is an employee's satisfaction with his/her supervisor, promotional opportunities, pay, co-workers, policies, and the work itself (Hulin, 1968; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).

Parole officers are responsible for being the eyes and ears of the parole board while the released parolee is in the community (H. Allen, 1979; Anzalone, 2011; Smith, 2001).

Probation officers are employees of a judicial court system that use the skills of case work, social work, law enforcement and administration to supervise probationers and ensure that they are compliant with the rules set forth by the sentencing court as terms of their release into the community (H. Allen, 1979; Smith, 2001). Probation officers use positive and negative deterrent methods to encourage offenders to maintain compliance with the conditions of their supervision as well as make pro-social improvements in their lives (H. Allen, 1979; Smith, 2001).

Recidivism has been defined in several different ways (Jolin, 1990; Langan & Cunniff, 1992; Langan & Levin, 2002; Minor et al., 2003; Schmidt & Witte, 1998). Examples include: an offender being rearrested for any reason after an initial arrest and conviction of a crime, an offender being re-convicted of a new crime after an initial arrest and conviction, an offender being re-sentenced to prison time after a new arrest subsequent to an initial arrest and conviction, or an offender's return to prison with or without a new sentence (Langan & Cunniff, 1992; Langan & Levin, 2002; Minor et al., 2003). For the purpose of this study, recidivism will be defined as an offender being arrested for any reason after an initial arrest and conviction of a crime.

Role Conflict takes place when the expectations for a job are conflicting (Bangasser, 2010; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Over 60% of parole officers experience role conflict (Whitehead & Lindquist, 1985). This can be attributed to the

paradigm shift in the field of community corrections from a punitive approach to a rehabilitative stance (Krontiris & Watler, 2010; Bracken, 2007). DeMichele and Payne (2007) posited that the best way to reduce role conflict and the most effective approach to corrections is to blend retributive and rehabilitative approaches to community supervision.

Successful completion of community supervision is defined in this study as an offender remaining on supervision throughout the duration of his/her sentence without having his/her supervision privilege revoked by the releasing authorities.

Supervision orientation is the approach a CSO takes in establishing a working relationship with his/her client; also known as correctional orientation (Bangasser, 2010).

Unsuccessful completion of community supervision is defined in this study as an offender having his/her supervision privilege revoked for any reason, to include new arrests or violations of release conditions.

Violation Reports are written as a responsibility of the parole or probation officer to notify the releasing authority of any offender violations of a release order (Langan & Cunniff, 1992; Minor et al., 2003). If an offender violates the conditions of his/her release into the community set forth by the releasing authority, it could potentially result in that offender having his/her supervision privileges revoked, having a suspended jail/prison sentence imposed, being re-sentenced, or having the opportunity to continue supervision (Langan & Cunniff, 1992).

Expected Findings

The expected findings for this study shifted midway through the research. Initially, it was expected that a well-constructed and robust study would be conducted, which considered multiple confounding variables that may influence the primary independent and dependent variables of study. A multivariate, factor and path analysis was going to be piloted to ensure that influences on CSO supervision orientation and stress were evaluated along with multiple influences on offender recidivism. Accordingly, it was expected that there would be a statistical relationship between CSO occupational stress, supervision orientation and offender supervision outcomes.

The research site has spent a large amount of time, energy and funding on moving in the direction of evidence based practices in the field of community corrections. According to information made available by the research site, the entire agency has undergone multiple trainings on evidence-based practices in community corrections, motivational interviewing, cognitive behavioral interventions and other methods of communicating effectively with the offender population. While some attention has been paid to the overall wellness of the officer, the majority of trainings have been focused on how officers can improve the wellness of the offender population. The results of this study can possibly shift this focus from primarily being about the offender population, to a focus that really considers the wellbeing of the officers. If the above hypotheses have any statistical significance, the agency could potentially save money on training resources (focusing on the topics that matter most) and hiring resources (reduced turnover rate).

Furthermore, if changes are made that positively impact employee morale, this could increase work productivity (Bowling, 2007; Fried et al., 2008), thus having a positive impact on the agency's overall mission and success rate (reduced recidivism, increased successful completions, decreased violation reports to the releasing authorities). Moreover, an improved success rate could mean additional leverage for the agency to request funding from congress. Ultimately, the results of this research may improve the agency's focus with respect to human resources and trainings, which may save money in the long run, improve sustainability and put the agency in a position to request more financial resources from funding sources.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The intent of this research was to examine the predictive relationship that exists among CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and offender supervision outcomes. Chapter 2 reviews the literature about each of the above topics. An examination of the literature on job satisfaction, work performance, occupational stress, supervision orientation and recidivism will be conducted. Chapter 2 provides an evaluation of the three primary theories within I/O psychology literature associated with the relationship between stress and workplace performance: the positive linear, negative linear, and inverted-U theories (Fernandez & Perrewé, 1995; Jamal, 2007; 2011; Leung, Chan, & Olomolaiye, 2008; Muse, Harris, & Feild, 2003; Sial, Imran, & Zaheer, 2011). The research pertaining to supervision orientation will then be explored, and the factors that influence a parole or probation officers interactions with the offenders he/she supervises will be discussed. Moreover, an examination of the factors that influence

community supervision outcomes will highlight the significance of evaluating the influence of CSO occupational stress and supervision orientation on those variables (arrests, successful supervision completion, unsuccessful supervision completion, violation reports written by CSO). Chapter 3 examines the methodology of the study, the sampling procedure, the appropriateness of the instruments, data collection procedures and analysis, as well as the statistical findings of the research design via multivariate statistics. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the quantitative research design, which is followed by Chapter 5 focusing on data interpretation, a comprehensive review of research limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Fried et al. (2008) posited that job satisfaction is one of the most widely researched and relevant variables in the field of industrial-organizational (I/O) psychology. Meta-analytic studies on the subject of job satisfaction have found that occupational stress is a component of job satisfaction, and job satisfaction is ultimately associated with workplace performance (Bowling, 2007; A. Brown & Kelly, 2006; Burrell, 2000; Fried et al., 2008; Gaines & Jermier, 1983). Fried et al. (2008) conducted research further suggesting that occupational stress is directly and indirectly associated with job satisfaction, job performance and an employee's propensity to leave his/her job due to dissatisfaction. Therefore, from a global perspective, the topic of occupational stress and its impact on employee performance is a relevant and important issue in the field of I/O psychology. The following narrative will discuss this subject from a narrower and centralized perspective, as it pertains to the specific field of community corrections.

The stress associated with correctional officer positions such as parole and probation officers has been more widely researched over the past thirty years (P. Brown, 1987; Burrell, 2000; Cherniss, 1980a,b; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Gaines & Jermier, 1983; Holgate & Clegg, 1991; Kim & Stoner, 2008; Lambert et al., 2002; Pitts, 2007; Whitehead, 1989; Whitehead & Lindquist, 1985). Parole officer occupational stress has been linked to variables such as job satisfaction, burnout, turnover intentions, correctional orientation, as well as physical and mental health (Bangasser, 2010; Burrell, 2000; Collins, 2004). However, this research will use previous research such as Bangasser's

and further it by attempting to link parole officer occupational stress and community supervision outcome measures such as offender re-arrests, successful and unsuccessful completion of community supervision and the number of violation reports written by community supervision officers reporting the noncompliant behaviors of the offenders they supervise. This research attempts to mediate the link between CSO stress and supervision outcomes with CSO supervision orientation (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). This research also examines CSOs in one city on the East Coast, which will extend the literature that has focused on other areas of the United States (Bangasser, 2010; Lee et al., 2009; Tabor, 1987).

The focus of this research has implications for both community supervision officers directly, and the agencies that employ community supervision officers, especially in the untapped demographical area of the research site. Accordingly, if it were discovered that the occupational stress for CSOs has a statistically significant impact on community supervision outcome measures, it would be to the best interest of community supervision agencies and the across the United States to take a vested interest in reducing the occupational stress of community supervision officers. Moreover, the significance of the findings could be used, not only to improve the stress of officers and increase staff morale, but is could also contribute to job satisfaction and saving the agency budgetary funds associated with hiring and training new officers. In turn, channeling the focus of this research, which was to highlight community supervision officer health and wellness, into appropriate training and hiring practices, could have a positive impact on offender recidivism and community supervision outcomes, which effects public safety, the

agency's mission, strategic plan outcomes and appeal for more federal budgetary funds from congress.

Occupational stress and workplace performance are two of the most highly researched topics in the field of I/O psychology (Bangasser, 2010; P. Brown, 1987; A. Brown & Kelly, 2006; Burrell, 2000; Cherniss, 1980a,b; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Holgate & Clegg, 1991; Kim & Stoner, 2008; Lambert et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009; Whitehead, 1989; Whitehead & Lindquist, 1985; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). To examine these constructs, the field of corrections has been selected, and CSOs were used as research participants. CSOs were chosen for two reasons: first, research suggests that given the work demands of the job, the needs of the offender population and the danger associated with the criminal nature of offenders, the work of a parole officer is more stressful than those who work with the general population (Tabor, 1987; Whitehead & Lindquist, 1985). Thus, CSOs apparently have a very stressful job. Secondly, and equally significant, a CSO's work performance is measured by the success of the offenders they supervise (Langan & Cunniff, 1992; Minor et al., 2003). Accordingly, this study attempted to determine the statistical relationship between the stress of CSOs and the success of the offender's they supervise.

Advancement of Science

Research has demonstrated that occupational stress has an impact on an individual's work performance (Burrell, 2000; Ismail, Yeo, Ajis, & Dollah, 2009; Motowidlo, Manning, & Packard, 1986; Muse et al., 2003; Nabirye, Brown, Pryor, & Maples, 2011; Samartha, Lokesh, & Karkera, 2010). This is also true for parole officers,

which is exhibited by research that suggests job satisfaction (Lambert et al., 2002), burnout and turnover rates (P. Brown, 1987; Burrell, 2000; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Holgate & Clegg, 1991; Whitehead, 1989), are all negatively impacted by a parole officer's occupational stress (Bangasser, 2010; Cherniss, 1980a,b; Kim & Stoner, 2008; Whitehead & Lindquist, 1985). This research is unique because it takes previous research a step further by delving into the impact of a CSO's occupational stress on his/her interactions with the offenders he/she supervises. This will be done via an evaluation of the relationship between a CSO's occupational stress, supervision orientation and the supervision outcomes of the offenders he/she supervises. While occupational stress and workplace performance have been highly studied, there is a gap in the literature assessing how the occupational stress of a community supervision officer influences his/her working relationship with the offenders he/she supervises, which consequently impacts favorable or unfavorable community supervision outcomes as measured by the variables of this study. Therefore, the goal of this research is to advance both the fields of community corrections and I/O psychology.

Theoretical Orientation for the Study

Since research has taken a look at concepts such as job satisfaction (Lambert et al., 2002), turn-over rates (P. Brown, 1987; Burrell, 2000; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Holgate & Clegg, 1991; Whitehead, 1989), and work performance (A. Brown & Kelly, 2006) as by-products of occupational stress, (Bangasser, 2010; Cherniss, 1980a,b; Kim & Stoner, 2008; Whitehead & Lindquist, 1985) these constructs will be briefly reviewed before discussing supervision orientation. It is also important to review these concepts, as

they are potential contributing factors to occupational stress. Although the Job Stress Survey was the only instrument measuring occupational stress for this study, knowing the various influences of occupational stress provides opportunities for future research.

Job Satisfaction

For over 4 decades, scholars have researched the factors that contribute to people either remaining loyal to their place of employment, or leaving to find another job (Hulin, 1968; Ley, 1966; Porter et al., 1974). Job satisfaction is defined as an employee's satisfaction with his/her supervisor, promotional opportunities, pay, co-workers, policies, and the work itself (Hulin, 1968; Porter et al., 1974). In other words, job satisfaction is an individual's overall happiness with his/her employer and place of employment. People choosing to quit their jobs for various reasons will be referred to in this narrative as *employee turnover*. It is important to discuss turnover because it is a direct reflection of job satisfaction (Hulin, 1968; Joseph, Newman, & Hulin, 2010; Ley, 1966; Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Employee turnover.

There are a myriad of theories pertaining to employee turnover, and a few have been selected for further discussion below. (Bono & Judge, 2003; Chilton, Hardgrave, & Armstrong, 2005; Hulin, 1968; Joseph, Newman, & Hulin, 2010; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Lee, Phelps, and Beto, 2009; Ley, 1966; Porter et al., 1974; Tett, & Meyer, 1993). Porter et al. (1974), Lee et al. (2009) and Tett and Meyer (1993) explored how an individual's various levels of commitment to his/her organization influences turnover rates. Bono and Judge (2003) assessed the influences of an individual's self-

evaluations on his/her abilities to manage work demands, ultimately impacting job satisfaction and turner over rates. Chilton et al. (2005) explored the concept of an individual being a good fit cognitively for his/her place of employment, which may also impact turnover rates. Joseph et al. (2010) took a look at how a person's attitude can influence his/her job satisfaction and turnover rates. Judge et al. (1998) and Ley (1966) reviewed situational and dispositional concepts that influence an individual's job satisfaction and likelihood that they will remain loyal to an organization.

Initially research suggested that people were driven to leave their jobs due to the interaction of internal stimuli and environmental influences (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1934; Wechsler, Kahane, & Tannenbaum, 1952). Although earlier literature highlighted the contributing factors to worker dissatisfaction such as personal ego and an employee's ability to relate to his/her supervisor (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1934; Wechsler et al., 1952); suggesting that personality played and major role in turnover verses environmental influences; it has always been clear that both internal stimuli such as emotions and insights interact with the work environment comprised of workload, co-workers, pay, policies and supervision, ultimately resulting in increased or decreased turnover rates due to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Bono & Judge, 2003; Cheeseman, 2006; Chilton, Hardgrave, & Armstrong, 2005; Hulin, 1968; Joseph et al., 2010; Judge et al., 1998; Ley, 1966; Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Additional theories related to job satisfaction: organizational commitment and effective work performance will be discussed further below. Although the research of this dissertation focused on occupational stress, it is relevant to discuss other factors that influence overall job

satisfaction, such as organizational commitment and approaches to effective performance.

Organizational commitment.

While considerations such as satisfaction with workload, promotional opportunities, compensation, co-workers and policies contribute to overall job satisfaction and turnover rates (Hulin, 1968; Ley, 1966), research has also refuted some of these potential influences, and has suggested that there is more to be studied on this topic (Kilbridge, 1961; Waters & Roach, 1971). For example, Porter et al. (1974), conducted research implying that an individual's level of commitment to his/her organization is what keeps him/her working despite displeasure with variables such as compensation, policies, co-workers and supervisors. Organizational commitment (OC) is the strength of an individual's involvement and association with an organization (Porter et al., 1974). Porter et al. (1974) postulated that OC can be identified by three components: (I) an individual having a respect for and moral connection with the organization's mission and values; (II) an individual's motivation to put forth a considerable amount of additional effort on behalf of the organization; and (III) a distinct yearning to preserve organizational membership. These facets work in concert with the previously mentioned contributing factors of job satisfaction (Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Lee et al. (2009) took these concepts a step further and identified the three levels of organizational commitment as affective, continuance or normative commitment. *Affective commitment* is the emotional attachment that one has to an organization. This

person remains loyal to a job because they like where they work. *Continuance commitment* is when a person remains at a job only due to the economic attachment to the job. They actually need the job to sustain their livelihood. A person experiencing a *normative commitment* to a job feels obligated to remain at the job due to a sense of moral obligation to the mission of the agency or as a result of receiving training from the agency (Lee et al., 2009).

Tett and Meyer (1993) presented three theoretical models that further emphasize the interaction between the aspects of job satisfaction and organization commitment. The *satisfaction-to-commitment mediation model* indicates that job satisfaction can lead to organizational commitment; however, commitment takes longer to cultivate. Further, once commitment is developed, it can then mediate an individual's job satisfaction (Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Conversely, the *commitment-to-satisfaction model* suggests that in some instances, commitment to an organization comes before satisfaction. For example, some individuals develop an aptitude for the type of work and mission of their employer prior to even working for their agency. For other individuals, they may begin their employment with a substantial amount of passion for the objectives and values of the agency. In these occurrences, commitment is developed first, and it can then lead to job satisfaction, which equals decreased turnover rates (Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993). The *independent-effects model* suggests that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are mutually exclusive paradigms that interact independently of one another, and do not work in relationship to dictate how loyal or happy an individual is with his/her employer (Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Effective performance.

There are unique personal, emotional and cognitive characteristics that an individual possesses, which contribute to their ability to remain productive workers despite their dissatisfaction with their job (Cheeseman, 2006; Judge et al., 1998; Staw & Ross, 1985). In other words, in the midst of dissatisfying compensation, an overwhelming workload and an authoritarian supervisor; which has been intimated to lead to decreased workplace morale and increased employee turnover rates (Ley, 1966), some individuals continue to remain high performers. (Cohrs, Abele, & Dette, 2006; Judge et al., 1998; Lobban, 1994; Staw & Ross, 1985). The ingredients that influence this continued work performance have to do with an individual's approach to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which are: situational, dispositional (Aries, Gold, & Weigel, 1983; Bem & Allen, 1974; Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 1998; Staw & Ross, 1985) and integrative approaches (Cohrs et al., 2006; Ley, 1966; Locke, 1995; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Situational Approaches

From a situational viewpoint, the general situation is determined by the characteristics of the job. In other words, the more favorable the job characteristics, such as work demands, benefits and compensation, the more satisfied a person will be with his/her employment (Beehr, Glaser, Canali, & Wallwey, 2001; Cohrs et al., 2006). Cohrs et al. (2006) also underscored two situational approach models: the *job characteristics model* (JCM) and the *job demands-control-support model* (JDCSM). Within the framework of the JCM, job satisfaction is determined by five principal job elements:

autonomy, task identity, significance of the task, feedback and opportunity to use multiple skills (Cohrs et al., 2006). Hackman & Lawler (1971) laid the foundation for the research done by Cohrs et al. (2006) in their research conducted on job elements such as autonomy, knowledge and skills required for work, interaction required for work and work responsibilities. Meta-analytic studies have been conducted supporting the characteristics of the JCM as situational predictors of job satisfaction (Fried & Ferris, 1987). The JDCSM identified: (a) job demands: workload and strain; (b) social support: support from supervisors and co-workers; and (c) job control: independence, as predictors of job satisfaction (Cohrs et al., 2006).

Situational characteristics are any that come with an employment, and are external and not personal qualities of the employee (Cohrs et al., 2006; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Lawler, 1971). Situational characteristics include, yet are not limited to: workload, social support, independence, opportunity to use various skills, feedback, task identity, task significance and participatory leadership (Bem & Allen, 1974; Cohrs et al., 2006; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Lawler, 1971). The tool used to measure occupational stress in this dissertation, the Job Stress Survey, primarily focused on situational factors that may influence stress for community supervision officers (CSO).

Dispositional Approaches

The dispositional approach to job satisfaction and work performance is rich with respect to theoretical conceptualizations and has been studied extensively (Aries et al., 1983; Bono & Judge, 2003; Cohrs et al., 2006; Judge et al., 1998; Ley, 1966; Locke, 1995; Staw & Ross, 1985; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Literature suggests that the personal

attributes of people that contribute to job satisfaction include: personality, genetics, internal and external core evaluations, positive and negative affectivity and temperament (Bono & Judge, 2003; Cohrs et al., 2006; Judge et al., 1998; Ley, 1966; Locke, 1995; Staw & Ross, 1985; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Core evaluations, personality and affectivity are the specific perspectives that will be discussed in this chapter. These theoretical constructs were selected due to the large amount of literature that has focused specifically on these areas of interest (Bono & Judge, 2003; Cohrs et al., 2006; Judge et al., 1998; Ley, 1966; Locke, 1995; Staw & Ross, 1985; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Further research in the area of occupational stress for CSOs may consider evaluating the stress levels of officers from a dispositional perspective.

Core Evaluations

Judge et al. (1997) postulated that core evaluations are basic and essential evaluations that people have about themselves, others and the world. Specifically, individuals have external core evaluations, which are how they view the world, along with fundamental self-evaluations, which are how they view themselves, and others (Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 1997; 1998). Core evaluations are an individual's subconscious appraisals of him/herself, others and the world, and these beliefs impact the individual's views and behaviors (Judge et al., 1997). In 1998, Judge et al. expanded research on the concept of core evaluations and concluded that core self-evaluations are critical with respect to overall job satisfaction. Core evaluations were not considered while collecting data for this dissertation; however, future research may consider

dispositional approaches to work performance such as this, when evaluating job satisfaction, performance or occupational stress.

Self-evaluations.

A self-evaluation is a self-appraisal process that can be broken down into four categories: generalized self-efficacy, self-esteem, neuroticism and locus of control (Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 1997; 1998). *Generalized self-efficacy* is an individual's belief that he/she possesses the aptitude, cognitive functioning and plan of action necessary to accomplish specific goals and generally control the events in his/her life (Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 1997; 1998). Generalized self-efficacy is considered a core component of self-esteem; thus, it is viewed as an essential core self-evaluation (Judge et al., 1998).

Unlike generalized self-efficacy, which is task specific, *self-esteem* is an individual's comprehensive appraisal of him or herself. Self-esteem is an evaluation of one's self, which includes a general evaluation of personal success, significance, and capabilities (Bono & Judge, 2003; Malekiha, Abedi, & Baghban, 2012). For this reason, self-esteem can be viewed as the most fundamental core self-evaluation (Judge et al., 1998). Research suggests that self-esteem is a predictor of job satisfaction (Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 1997; 1998; Malekiha et al., 2012).

Neuroticism, viewed as the negative extreme of self-esteem, is one of the Big Five personality dimensions, and will be further detailed below (Judge et al., 1998). It is suggested that neurotics are likely to be timid, fearful of simple situations, susceptible to victimization and prone to anxiety (Judge et al., 1998).

The *locus of control* is an individual's belief that he/she can determine and manipulate the outcomes of events in his/her life (Judge et al., 1998). The locus of control is not to be confused with generalized self-efficacy, which is confidence in an ability to manipulate the events that led up to outcomes, while the locus of control is an individual's belief in controlling outcomes (Judge et al., 1998). All of these methods of self-evaluation are additional factors that can be considered for future research with respect to the internal influences of a CSO that may impact his/her job satisfaction, work performance and levels of stress.

Personality

The personality of a CSO is another internal/dispositional factor that may influence his/her ability to adapt to various work demands and occupational stress (Cohrs et al., 2006; Judge et al., 1998; Staw & Ross, 1985). Meta-analysis suggests that personality has a statistically significant predictive relationship with overall job happiness, organizational commitment and workplace performance (Locke, 1995). A highly researched theory of personality is the Big Five Model. This model will be further discussed below.

The big five.

Five principal personality traits have been consistently mentioned in I/O psychology literature as predictors of job satisfaction and work performance. The big five personality traits are as follows: openness, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability (Bono & Judge, 2003; Cohrs et al., 2006; Lounsbury, Smith, Levy, Leong, & Gibson, 2009; McGowan & Gormly, 1976; Monson,

Hesley, & Chernick, 1982; Naydenova, Lounsbury, Levy, & Kim, 2012; Watson, Suls, & Haig, 2002). Optimism and neuroticism have been used interchangeably with emotional stability (Bono & Judge, 2003; Neydevona et al., 2012). Each personality trait is relevant to the discussion about what exactly keeps employees satisfied, motivated to perform and loyal to an organization (Bono & Judge, 2003; Cohrs et al., 2006; Neydevona et al., 2012).

Affectivity

Affect, or mood, has been highly discussed along with core evaluations and personality, as a possible predictor of job satisfaction and performance (Bono & Judge, 2003; Cohrs et al., 2006; Lounsbury, et al., 2009; Naydenova et al., 2012; Watson et al., 2002). Beyond a subconscious decision to be positive or negative due to self-evaluations or core beliefs, an individual's fundamental make-up may be resilient, happy and enthusiastic (positive affectivity), while others may be sad, doubtful, fearful and angry (negative affectivity; Naydevona et al., 2012; Watson et al., 2002).

These two extremes of affectivity positively correlate with extroversion and neuroticism, which are characteristics of the big five personality model (Watson et al., 2002). Judge et al. (1998) posited that negative affectivity acts as a cynical lens through which individuals observe and interpret their environments. These individuals view peers less favorably, tend to be discontented with themselves, their jobs and with life in general. They also often play the role of a victim (Judge et al., 1998). Moreover, individuals with negative affectivity likely have low self-esteem, low self-efficacy and are possibly generally neurotic.

Conversely, positive affectivity, like extraversion, is the tendency to be expressive, outgoing, warmhearted and gregarious (Bono & Judge, 2003; Naydevona et al., 2012). These individuals see life through a positive lens and look at the bright side of every situation. Individuals with positive affectivity are more likely to be resilient in the face of hardship, establish meaningful relationships and have an overall hopeful stance on life (Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 1998; Naydevona et al., 2012).

Integrative Approach

Cohrs et al. (2006) sought to determine the interactive effects of situational and dispositional approaches on job satisfaction. They concluded that interactive effects were minimally correlated (Cohrs et al., 2006). Their conclusion was partially due to the overlapping factors of situational and dispositional approaches. For example, it was discovered that individuals who had higher levels of occupational self-efficacy, also had an increasingly positive view of situational variables such as autonomy and participatory leadership (Cohrs et al., 2006). This could simply suggest that individuals with a positive disposition may be more likely to view their situations in a positive manner.

Nevertheless, despite previous research suggesting minimal impact of situational and dispositional approaches interactively influencing job satisfaction, it can be reasonably deduced that individuals who do not believe they possess the knowledge, skills and tools to successfully complete a task, are more likely to view their situation as daunting and challenging (Aries et al., 1983; Bono & Judge, 2003; Cohrs et al., 2006; Judge et al., 1998). Thus, it is apparent that both situational and dispositional dynamics work collectively to influence an individual's job satisfaction, organizational

commitment and work performance. The impact of situational and dispositional influences on the job satisfaction and work performance of CSOs is something that can be explored in future research to garner insight on the factors that may impact an officer's occupational stress.

Personal-environment fit.

The person-environment (P-E) fit theory represents an integrative approach, in which occupational attitudes and behavior do not result from a person or an environment independently, but rather from the interaction between the two constructs (Edwards, 1996; Rehfuss, Gambrell, & Meyer, 2012). This theory fuses the literature on situational and dispositional approaches and exhibits the results in a comprehensive theory. Holland and Gottfredson (1976) introduced personality typologies to the field of psychology. In their research, they sought out to answer four questions: 1.) What personal and environmental factors lead to a person's vocational choice, satisfaction, career achievement, dissatisfaction or dropping out of the workforce? 2.) What personal and environmental factors lead to the stability and/or levels of an employee's work performance? 3.) What personal and environmental factors lead to the instability of an employee's work performance and decision to find a new job? 4.) Why do some people make decisions that are congruent with their vocational assessment while others do not, and yet others are undecided (Holland et al., 1976)? In answering the above questions, six personality types were developed (Holland et al., 1976), which continued to be expounded upon by more recent research (Pseekos, Bullock-Yowell, & Dahlen, 2011). These typologies were translated into six basic types of people and work environments

(personality codes): artistic, realistic, investigative, social, enterprising, and conventional (Pseekos et al., 2011). Essentially, if an individual's personality code is fitted with his/her work environment, then there is a good match between the employee and the organization (Pseeko et al., 2011). Therefore, the individual who has an appropriate fit with his/her job will be satisfied and work productivity will remain high. This theory suggests a correlation between job satisfaction and work productivity (Chilton et al., 2005; Donald et al., 2005; Pseekos et al., 2011; Rehfuss et al., 2012; Wethington, 2000). Conversely, if the employee's personality type and work environment do not fit, then the employee will be dissatisfied with his/her employment and work performance will suffer, which will in turn adversely impact the overall efficiency of the organization (Chilton et al., 2005; Donald et al., 2005; Pseekos et al., 2011; Wethington, 2000). Further research on how this theory relates to community supervision officers (CSOs) may lead to better hiring practices in the field of community corrections.

Review of Research Literature and Methodological Literature

The following segment will review research discussing the variables of interest analyzed during this dissertation process. The independent variables: occupational stress and supervision orientation will be examined along with the dependent variable: re-arrests (recidivism). At the genesis of this research, the only variables of interest were occupational stress and recidivism. A review of the literature on the occupational stress of parole and probation officers and the causes of recidivism, led to the inclusion of a number of variables frequently discussed in previous research: occupational stress, supervision orientation, officer tenure, officer caseload sizes and offender risk. These

variables will be discussed below. Unfortunately, due to a smaller than expected sample size, occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision outcomes such as re-arrests, successful and unsuccessful community supervision closures and the number of violation reports written to an offender's releasing authority are the only variables that were analyzed in this study. Nevertheless, all variables will be briefly discussed and offer value for future research.

Stress

A stressful event can be defined as one that results in the functioning of an individual departing from equilibrium (Deary, Blenkin, Agius, & Endler, 1996). Essentially, individuals naturally desire to feel psychologically and emotionally balanced; however, events can take place that disturb that balance. These events can be caused by either external or internal stimuli (Bangasser, 2010; Deary et al., 1996). External stress variables include, yet are not limited to: work pressure/demands, job ambiguity, role conflict and lack of resources (Bangasser, 2010; Champion, 1990; Deary et al., 1996; Fried et al., 2008; Turnage & Spielberger, 1991). Internal stress variables include, yet are not limited to: desires, values, commitments, views and personality traits (Bangasser, 2010; Bono & Judge, 2003; Cohrs et al., 2006; Judge et al., 1998). Whether external or internal, increased workplace stress results in increased turnover intentions and actual turnover rates (Bono & Judge, 2003; Chilton et al., 2005; Hulin, 1968; Joseph et al., 2010; Judge et al., 1998; Ley, 1966; Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Turnage & Spielberger, 1991).

Specific to the field of community corrections are variables such as: working with unmotivated clients, working with clients who have been court ordered to report for supervision as a disciplinary action, and having a feeling of ineffectiveness due to lack of resources to aid clients (Bangasser, 2010; Burrell, 2000; Champion, 1990; Lee et al., 2009). The coping mechanisms and management of stress for parole officers and people in general, all boils down to the fundamental building blocks of a person. Moreover, people are different and do not perceive the same events to be stressful (Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 1997; 1998).

People, due to genetics, self-esteem, self-efficacy, beliefs and experiences, to name just a few variables, have different ways of viewing the world (Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 1997; 1998). These perceptions, or core evaluations, act as effective intermediaries when potentially stressful events occur, and they result in a person either succumbing to the perceived stress and pressure of the event or gathering the necessary energy and motivation to overcome the challenge (Bono & Judge, 2003; Burrell, 2000; Cohrs et al., 2006; Judge et al., 1998; Ley, 1966; Locke, 1995; Staw & Ross, 1985; Tett & Meyer, 1993). The purpose of this dissertation was to evaluate this concept and how it transcends to the relationship between the occupational stress of a CSO and his/her motivation to engage with his/her client in an authoritarian way versus a rehabilitative way.

Occupational Stress Theories

There are three primary theories within I/O psychology literature associated with the relationship between stress and workplace performance: the positive linear, negative

linear, and inverted-U theories (Fernandez & Perrewé, 1995; Jamal, 2007; 2011; Leung et al., 2008; Muse et al., 2003; Sial et al., 2011).

Negative linear theory.

In accordance with the negative linear theory, any level of stress inhibits a person's performance because it consumes that person's time, energy and attention (Fried et al., 2008; Leung et al., 2008; Muse et al., 2003). Additionally, research conducted by Muse et al. (2003) suggested that high levels of stress results in the narrowing of an individual's perceptions, and an increase in involuntary physiological responses that interfere with that individual's performance. This dissertation sought to determine how occupational stress impacts job performance. Stress levels were measured using a survey tool, which allowed participants to self-report their perceived levels of stress. The job performance of each participant was then evaluated. Consequently, it was expected that there would be a statistically significant negative correlation between occupational stress and a reduction in job performance, thus supporting the negative linear theory.

Positive linear theory.

Contrary to the negative linear theory, the positive linear theory is based on the concept that rather than decrease performance, stress and anxiety increases performance (Muse et al., 2003). Arsenault and Dolan (1983) supported this theory by taking a look at occupational sources of stress such as restrictions on autonomy, pay inequity, role conflict and role ambiguity, and found that these variables had no significant influence on performance reduction. While their research did not suggest that stress increases performance, it also did not support the theory that stress decreases performance. This

dissertation sought to discover support for either theory by evaluating the stress levels and performance of parole officers. It was expected that there would be a statistically significant positive correlation between occupational stress and an increase in job performance, thus supporting the positive linear theory.

Inverted-u theory.

The Inverted-U theory is a combination of both the negative and positive linear theories, suggesting that occupational stress is good and increases performance when it is present to a degree (Muse et al., 2003). Conversely, high levels of stress can be detrimental to job performance (Fried et al., 2008; Leung et al., 2008; Muse et al., 2003). Rodríguez-Escudero, Carbonell, and Munuera-Aleman (2010) conducted research suggesting that distinct sources of occupational stress generates varying performance responses. Specifically, they evaluated the impact of role ambiguity, role conflict and pressure for performance. Consequently, their research suggested that intermediate levels of role ambiguity can be hurtful to performance, while low and high levels of role ambiguity can be helpful. Role ambiguity occurs when an individual is unclear of his/her work duties/responsibilities and these duties fit into the mission of the agency (Rodríguez-Escudero et al., 2010). Role conflict was purported to have a negative linear relationship with some aspects of performance. Role conflict exists when an employee's personal morals and values become a direct contrast to the expectations of his/her employer (Rodríguez-Escudero et al., 2010). An inverted-U relationship was suggested to exist with other aspects of performance. Finally, pressure for performance was reported to have an inverted-U relationship with performance, suggesting that low levels

of pressure for performance results in lower levels of performance. However, performance increases as pressure for performance increases, until it gets to a point where the pressure for performance again begins to decrease job performance. Moreover, the research conducted by Rodriguez-Escudero et al. (2010) overall supported the inverted-U theory of stress and performance, suggesting that some levels of stress can be beneficial to job performance, while high levels of stress can be detrimental to job performance in some instances.

Supervision Orientation

A major factor, which contributes to offender supervision outcomes, is the working relationship between offenders and their parole officers (Bracken, 2007; Petersilia, 2007; Piar, 2003). Bracken (2007) referred to this relationship between offender and officer as "risk-case management," which means that officers must supervise offenders strategically in accordance with their level of risk to reoffend. His results suggested that officers struggle with a phenomena called "role ambiguity", which is the conflict between the role of a law-enforcement officer and case manager focused on rehabilitation (Bracken, 2007). Furthermore, role ambiguity can influence an officer's interactions with an offender, thus leading to a heightened possibility of reoffending if the officer takes a punitive stance to supervision in lieu of a rehabilitative stance (Bracken, 2007). After surveying probation officers in Canada, Bracken's results suggested that an officer's ability to successfully manage cases in accordance with the risks and needs of the offender, strengthens the relationship between the officer and offender, and subsequently leads to a lower recidivism rate. Petersilia (2007) took an alternative

approach to this subject by interviewing parolees in lieu of officers in California. She referred to the relationship between the officer and offender as "behavioral contracting". Consistent with the research of Bracken (2007), Petersilia's results suggested that parolees respond more positively to an approach that is less punitive, and more focused on the rehabilitation, risks and needs of the offender (Petersilia, 2007).

Weldon and Ritchie (2010) conducted further research suggesting that the interaction/relationship between probation officers and the population they supervise, directly impacts recidivism rates. They conducted research on literature related to mentally ill offenders who also suffer from substance use disorders. Their research suggested that parole/probation officers would be more effective in assisting offenders through a change process if they have an understanding of the Transtheoretical Model of Change (TTM), developed by Prochaska and DiClemente (1992). Accordingly, officers who have a grasp of where an offender is with respect to his/her stage and motivation for change, can meet the offender's needs and level of motivation with the appropriate interventions (Weldon & Ritchie, 2010). This interaction from the perspective of the community supervision officer (CSO) is also known as correctional orientation (Bangasser, 2010), or in the case of this research, supervision orientation. More specifically, CSOs can choose to approach their clients from a punitive or retributive standpoint (Robinson et al., 1996), a rehabilitative standpoint (Cullen et al., 1985), or a combination of both which is most effective in building a rapport with the offender population (DeMichele & Payne, 2007). What previous research fails to do is link the association between a CSO's occupational stress, and their likelihood to supervise their

offenders within a specific correctional orientation. Previous literature further fails to associate the occupational stress of CSOs with the behaviors of the offenders they supervise. This is specifically the gap in previous research that this current study attempted to fill.

Recidivism

Another area that is well represented with literature is recidivism. Researchers have been conducting studies to find out what factors contribute to repeated criminal activity (Anzalone, 2011; Bangasser, 2010; Bracken, 2007; Jolin, 1990; Petersilia, 2007; Piar, 2003; Schmidt & Witte, 1998; Unruh, Gau, & Waintrup, 2009; Weldon & Ritchie, 2010). Accordingly, the concept of evidence based practices has gained momentum in the field of corrections, in an attempt to discover what science says efficiently works in the reduction of recidivism (Jolin, 1990; Kubrin & Stewart, 2006; Liu, 2003). More specifically, the following factors were suggested to be linked to offender re-arrests: survival needs, chemical substance abuse, economical status, lack of guidance/support from home, long term jail sentences, educational level, employability, and peer influences (Jolin, 1990; Kubrin & Stewart, 2006; Liu, 2003; Unruh, Gau, & Waintrup, 2009). Although, the research of Kubrin and Stewart (2006), who surveyed over four hundred male prisoners in Chicago, suggested that drug usage, lack of education and lack of employment are the most influential factors with respect to an offender's likelihood to reoffend, more recent research (Andrews, Bonta, & Wormith, 2011; Grieger & Hosser, 2014) postulated that there are eight primary risk factors for reoffending (Andrews, Bonta, & Wormith, 2011; Grieger & Hosser, 2014; Kubrin & Stewart, 2006).

Andrews, Bonta and Wormith (2011) along with Greiger and Hosser (2014) examined the "Central Eight" risk factors to reoffending, which are the "Moderate Four" risk factors: family, education, leisure time and substance abuse, as well as the "Big Four" risk factors: antisocial/criminal history, antisocial peer associations, antisocial cognitions/thinking and antisocial personality/attitude. With previous research findings such as the above in mind, researchers have been focusing on the various influences of an offender's personality and environment that promote continued antisocial behavior and recidivism; however, none of the research evaluates the potential impact of the community supervision officer's attitude, stress or approach to supervision as a risk factor for recidivism. Hence, this current study focused on this gap in the literature and attempted to discover a relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and offender recidivism.

Methodology

Warner (2008) posited that a regression analysis is most commonly used for non-experimental research designs. Additionally, in a regression analysis, the strength of the predictor variables can be measured by taking a look at the b coefficients, and statistical significance can also be measured evaluating the t ratio and its association with b raw scores (Warner, 2008, p. 698).

A multiple regression analysis takes a look at how multiple independent variables may influence a dependent variable (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Warner, 2008). Considering this study, the interest was in finding out if supervision outcome measures are influenced by the occupational stress and supervision orientation of community supervision officers.

Therefore, occupational stress and supervision orientation were used as the predictor variables. Via a regression analysis, this researcher sought to find out if there was a correlation between occupational stress and supervision orientation. The analysis was also used to discover a potential correlation between occupational stress and the identified supervision outcome measures (re-arrests, successful and unsuccessful completion of supervision and number of violation reports forwarded to the releasing authorities), as well as supervision orientation and the supervision outcome measures, and also the combination of the two predictor variables with the various supervision outcome measures. It is possible, that one or a combination of the predictor variables could have had a strong correlation with one or a combination of the supervision outcome measures, but this would not have equated to a statistically significant correlation between any of them. Meaning, causality could not be inferred (Warner, 2008). Nevertheless, a strong correlation can still lead to a meaningful dialogue pertaining to those conclusions. In the end, this study can set up further research that may be more experimental in nature, or use a larger sample population so that a better representation of the entire probation and parole officer population can be established.

A Type I, or alpha error, is a mistake sometimes made in statistical analysis, where the researcher concludes that a result is not due to chance, when in fact it is (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). In other words, the researcher will incorrectly reject the null hypothesis; thus, committing a Type I error (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). A Type I error can occur when there are as little as two variables being measured; however, the likelihood of this mistake can increase as the number of variables increases (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010;

Warner, 2008). This is relevant to the current study because there are two independent variables and four dependent variables being analyzed, which means there is in increased chance for a Type I error.

To reduce the risk of a Type I error, the Bonferroni procedure was used for this study. The Bonferroni procedure is used when multiple significance tests are being used, and when the researcher would like to keep the overall experiment at a risk level of 5% (Warner, 2008). In other words, using the six variables from the current study, this researcher used the Bonferroni procedure to maintain an experiment-wise alpha (EWa) of .05, keeping the risk of incurring at least one Type I error as low as 5% for the set of five variables (Warner, 2008). The primary drawback for this procedure is that it is extremely conservative (Warner, 2008). The benefits and limitations of this procedure will be detailed in the discussion section of the data analysis report.

Synthesis and Critique of the Research Findings

Although research is massive with respect to occupational stress, work performance and job satisfaction (Bono & Judge, 2003; Chilton et al., 2005; Donald et al., 2005; Hulin, 1968; Joseph et al., 2010; Judge et al., 1998; Ley, 1966; Porter et al., 1974; Pseekos et al., 2011; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Wethington, 2000), there is a void in the literature with respect to the relationship between these factors and the supervision orientation of community supervision officers. Previous research surely speaks to the correlation between supervision orientation and recidivism (Bracken 2007; Cullen et al., 1985; DeMichele & Payne, 2007; Petersilia, 2007; Robinson et al., 1996; Weldon & Ritchie, 2010); however, this study seeks to discover the relationship between

occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision outcomes such as recidivism, which is an advancement in science.

Summary

In addition to occupational stress, there are a vast number of variables that influence job satisfaction and work performance (Bono & Judge, 2003; Chilton et al., 2005; Hulin, 1968; Joseph et al., 2010; Judge et al., 1998; Ley, 1966; Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993). When considering the potential influences on occupational stress, it is difficult to ascertain exactly why an employee may be stressed and dissatisfied at work without sifting through all of the variables. By way of the Job Stress Survey instrument, this study took a look at two potential influences: job stress severity (situational factors such as work load and organizational support), and the frequency of stressful events taking place at work.

Supervision orientation, which was measured by the Revised Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale (RCC) evaluated whether the participants were more likely to approach the supervision of their offenders in a punitive way, a rehabilitative way or a more integrative way. There is no previous literature investigating a link between the occupational stress of community supervision officers and their supervision orientation. This study attempted to measure the relationship between these two variables via regression analysis.

Recidivism is one of the primary community supervision outcomes evaluated in this study. Previous research has studied a variety of variables that potentially influence reoffending, such as family support, drug addiction, lack of education, too much leisure

time, criminal history, antisocial peer associations, antisocial attitude/personality and antisocial cognitions/thinking. (Andrews, Bonta, & Wormith, 2011; Grieger & Hosser, 2014; Jolin, 1990; Kubrin & Stewart, 2006; Liu, 2003; Unruh, Gau, & Waintrup, 2009). Yet, in all of the previous research, there was no mention of the potential risk of an offender on community supervision having a stressed out community supervision officer as a support system, a guide and coach throughout the process of community supervision. These gaps in the literature provide room for this study to delve into the relationship between the occupational stress of community supervision officers, their supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes. There is also opportunity for future research to consider the many confounding factors that influence the occupational stress of community supervision officers and examine how these factors may or may not interact with the supervision orientation of officers. Moreover, more research needs to be done to consider the many factors influencing occupational stress and supervision orientation and how the relationships between these variables impact supervision outcomes.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to improve evidence based practices in the field of community corrections via answering research questions that sought to discover the relationship between community supervision officer occupational stress, supervision orientation, and community supervision outcomes. Offenders are being released into the community daily and annually at a high rate (Georgiou, 2013; Piar, 2003; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2016). There is also a strong likelihood that more than half of those released will be re-arrested or sent back to jail due to violating their community supervision conditions within three years of being released from incarceration (Georgiou, 2013; Langan & Cunniff, 1992; Langan & Levin, 2002; Megan et al., 2006; Minor et al., 2008; Minor et al., 2003; Petersilia, 2007). These trends emphasize the need for improvements in the area of community corrections and supervision. Previous research suggests a significant relationship amongst the interactions between community supervision officers and the offenders they supervise, and community supervision outcomes such as recidivism and technical violations (Bracken 2007; Cullen et al., 1985; DeMichele & Payne, 2007; Petersilia, 2007; Robinson et al., 1996; Weldon & Ritchie, 2010). Thus, this study sought to evaluate these relationships and also determine if the occupational stress of a community supervision officer plays a role in influencing them.

Research Design

An ex post facto non-experimental design was utilized to conduct this quantitative study. As defined by Warner (2008), this design is non-experimental because it does not consist of random assignment of research participants, and its purpose is to study environmental factors that have already occurred prior to the study. Furthermore, there is no direct manipulation of variables. This is contrary to experimental designs in which an independent variable is intentionally manipulated (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Warner, 2008). Additionally, the circumstances that caused the independent variables under observation have already happened (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Warner, 2008). Moreover, the ex post facto non-experimental design most suitably describes this study because the independent variables of study will simply be measured in lieu of being manipulated, and the circumstances leading up to those variables has already taken place.

In this study, the independent variables under observation are the occupational stress level of community supervision officers and the supervision orientation of those officers. The dependent variables are the re-arrest rates of the offenders these officers supervise with a six month timeframe, the successful completion of community supervision for the offenders these officers supervise within a six month timeframe, the unsuccessful completion of community supervision for the offenders these officers supervise within a six month timeframe and the number of violation reports these officers sent to the releasing authorities reporting the noncompliance of their offenders prior to supervision completion within a six month timeframe.

The design of the study began with community supervision officers being recruited and given an assessment tool that measures occupational stress and a tool that measures supervision orientation. The instruments were emailed to them within an email soliciting their participation in the study. To qualify for participation in the study, officers had to be employed for a period of at least one year. Subsequently, during the data analysis process, the scores from the surveys along with data about the officers' caseloads, were used to assess relationships between the aforementioned variables.

Data pertaining to the independent variables were collected via two survey instruments hosted by Survey Monkey, called the Job Stress survey (JSS) and the Revised Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale (RCC). Data pertaining to the dependent variables were collected via archival information maintained by the Supervision and Management Automated Record Tracking (SMART) case management system maintained by the research site. The archival data is essentially still directly connected to the research participants; however, rather than have them fill out answers on a survey, this information was pulled from an electronic tracking system to reduce time, increase accuracy of information and minimize errors by the participants. The JSS was administered to CSOs of the research site who volunteered for the study, and was used to measure their level of occupational stress. The RCC was also administered to voluntary CSOs of the research site and was used to measure their supervision orientation. Multivariate statistics were used to simultaneously analyze independent and dependent variables to examine if a relationship existed between the predictor and criterion variables. It was assumed that the predictor and criterion variables were meaningfully

related based on the findings presented in historical literature. Multivariate statistics were also utilized to minimize the likelihood of a Type I error and produce a set of regression coefficients (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Warner, 2008).

This research sought to find out if the occupational stress of an officer influences their choice to approach their clients from a punitive or a rehabilitative perspective. Upon completing the surveys, the caseloads of the participants were evaluated to determine the frequency of offender arrests, successful and unsuccessful completions of supervision for the offenders on their caseloads, and the number of violation reports written during a 6 month time period. The time period under observation for all of the archival research was six months prior to the completion of the Job Stress Survey (JSS) and Revised Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale RCC. This six month time period was chosen because the JSS focuses on the intensity of and how often stressful events have been experienced within the 6 months prior to completion of the JSS (Holmstrom et al., 2008; Spielberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999).

Target Population and Participant Selection

Over half a million prisoners are released into the community in the United States on an annual basis (Piar, 2003). Of these offenders 80% of them are released with conditions that they must follow and that are monitored by community supervision officers (Piar, 2003). Each state has some form of supervision for these offenders released to the community on a daily basis (Langan & Cunniff, 1992; Langan & Levin, 2002; Minor et al., 2003). This study is specifically interested in community supervision officers, who maintain the dual role of probation and a parole officer. This study focuses

on a specific community corrections agency on the East Coast. Hence, CSOs were solicited from that research site to participate in this study. This limited the external validity of the study due to the specific demographics of the officers and offenders within the demographical area of the research site. These limitations will be further detailed in chapter five of this dissertation.

CSOs used in this research will henceforth be referred to as participants. The recruitment process was administered via agency email. An email giving an overview of the study was sent to over 100 potential participants randomly selected from a stratified pool of CSOs working for the agency. Not all CSO's working for the research site perform the same duties. Therefore, only the officers who share the same role of supervising offenders on probation and/or parole were randomly selected for solicitation. The email solicitation informed CSOs about the study, highlighted its relevancy to their workload and interests, and encouraged them to participate. The email indicated the eligibility criterion that they must be employed by the research site for at least one year. This inclusion criterion was also embedded within the survey to ensure that participants meet the eligibility requirements. The one-year time requirement was chosen for two reasons. Firstly, the JSS requires respondents to assess their perceived level of stress for the previous six months, so that would require respondents to be employees for at least six months. Secondly, an additional six-month requirement was added simply to give new officers a time period to adjust to the demands of a new job. Accordingly, research suggests that it takes three to six months for individuals to adjust to a new position of employment (Brett, Feldman, & Weingart, 1990; Peterson, 2006).

Procedures

Due to the extremely sensitive and confidential nature of the work done by CSOs, the approving officials of the research site limited the sampling procedure for this study. It took approximately one year to complete the approval process to use CSOs from the research site as participants, use the agency email to communicate with them, and use agency archival data. Due to the research site being a federal government agency, there were several layers of approval that needed to be granted for research to be conducted. The research proposal needed to be vetted by the Research and Evaluation Committee of the research site, the office of the Director of the Agency, the Office of Research and Evaluation and the attorneys in the office of General Counsel at the research site.

Upon reading the email solicitation and deciding to participate in the study, participants selected a URL link embedded within the email that took them to the Survey Monkey website. Prior to accessing the informed consent form on the site, participants were asked how long they worked for the research site, to determine if they met the inclusion criteria and also to ascertain their tenure with the agency. Just after meeting the inclusion criterion, the site allowed them access to the informed consent forms to read and sign, which provided them with all of the information about the study that was ethically required. Participants were only allowed to continue to the next phase upon accepting and signing the consent form. The next thing they completed was the Job Stress Survey (JSS) to assess their level of occupational stress, followed by the Revised Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale (RCC) to assess their supervision orientation. Subsequently, the caseloads of the participants were evaluated to ascertain

the number of re-arrests, successful and unsuccessful completion of community supervision and the number of violation reports written to the releasing authorities within the previous 6 months. The developers of the JSS and RCC were all contacted and permission was granted for these instruments to be used for this study.

Once the participants completed the survey, each of their names was assigned to a number. This number was then used to represent the participants' names, and the actual names used in the beginning were erased from the data-set on the server of the research site. All that remained was a number attached to all of the data pulled with the assistance of the Office of Research and Evaluation (ORE) at the research site. At no point in the analysis process did ORE or any other staff at the research site see the names of the officers who completed the surveys.

Instruments

Several factors were considered during the selection process for an appropriate instrument. There have been concerns raised by some researchers (Kasl, 1978, 1987a, 1987b, 1998) pertaining to the reliability of self-assessments when measuring work related stress (Holmstrom et al., 2008). Conversely, those concerns have been refuted by other researchers (Del Boca & Darkes, 2003; Lundberg, 2006), who suggested that self-reports are the most effective ways to gain information pertaining to health concerns (Holmstrom et al., 2008). Since something as intimate to an individual as workplace stressors is subjective in nature, a self-report instrument was selected for this study.

Job Stress Survey

Given the intensions of this research to assess occupational stress as a predictor variable, it was critical to select an instrument with sound validity and reliability that would efficienly accomplish this goal. With this in mind, the instrument used to measure occupational stress for this study was the Job Stress Survey (JSS; Spielberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999). The JSS has been used as a tool to measure the occupational stress amongst individuals and groups by considering both the severity and the frequency of stressful events (Holmstrom et al., 2008; Spielberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999). The JSS is a 30-item questionnaire designed to focus on work situations that typically result in psychological strain (Spielberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999). More specifically, the JSS focuses on the intensity of and how often each stressful event was experienced within the past 6 months (Holmstrom et al., 2008; Spielberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999). Moreover, since police officers and teachers were used to develop the JSS and it expounded upon its predecessor, the police stress survey, it was in line with the primary focus of this research study, which was to measure the occupational stress of community supervision officers, who are also law enforcement officers (Vagg & Spielberger, 1999).

The JSS is comprised of three stress scales and six sub-scales. The stress scales are Job Stress Frequency (JS-F), Job Stress Severity (JS-S) and Job Stress Index (JS-X). The JS-F scale reflects the average frequency a stressful event is perceived to have occurred over the past six months. The JS-S scale indicates the participant's average score of perceived severity for the stressor events described in the 30 questions of the JSS. The JS-X is the overall stress scale, indicating the level of occupational stress for the

respondent. For the JS-X, the severity and frequency scores are combined to produce an overall reflection of perceived stress (Holmstrom et al., 2008; Spielberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999).

The six sub-scales are derived from a selection of the 30 items on the JSS: Job Pressure (JP-F, JP-S, and JP-X) and Lack of Organizational Support (LS-F, LS-S, and LS-X; Holmstrom et al., 2008, p. 280). The three job pressure sub-scales are created from ten of the 30 questions that are related directly to the pressures of work such as handling crisis situations and meeting deadlines. The three lack of organizational support sub-scales are from ten of the 30 questions that directly involve other people such as co-workers and supervisors (Holmstrom et al., 2008, p. 280).

In this study, only the job stress severity and job stress frequency scores were used to measure the overall stress (JS-X) of the community supervision officers. Rather than test all of the various factors that may influence occupational stress, such as organizational support, job pressure and other situational or dispositional factors, the goal of this study was to determine if there was a fundamental relationship between occupational stress, supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes.

Reliability.

To discover the reliability of the JSS, internal consistency has been previously measured using coefficient alpha. Accordingly, alpha reliability scores have reportedly ranged from .77 to .93, with a median value of .88, which is suggested to be a respectable range of scores (Spielberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999). Additionally, test-retest data has ranged from .48 to .75 over various time intervals (Speilberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999).

Gellis (2001) used the JSS to evaluate the occupational stress level of social workers working in Academic Health Centers. Three hundred and five surveys were distributed across 26 hospitals and 187 surveys were returned for a 61% response rate. For this study, Cronbach alpha reliabilities ranged from 0.74 to 0.89, which is on par with the results of Speilberger and Vagg (1999; Gellis, 2001). In 2008, Holmstrom et al. conducted a research study, which included 1,186 employees working in a metal assembly industry in northern Sweden. To evaluate test-retest reliability, a total of 85 employees (42 and 43) from two factories took the JSS in a six-month interval. A six-month time frame was chosen because the frequency section of the JSS consists of a six-month period. Cronbach alpha coefficients of the scales were calculated and revealed alphas ranging from 0.81 to 0.95, with a mean value of 0.88. These scores are in line with the scores originally produced by Speilberger and Vagg (1999; Holmstrom et al., 2008). Pearson correlation was used to measure the test-retest relationship. Accordingly, there were positive and large correlations between the first and second test on all of the scales ranging from 0.59 to 0.77.

The JSS seeks to measure a state of being, such as the level of an individual's current workplace stress. This means that an individual's level of stress is something that can be fluent and frequently changing. Therefore, the test-retest method to measure reliability may not be extremely suitable for this instrument. Nevertheless, due to the purpose of the instrument, which is to primarily highlight the stress levels of employees along with the reasons for heightened levels of stress at the workplace, the reliability of this instrument should not be of major concern (Spielberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999). As

indicated by the studies discussed above, the JSS has produced consistent results with respect to its reliability.

Validity.

A review of validity for the JSS will be discussed in terms of construct and concurrent validity. In other words, whether or not the JSS actually measures what it seeks to assess will be evaluated. The JSS, which was designed to assess the generic sources of occupational stress for men and women in a variety of work settings, spawned from two previously developed instruments: the Police Stress Survey (PSS) and the Teacher Stress Survey (TSS; Spielberger & Vagg, 1986; 1999; Vagg & Spielberger, 1998; 1999). Accordingly, job pressure and lack of organizational support are two scales that were originally derived from the 60-item PSS questionnaire developed by Spielberger, Westberry, Grier, and Greenfield (1981). Subsequently, Grier (1982) used the PSS as a guide, along with 39 of its questions that applied to both law enforcement and education settings, to develop the 60-item TSS. Furthermore, the JSS evolved from the development of both the PSS and TSS, to bring forth a tool, based on a solid foundation that can be used to evaluate the occupational stress of a wide range of employment settings (Spielberger, 1986; Vagg & Spielberger, 1998; 1999). To establish concurrent validity, several studies used similar and well-tested instruments to measure occupational stress simultaneously with the JSS (Gellis, 2001; Holmstrom et al., 2008)

Holmstrom (2008) compared the JSS with the Perceived Stress Questionnaire (PSQ), which was also determined to have strong validity. The PSQ is a 30-item survey just as the JSS. Concurrent validity was assessed via a study of employees who were

ambulance personnel and members of a metal industry factory. A total of 63 workers participated in the study. The mean PSQ score was 0.30 and standard deviation was 0.19. The internal consistency was $\alpha = 0.95$. Concurrently, the respective scores for the JSS were between 0.83–0.95. The JSS and PSQ showed strong and moderate positive correlations in eight out of nine scales. This pattern of correlations suggested favorable concurrent validity for the JSS instrument (Holmstrom, 2008).

Revised Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale

The Revised Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale (RCC) is a 24-item, self-report, semantic differential scale. It is intended for use with probation and parole officers in understanding how they underscore the demands of their role. It was revised from Dembo's (1972) orientation measure. This instrument was selected because Ricks and Eno Louden (2015) designed this scale specifically to measure the same construct of interest for this study. Essentially, the RCC was designed to measure a probation or parole officers' support for the rehabilitation of offenders (Ricks & Eno Louden, 2015). During the design of this scale, the questions were developed to ensure that individuals with less than or equal to a twelfth grade education could read them. To accomplish this, Ricks and Eno Louden (2015) used the Reading Grade Level (RGL) and the Flesch Reading Ease (RE) tools to ensure test takers could easily read the questions.

Psychometric properties.

Ricks and Eno Louden (2015) established validity and reliability for this tool by conducting a research study to include probation and parole officers from various corrections departments in the southwestern United States. Of the 649 officers invited to

participate in the research, 294 officers responded and 222 officers completed the surveys and were used in the research. Scores on the RCC range from 24 (total emphasis on being punitive and controlling; authoritarian law officers) and 168 (total emphasis on rehabilitative; supportive social workers). Participants' actual scores ranged from 46 to 146. The mean RCC score for the sample was 93.44 (*SD* 17.46). Tests of skewness and kurtosis indicated that the distribution was normal, but came close to being abnormal in its kurtosis, *KS*(222) .059, *p* .06, 95% CI for skewness and kurtosis [–.32, .01], and [–.22, .43], respectively. Guttman–Cronbach's alpha of .85, 95% CI [.82, .88], for all 24 item pairs was obtained. Alpha would not have been significantly improved by removing any of the item pairs, so they all appeared to be appropriate and were retained on the scale (Ricks & Eno Louden, 2015).

Validity.

Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients between the RCC and other similar scales were calculated. As hypothesized by Ricks and Eno Louden (2015), the RCC correlated positively with the rehabilitation orientation scale, *r* .49, *n* 194, *p* .001, 95% CI [.38, .59], and negatively with the legal authoritarianism scale, *r* .38, *n* 182, *p* .001, 95% CI [–.50, .25]. Essentially, high scores on the RCC were correlated to an orientation toward rehabilitation, and low scores on the RCC were correlated to a community corrections approach favoring legal authority. An unexpected result was that the RCC correlated positively with the social desirability scale, *r* .14, *n* 209, *p* .05, 95% CI [.004, .27] (Ricks & Eno Louden, 2015).

Reliability.

The scale separates officers into three categories: law enforcers, social workers and synthetic officers (Ricks & Eno Louden, 2015). Officers with RCC scores of 111 and above (*n* 30, 13.5%) were considered social workers, and officers with RCC scores of 76 or lower (*n* 36, 16.2%) were considered law enforcers. The rest of the officers (*n* 156, 70.3%) were considered synthetic.

A remarkable note is that officers who supervise both probationers and parolees (community supervision officers) had significantly lower RCC scores, *F*(2, 219) 13.01, *p* .001, 2 .11, than those supervising only one type. They also had lower rehabilitation orientation scores than those who supervised probationers only (Ricks & Eno Louden, 2015). The RCC demonstrated comparable psychometric properties to other similar scales. Revisions of Glaser's (1969) scale generated reliability coefficients ranging from .65 to .94 (Clear & Latessa, 1993), and the professional orientation portion of the KlofasToch measure (1982) generated a reliability coefficient of .85. These scores are similar to those of the RCC in the study by Ricks and Eno Louden (2015).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

To determine the predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and community supervision outcome measures (as measured by the combination of monthly average offender arrests, monthly average successful and unsuccessful community supervision completions, and the monthly average of offender violation reports), the following research questions and hypotheses were developed.

Research Question and Hypothesis 1

Q1: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation?

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation.

H1: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation.

Research Question and Hypothesis 2

Q2: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests?

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests amongst the offenders on their caseloads.

H2: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests amongst the offenders on their caseloads.

Research Question and Hypothesis 3

Q3: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions?

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

H3: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

Research Question and Hypothesis 4

Q4: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions?

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

H4: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

Research Question and Hypothesis 5

Q5: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports?

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender

violation reports they send to the releasing authorities prior to their assigned offenders' community supervision completion.

H5: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports they send to the releasing authorities prior to their assigned offenders' community supervision completion.

Data Analysis

As the research was gathered and the data was collected, the procedures for this study had to be adjusted to accommodate the newly discovered variables of interest, as well as the unforeseen challenges associated with gaining approvals from the federal government research site, and also using the law enforcement officers working for the federal government as research participants. Initially, there was a strong interest in discovering the predictive relationship between the occupational stress of community supervision officers and community supervision outcomes. With one independent variable and three dependent variables, a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was going to be run to measure the mean differences between the groups of variables. As research was gathered on the variables of interest, it was determined that occupational stress, community supervision success, recidivism and offender compliance with community supervision are all influenced by multiple factors (Anzalone, 2011; Bangasser, 2010; Bono & Judge, 2003; Bracken, 2007; Chilton et al., 2005; Hulin, 1968; Joseph et al., 2010; Judge et al., 1998; Ley, 1966; Petersilia, 2007; Piar, 2003; Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Weldon & Ritchie, 2010). Hence, supervision orientation,

tenure, caseload sizes and offender community safety risk were all added to the list of variables to be evaluated and correlated, which would have made for a very robust study.

With this number of variables, a Structural Equation Model (SEM) was going to then be used in lieu of a MANOVA, to effective capture all of the variables and determine a statistical relationship amongst them. However, once less than 50 CSOs participated in the study, a power analysis was conducted to determine the best analysis along with the appropriate number of variables to use in the study. Consequently, a multiple regression was used to simultaneously take a look at the research questions and hypotheses and determine a predictive relationship amongst them. Further details pertaining to the sample and the analysis will be provided in Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

Ethical Considerations

Due to human participation in this study and the research site being a federal government agency, ethical considerations presented major challenges throughout the research process. The research site had several layers of approval that needed to be satisfied with four different departments. The approval process to collect data took approximately eighteen months. That clock started after receiving approval from Capella University to move forward with the IRB process.

The primary ethical concern was the safety of the participants. There needed to be insurance that the participants would not be harmed and that their rights to confidentiality would be upheld throughout the process. Additionally, information pertaining to people on community supervision was being gathered, and the identification of the offenders on

supervision needed to be protected as well. Steps taken to safeguard the confidentiality and overall health of the participants included careful data collection procedures, data storage and protection, as well as data organization and preparation.

Data Collection

The Office of Research and Evaluation (ORE) at the research site provided the necessary assistance to obtain participants and archival data in a way that would effectively protect the confidentiality of the participants and the offenders on their caseloads. A simple random sampling procedure was used to obtain participants for this study. As approved by ORE, 100 officers were randomly selected to solicit their participation. ORE was given the following elements to consider prior to pulling a random sample:

1. CSOs are required to have been employed for at least one year
2. CSOs from every branch of community supervision services (CSS) at the research site were used with the exception of Branch I (Diagnostics). These officers were excluded because they have minimal interactions with offenders and do not have the same expectations to engage offenders, promote behavioral change and report noncompliance to the releasing authorities.
3. CSOs who supervise offenders on a "minimum" team (responsible for offenders classified as minimum risk level to the community), were also supposed to be excluded from the sample. Even with this exclusionary criterion, a small number of CSOs on a "minimum" team were included in the survey research. These

participants were outliers, given their large caseload size compared to the other CSOs in the study.

4. The CSOs branch and team information were to be considered and were going to be used during data analysis to evaluate any differences is the results that may be influenced by the particular supervision teams of the officers.

ORE took all of these elements and developed a data-set which included an officer's name, along with his/her tenure, branch and team. The data-set also included the following archival data pertaining to the dependent variables:

1. DV 1) Re-arrests: for each participant, ORE pulled the number of arrests sustained by each offender on his/her caseload over the previous 6 months along with the number of days a client has been on a CSO's caseload. ORE also pulled the average number of arrests across each participant's entire caseload.
2. DV 2) Successful completion of supervision: for each participant, ORE pulled the average number of successful supervision completions (As logged into SMART) across the participants' entire caseload over the previous 6 months.

   Statuses that represent successful supervision closures are:

   - Expired satisfactorily
   - Terminated successfully
   - Returned to the sending jurisdiction (in compliance)
   - Transferred to U.S. Probation

3. DV 3) Unsuccessful completion of supervision: for each participant, ORE pulled the average number of unsuccessful supervision completions (As logged into SMART) across the participants' entire caseload over the previous 6 months.

   Statuses that represent unsuccessful supervision closures are:

   - Revoked to incarceration, or technical violations
   - Expired unsatisfactorily
   - Terminated unsatisfactorily
   - Case closed pending revocation
   - Closed for offender deportation

   Returned to sending jurisdiction (out of compliance)

   note: There are other statuses used by the research site that represent types of supervision closures; however, these are the only statuses that were used to garner a statistical relationship between occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision closures.

4. DV 4) Number of violation reports written to the releasing authorities: for each participant, ORE will pull the average number of violation reports written for each offender on his/her caseload over the previous 6 months. ORE will also pull the average number of violation reports written across each participant's entire caseload.

In summary, using the descriptive information about CSOs listed above along with offender risk, ORE developed a data-set. Specifically, ORE took the randomly

selected 100 names and pulled the aforementioned elements for each of those names with the exception of the dependent variables; arrests, closures and violation reports. This information had to be pulled after the participants completed the surveys so that the data would represent six months prior to survey completion. The names were placed onto a secure server within the research site.

Once the data-set with the randomly selected names was provided to the researcher, the researcher sent the CSOs on the list an email solicitation, using the employee email system. Upon deciding to participate in the study, the CSOs signed informed consent and completed the surveys. Upon notification of survey completion, the researcher sent the names of those who completed the surveys back to ORE with only the date of survey completion. This was done so that archival data that needed to be pulled six months prior to survey completion could be pulled. ORE then pulled the average caseload size for each participant over the past six months, the average number of arrests for offenders on the participants' caseloads, the average number of successful supervision closures, the average number of unsuccessful supervision closures and the average number of violation reports written for offenders on each participant's caseload.

All of this information was returned back to the researcher on a secure server. At that point, the names were de-identified and replaced with a number. ORE was never provided with the results of the participant's surveys. The researcher was the only person who reviewed and analyzed the results of the participant's surveys.

Data Storage and Protection

The data for this study was collected electronically via an Internet survey provider called Survey Monkey ™. This survey provider maintained the survey data while the participants were taking the survey. An investigation has taken place to ensure Survey Monkey ™ has the necessary security controls to secure the data throughout the survey process. These controls include firewalls, antivirus, proxy servers and boundary protection controls (Survey Monkey ™, 2015). To reduce the risk of attacks on the data while participants took the survey, secure socket layer (SSL) will be used as a tool to connect the participants' browser and the Survey Monkey ™ site (Survey Monkey, 2015). Additionally, participants took the surveys at work on the government server, which added an additional layer of protection from hackers. At the conclusion of the survey period, all survey data was removed from the site provider and stored in external hard drives. At least two copies of the original data will be maintained on two separate external hard drives. The two external drives will remain locked in two separate locations (home and office in locked file cabinets). Each hard drive is password protected.

Data Organization and Preparation

The raw data was organized using the IBM SPSS Statistics software version 22.0. Demographic data was gathered for the purpose of describing the sample, and is organized along with the data collected on each variable under investigation. Via SPSS, the data was inspected visually for outliers and abnormalities, in addition to statistical procedures previously mentioned that produced descriptive data such as mean, standard deviation and variance. These statistics were used to evaluate the data for normality,

(skewness and kurtosis), linearity and homoscedasticity. Evaluative tools such as histograms, scatter plots, and box plots were used via the SPSS software to determine if the data violated any of the previously mentioned assumptions. The data is now being maintained in a basic SPSS data file format. Finally, the data from SPSS has been saved on the two previously discussed external hard drives.

Expected Findings

In accordance with previous research suggesting a relationship between occupational stress, job satisfaction and work productivity (Pseekos et al., 2011; Chilton, et al., 2005; Donald et al., 2005; Wethington, 2000), was expected that as the overall occupational stress of the CSOs increases, the supervision orientation of the officers would become increasingly punitive; thus, increasing the recidivism rates, unsuccessful supervision completions and the number of violation reports written to the releasing authorities. Conversely, as the occupational stress of the CSOs decreases, the supervision orientation of the officers would become increasingly rehabilitative; thus, decreasing the recidivism rates, unsuccessful supervision completions and the number of violation reports written to the releasing authorities. The flow chart below (Figure 3.) depicts the following anticipated interrelationships amongst the tested variables:

1. Occupational Stress has a direct effect on supervision orientation (as stress increases, supervision orientation becomes increasingly punitive)
2. Occupational Stress has an indirect/(mediated) effect on supervision outcome measures (as stress increases, supervision outcomes become increasingly negative)

3. Supervision orientation has a direct effect on supervision outcome measures (punitive orientation increases negative outcomes and a rehabilitative orientation increases positive outcomes)
4. Increased officer tenure has a direct effect on both occupational stress and supervision orientation (as tenure increases, occupational stress increases and as tenure increases orientation becomes increasingly punitive)
5. Increased caseload size has a direct effect on both occupational stress and supervision orientation (as caseload size increases, occupational stress increases and supervision orientation becomes increasingly punitive)
6. Offender risk level has a direct effect on community supervision outcomes (as risk level increases, outcomes become increasingly negative). Offender risk may also have an effect on occupational stress and supervision orientation (as risk level increases, occupational stress increases and supervision orientation becomes increasingly punitive).

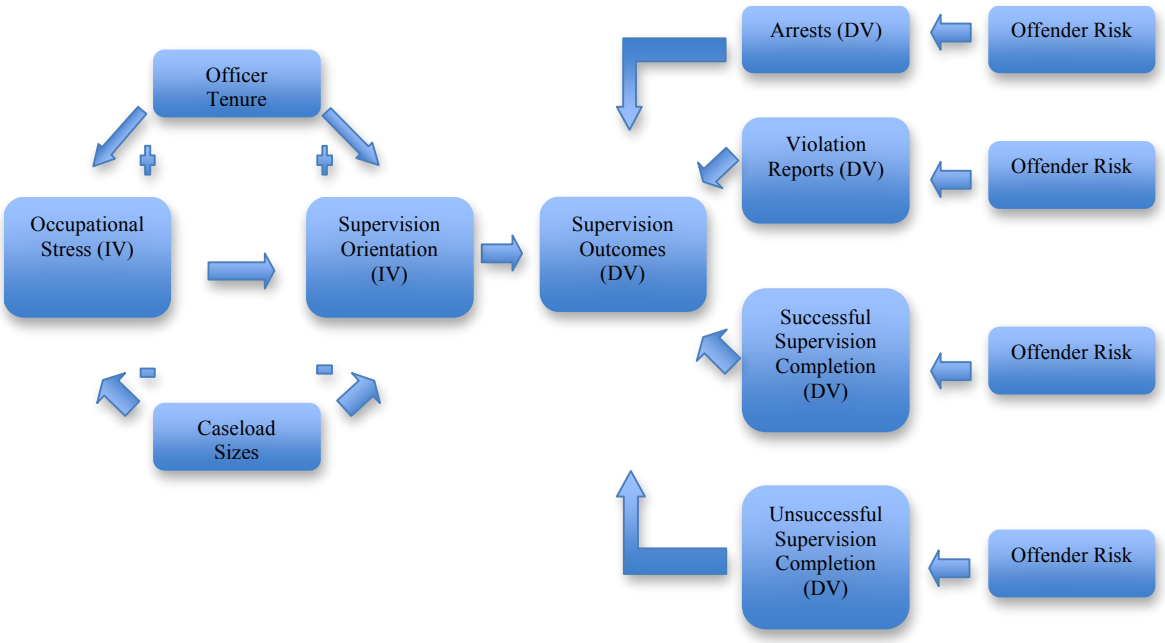

Figure 3. The originally intended relationship of variables in this study. Fully Mediated Structural Equation Model

Due to the small number of participants, the design was changed and the expectations were adjusted. It was still expected that occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision outcomes would have the same interactions; however, the confounding variables: officer tenure, caseload sizes and offender risk, were removed from the design and played no role in expectations.

CHAPTER 4. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

The below results were generated from a single self-report online survey hosted by Survey Monkey which included the informed consent form, the JSS and the RCC surveys and questions to determine CSO tenure. This study was intended to discover the predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes as measured by offender re-arrests, offender successful completion of community supervision, offender unsuccessful completion of community supervision and the number of violation reports written to the releasing authorities. To preserve the anonymity of the participants, descriptive statistics were gathered for the purpose of confirming the appropriateness of the participants and to validate that duplicate entries were not received. Accordingly, participants initially provided their names so that the results of their surveys could be attached to their caseloads. This was required so that the archival data pulled from the system could be linked with the appropriate CSO. Once the link took place, the names of the officers was discarded and replaced with a number. In addition to a description of the sample, inferential statistics were analyzed using nonparametric analysis to analyze five research questions. The chapter includes the following sections: Description of the Sample, Summary of the Results, Details of the Analysis and the Results, and the Conclusion.

Description of the Sample

Community supervision officers (CSO) maintaining the roles of both parole and probation officers, working for a specific community corrections agency on the East

Coast were solicited for this study. A stratified random sampling procedure was used for this study. Stratified sampling is when a population is divided into groups and each group is randomly pulled from to ensure the entire population is equally represented (Warner, 2008) A strategic process was implemented which ensured that all of the appropriate community supervision branches of the research site had an equal opportunity for officers to participate. According to information made available by the research site, there are eight supervision branches responsible for the community supervision of offenders: Investigations, Diagnostic and Evaluations (Branch I), General Supervision (Branch IIA & IIB), Behavioral Health Supervision (Branch III), Domestic Violence Supervision (Branch IV), Interstate Compact Supervision (Branch V), Illegal Substance Collection Unit (Branch VI), Sex Offender Supervision Branch VII and Offender Processing (Branch VIII). Although all of these branches are comprise of CSOs, only the general supervision, behavioral health, domestic violence, sex offender and interstate branches consist of officers who supervise offenders in a similar manner with respect to face-to-face interactions and frequency of office visits. Thus, the sampling was of these specific branches and the others were excluded.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance

As previously mentioned, this study started out with a very simple design with one independent variable and four dependent variables. (IV: occupational stress; DV: arrests, successful supervision completion, unsuccessful supervision completion, violation reports). With this in mind, a MANOVA was going to be conducted as a data analysis procedure (Cole, Maxwell, Arvey, & Salas, 1993). Conducting a power analysis

to determine an appropriate sample size required the effect size of the statistical analysis to be determined first (Warner, 2008). Accordingly, the Cohen's D effect size is used to identify the magnitude of difference between the means of variables being tested (Warner, 2008). Warner (2008) indicated that a Cohen's D effect size less than 0.20 suggests a small magnitude, an effect size between 0.20 and 0.79 suggests a medium magnitude and an effect size greater than or equal to 0.80 suggests a large magnitude of difference between two groups (p. 107). Using an effect size of 0.20 (medium effect size), SPSS software was used to conduct an A Priori, two tailed G* power analysis with an error probability of 0.05 and a power probability of 0.80. The medium effect size of 0.20 and power probability of 0.80 were selected, due to the data results of previous research, using a similar data analysis, and studying variables such as occupational stress and work performance, that produced a medium effect size and a power probability of 0.80 (Chen, Chen, Tsai, & Lo, 2007; Platsidou & Agaliotis, 2008). Platsidou and Agaliotis (2008) studied and compared the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Employee Satisfaction Inventory. The eta-square values for each instrument were 0.01 and 0.06, and respectively, which equated to a small and medium effect size. The error probability or alpha level of 0.05 was selected, as this is the most frequently used probability level preselected by statistical software such as SPSS (Chen et al.; Warner, 2008; Wei et al., 2007). Additionally, this selected effect size and power probability suggested that if the experiment was properly conducted there was a moderate chance that the null hypotheses would be correctly rejected when they are false and occurrences of Type II errors would be decreased (Warner, 2008).

The analysis for this research evolved as the number of variables able to be used was impacted by the sample size. Initially, considering the one independent variable and four dependent variables that were going to be studied, a MANOVA was going to be used. As the variables of interest increased to two independent variables, four dependent variables and three additional predictor variables, a Structural Equation Model approach was going to be used for analysis. Finally, upon evaluating the sample size obtained and narrowing down the variables to two independent variables: occupational stress and supervision orientation, and four dependent variables: rearrests, successful supervision completion, unsuccessful supervision completion, number of violation reports written to the releasing authorities, a multiple regression approach was used to analyze the relationship between all of these variables. Finally, a single regression analysis was performed to analyze the relationship between occupational stress and supervision orientation. As a result of the three possible approaches: MANOVA, SEM and multiple regressions, a G power analysis was run for each approach. These analyses will be explained below.

Power Analysis for MANOVA

With a medium effect size, along with the previously mentioned error probability and power probability, a G power analysis suggested that it would take a minimum of forty-two (42) participants for this study to be statistically sound (Warner, 2008). This would have been considering one independent variable (IV) and four dependent variables (DV). To further support this suggested sample size, Warner (2008) developed a chart that made specific recommendations for sample sizes required depending on the number

of outcome variables used in the research (p. 719). Accordingly, using three outcome variables, (as in this study), a medium effect size, and alpha level of 0.05, Warner (2008) suggested that it would take 42-54 participants (Per Cell) to be a part of the sample for a MANOVA data analysis process (p. 719).

Structural Equation Modeling

As research continued throughout this process, other variables of interest were added to increase the robust nature of the study and design. Accordingly, another independent variable was added along with three confounding variables that would have assisted with accounting for multiple influences on the variables of interest. (IV: occupational stress, supervision orientation; DV: arrests, successful supervision completion, unsuccessful supervision completion, violation reports; CV: officer tenure, caseload size, offender risk).

Power Analysis for SEM

In order to achieve a power of 80% with an effect size of .1, the recommended sample size is 100, and the minimum sample size to detect an effect is 87 (Kline, 2011). The one latent variable is supervision outcome measures and the five observed variables in the model are:

Occupational stress

Supervision orientation

Officer tenure

Caseload size

Offender risk

Regression

A 60% response rate was achieved via the selection process. However, of the 60 officers who responded, 51 of them completed the surveys and only 46 officers qualified for the study. Responses were solicited from June 2015 through September 2015. Due to the size of the sample, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to ensure that the results were sound and met the specifications of a power analysis. Two power analyses were run. The first one was run to include one predictor variable. This analysis was to test the relationship between occupational stress and supervision orientation (only). The second analysis was to test the relationships between occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision outcomes.

Power Analysis for Regression (1 predictor variable: Occupational Stress)

A priori Power Analysis for Regression with one Predictor

One model will be examined using linear regression. Each regression model will test whether one predictor variable predicts the criterion variable. The α for the test of this model was set at .05. To achieve power of .80 and a medium effect size (f^2=.15), a sample size of 43 is required to detect a significant model ($F(1,43) = 3.13$). An A priori analysis and post hoc analysis were done for this regression because this analysis was done independently of the other regression analyses.

Post hoc Power Analysis for Regression with one Predictor

A model was examined using linear regression. The model tested whether one predictor variable predicted the criterion variable. The α for the test of this model was set at .05. A

sample size of 45, with a medium effect size (f^2=.15), provided 81% power to detect a statistically significant model ($F(1,43) = 1.68$).

Power Analysis for Regression (2 predictor variables: Occupational Stress and Supervision Orientation)

Post hoc Power Analysis

Several models were examined using simultaneous multiple regression. Each model tested whether two predictor variables predicted the criterion variable. The α for the test of this model was set at .05. A sample size of 45, with a medium effect size (f^2=.15), provided 60% power to detect a statistically significant model ($F(2,42) = 3.21$).

Details of the Analysis and the Results

Test of Assumptions

The assumptions for multiple regression include: (a) variables are normally distributed, (b) linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables, and (c) no multicollinearity exists.

Assessing Normality

An important assumption for parametric statistical analyses is that the variables are normally distributed. Univariate normality was assessed for variables via the skewness and kurtosis indices (i.e., skewness or kurtosis statistic/standard error) of the variables. Per Kline (2011), a variable is not normally distributed if its skewness index is above three and if its kurtosis index is between 10 and 20. As shown in Table 1, none of the variables were skewed; they were normally distributed.

CSOs' daily average caseload size ranged from 18.17 to 193.29 with an average of 46.11 (*SD* = 29.00). Tenure as a CSO ranged from 3 to 22 years with an average of 9.64 years (*SD* = 4.77). The Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale scores ranged from 66 to 163 with an average score of 109.76 (*SD* = 16.53). The Job Stress Severity scores ranged from 3.09 to 8.87 with an average score of 5.77 (*SD* = 0.93). The Job Stress Frequency scores ranged from 0.17 to 9.00 with an average score of 3.80 (*SD* = 1.83). The Monthly Average Offender Violation Reports ranged from 0 to 4 with an average of 1.87 (*SD* = 0.81). The Monthly Average Offender Arrests ranged from 0.16 to 8.83 with an average of 1.71 (*SD* = 1.29). The Average Monthly Successful Community Supervision Completions ranged from 0 to 8 with an average of 1.85 (*SD* = 1.78). The Average Monthly Unsuccessful Community Supervision Completions ranged from 0.17 to 1.83 with an average of 0.93 (*SD* = 0.42).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Skewness and Kurtosis Values for the Continuous Variables (N = 46)

Variable	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Daily Average CSO Caseload Size	18.17	193.29	46.11	29.00	3.29	4.35
Tenure (Years as a CSO)	3	22	9.64	4.77	.67	-0.43
Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale	66.00	163.00	109.76	16.53	.31	2.04
Job Stress Severity	3.09	8.87	5.77	0.93	.42	3.03
Job Stress Frequency	0.17	9.00	3.80	1.83	.46	0.61
Monthly Average Offender Violation Reports	0	4	1.87	.81	.19	-0.29
Monthly Average Offender Arrests	0.16	8.83	1.71	1.29	0.79	3.28
Average Monthly Successful Community Supervision Completions	0	8	1.85	1.78	0.83	3.06
Average Monthly Unsuccessful Community Supervision Completions	0.17	1.83	0.93	0.42	.28	-.61

Note. *SE* for Skewness is .35. *SE* for Kurtosis is .68

Checking for Univariate and Multivariate Outliers

To check for univariate outliers, the variables were transformed into standardized scores. Cases whose standardized values were above the absolute value of 3.29 were deemed to be univariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). One CSO had standardized values above the cut-off value. The standardized values for this case were 5.49 for Monthly Average Offender Arrests and 3.34 for Average Monthly Successful and Unsuccessful Community Supervision Completions. This case was dropped from subsequent analysis thereby reducing the sample size by one case to 45.

Reliability

Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each scale to determine reliability (see Table 2). A measure is considered to be reliable if its Cronbach's alpha value is close to or above .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The scales were reliable and the reliability coefficients ranged from .80 to .92.

Table 2

Cronbach's Alpha for the CCOOS and Job Stress Scales

Scale	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale	24	.80
Job Stress Severity	30	.90
Job Stress Frequency	30	.92

Correlations

Pearson correlations were used to assess the correlations between Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale, Job Stress Severity, Job Stress Frequency, Monthly Average Offender Violation Reports, Monthly Average Offender Arrests, Average Monthly Successful Community Supervision Completions and Average Monthly Unsuccessful Community Supervision Completions. The correlations are presented in Table 3. There was a positive statistically significant correlation between Job Stress Severity and Job Stress Frequency ($r = .65$, $p = .001$) and between Monthly Average Offender Violation Reports and Monthly Average Offender Arrests ($r = .45$, $p = .002$). As Job Stress Frequency scores increased and Job Stress Severity also increased. Similarly, as Monthly Average Offender Violation Reports increased, Monthly Average Offender Arrests also increased. There was a negative statistically significant correlation between Average Monthly Successful Community Supervision Completions and Monthly Average Offender Arrests ($r = -.34$, $p = .02$). As Monthly Average Offender Arrests increased, Average Monthly Successful Community Supervision Completions decreased. Finally, there was a positive statistically significant correlation between Average Monthly Unsuccessful Community Supervision Completions and Monthly Average Offender Arrests ($r = .50$, $p = .001$). As Monthly Average Offender Arrests increased, Average Monthly Unsuccessful Community Supervision Completions also increased.

Table 3

Two-Tailed Pearson Correlations between Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale, Job Stress Severity, Job Stress Frequency, Monthly Average Offender Violation Reports, Monthly Average Offender Arrests, Average Monthly Successful Community Supervision Completions, and Average Monthly Unsuccessful Community Supervision Completions (N =45)

Correlations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale	1						
2. Job Stress Severity	-.15	1					
3. Job Stress Frequency	-.18	.65**	1				
4. Monthly Average Offender Violation Reports	-.03	-.09	-.09	1			
5. Monthly Average Offender Arrests	-.04	-.05	-.03	.45**	1		
6. Monthly Average Successful Community Supervision Completions	.09	-.001	-.02	-.13	-.34*	1	
7. Monthly Average Unsuccessful Community Supervision Completions	.22	.03	.007	.50**	.01	.005	1

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$

Tests of the Hypotheses

To test the hypothesis, linear regression and simultaneous multiple linear regression procedures were conducted. The independent variables in the regression models were the Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale score and job stress severity.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 was: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation? The hypotheses for Research Question 1 were:

H1: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation.

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation.

To test the hypotheses, linear regression procedures were conducted. The Community Job Stress Severity score was entered as the predictor in the model. The model was not statistically significant ($F(1, 43) = 1.00$, $p = .32$) and accounted for only 2.3% of the variance in Community Corrections Officer Orientation. Given the lack of a statistically significant regression model, the regression coefficients in Table 4 were not interpreted. The null hypothesis that there will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation was accepted.

Prior to interpreting the regression model Tolerance the Variance Inflation Factor were examined. Per Cohen, Aiken, and West (2004), the results indicated that

multicollinearity was not an issue given that Tolerance values were above .10 and VIF values were less than 10.

Table 4

Regression Coefficients for the Relationship between Community, Job Stress Severity and Corrections Officer Orientation Scale (The Dependent Variable)

Model	*B*	Std. Error	*β*	*t*	*p*	Tolerance	VIF
Job Stress Severity Total	-2.70	2.68	-.15	-1.00	.32	.1.00	1.00

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests? The hypotheses for Research Question 1 were:

H2: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests amongst the offenders on their caseloads.

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests amongst the offenders on their caseloads.

To test the hypotheses, simultaneous multiple linear regression procedures were conducted. The Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale score and the Job Stress Severity Score were entered as predictors in the model. The model was not

statistically significant ($F(2, 42) = 0.12$, $p = .88$) and accounted for only 0.6% of the variance in monthly average of offender arrests. Given the lack of a statistically significant regression model, the regression coefficients in Table 5 were not interpreted. The null hypothesis that there will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests amongst the offenders on their caseloads was accepted.

Prior to interpreting the regression model Tolerance the Variance Inflation Factor were examined. Multicollinearity was not an issue given that Tolerance values were above .10 and VIF values were less than 10.

Table 5

Regression Coefficients for the Relationship between Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale, Job Stress Severity, and Monthly Average of Offender Arrests (The Dependent Variable)

Model	*B*	Std. Error	*β*	*t*	*p*	Tolerance	VIF
Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale	-.002	.007	-.05	-.33	.73	.97	1.02
Job Stress Severity Total	-.050	.12	-.06	-.40	.68	.97	1.02

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 was: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions? The hypotheses for Research Question 3 were:

H3: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

To test the hypotheses, simultaneous multiple linear regression procedures were conducted. The Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale score and the Job Stress Severity Score were entered as predictors in the model. The model was not statistically significant ($F(2, 42) = 0.21$, $p = .81$) and accounted for only 1% of the variance in the monthly average of successful community supervision completions. Given the lack of a statistically significant regression model, the regression coefficients in Table 6 were not interpreted. The null hypothesis that there will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads was accepted. Multicollinearity was not an issue because Tolerance values were above .10 and VIF values were less than 10.

Table 6

Regression Coefficients for the Relationship between Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale, Job Stress Severity, and Monthly Average Successful Community Supervision Completions (The Dependent Variable)

Model	*B*	Std. Error	*β*	*t*	*p*	Tolerance	VIF
Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale	.01	.01	.10	.65	.51	.97	1.02
Job Stress Severity Total	.02	.29	.01	.09	.92	.97	1.02

Research Question 4

Research Question 4 was: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation, and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions? The hypotheses for Research Question 2 were:

H4: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of

unsuccessful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads.

To test the hypotheses, simultaneous multiple linear regression procedures were conducted. The Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale score and the Job Stress Severity Score were entered as predictors in the model. The model was not statistically significant ($F(2, 42) = 1.28$, $p = .28$) and accounted for 5.8% of the variance in monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions. Given the lack of a statistically significant regression model, the regression coefficients in Table 7 were not interpreted. Given these findings, the null hypothesis that there will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads was accepted. Multicollinearity was not an issue because Tolerance values were above .10 and VIF values were less than 10.

Table 7

Regression Coefficients for the Relationship between Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale, Job Stress Severity, and Monthly Average Unsuccessful Community Supervision Completions (The Dependent Variable)

Model	*B*	Std. Error	*β*	*t*	*p*	Tolerance	VIF
Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale	.006	.004	.24	.1.58	.12	.97	1.02
Job Stress Severity Total	.03	.06	.07	.48	.63	.97	1.02

Research Question 5

Research Question 5 was: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports? The hypotheses for Research Question 5 were:

H5: There will be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports they send to the releasing authorities prior to their assigned offenders' community supervision completion.

H0: There will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports they send to the releasing authorities prior to their assigned offenders' community supervision completion.

To test the hypotheses, simultaneous multiple linear regression procedures were conducted. The Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale score and the Job Stress Severity Score were entered as predictors in the model. The model was not statistically significant ($F(2, 42) = 0.25$, $p = .77$) and accounted for only 1.2% of the variance in monthly average of offender violation reports. Given the lack of a statistically significant regression model, the regression coefficients in Table 8 were not interpreted. The null hypothesis that there will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports they send to the releasing authorities prior to their assigned

offenders' community supervision completion was accepted. Multicollinearity was not an issue because Tolerance values were above .10 and VIF values were less than 10.

Table 8

Regression Coefficients for the Relationship between Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale, Job Stress Severity, and Monthly Average of Offender Violation Reports (The Dependent Variable)

Model	*B*	Std. Error	*β*	*t*	*p*	Tolerance	VIF
Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale	-.002	.007	-.05	-.33	.74	.97	1.02
Job Stress Severity Total	-.08	.13	-.10	-.67	.50	.97	1.02

Conclusion

This chapter included a summary of the data analysis and findings with regard to three research questions and corresponding hypotheses. The correlational analyses indicated that neither CSO supervision orientation nor occupational stress were significantly associated with monthly average of offender arrests, monthly average of successful and unsuccessful community supervision completions, or monthly average of offender violation reports. The results from regression models indicated that, at the multivariate level, CSO supervision orientation and occupational stress were not predictors of monthly average of offender arrests, monthly average of successful community supervision completions, monthly average of unsuccessful community

supervision completions, and monthly average of monthly average of offender violation reports. Nor was occupational stress a predictor of CSO supervision orientation. As such, the null hypotheses for Research Questions 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 were accepted.

CHAPTER 5. RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides a conclusion to this study by summarizing and discussing the results of the research, reviewing the limitations and offering recommendations for future research. This study sought to discover the predictive relationship between the occupational stress of community supervision officers, their supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes as measured by offender re-arrests, successful community supervision completion, unsuccessful community supervision completion and violation reports. The journey unveiled many limitations and various opportunities for further research. The challenges presented throughout the study offered as much knowledge about the process as they did limitations.

Summary of the Results

The outcomes of this study were intended to assist the research site and other community supervision agencies in the field of community corrections. There is clearly a need for efficient community supervision, given the enormous number of ex-prisoners being released into the community daily and annually (Georgiou, 2013; Piar, 2003; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2016). Research previously correlated the interaction between a CSO and his/her supervised offender (supervision orientation) with community supervision outcomes such as recidivism (Bracken, 2007; Petersilia, 2007; Piar, 2003). Studies took a look at the different approaches officers use such as law enforcement versus social worker (Ricks & Eno Louden, 2015); however, there has not been research to determine what influences officers to choose either approach.

After taking a look at previous research to determine what factors impact work performance, job satisfaction and turn-over rates for probation and parole officers, occupational stress was one of the most reoccurring themes in the literature (H. Allen, 1979; Anzalone, 2011; Bangasser, 2010; P. Brown, 1987; Cherniss, 1980a,b; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Holgate & Clegg, 1991; Kim & Stoner, 2008; Lambert et al., 2002; Smith, 2001; Whitehead, 1989; Whitehead & Lindquist, 1985). Moreover, this study sought to determine if there is a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes. To evaluate these relationships, the following research questions will be discussed in the next section:

Research Question 1: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation?

Research Question 2: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests?

Research Question 3: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions?

Research Question 4: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions?

Research Question 5: Is there a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports?

Discussion of the Results

Research Question 1

This question investigated the predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation. In this study, occupational stress was measured by the Job Stress Survey (JSS), and supervision orientation was measured by the Revised Community Corrections Officer Orientation Scale (RCC). The null hypothesis that there will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation was accepted.

Research Question 2

This question evaluated if there was a predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, supervision orientation and recidivism. In this study, recidivism was exhibited as the monthly average number of arrests for offenders on each CSO participant's caseload. The null hypothesis that there will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender arrests amongst the offenders on their caseloads was accepted.

Research Question 3

This question investigated the predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, supervision orientation and offender successful supervision completion. The null

hypothesis that there will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of successful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads was accepted.

Research Question 4

This question investigated the predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, supervision orientation and offender unsuccessful supervision completion. The null hypothesis that there will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of unsuccessful community supervision completions for offenders on their caseloads was accepted.

Research Question 5

This question sought to discover the predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, supervision orientation and the number of violation reports CSOs send to the releasing authorities due to offender noncompliance. The null hypothesis that there will not be a statistically significant predictive relationship between CSO occupational stress, CSO supervision orientation and the monthly average of offender violation reports they send to the releasing authorities prior to their assigned offenders' community supervision completion was accepted.

Discussion of the Conclusions

This research revealed a void that once filled, it may drastically improve evidence-based practices in the field of community corrections. Although the data results supported the assumptions that there are strong statistical correlations between re-arrests, violation reports and unsuccessful supervision completions, this research failed at attempting to reveal a predictive relationship between occupational stress, supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes. However, we know that these variables exist. The quest for future research is to continue to tease out the factors that may or may not influence these constructs. This need is real and increasingly more urgent given the overwhelming numbers of ex-prisoners being released into the community and the need for community resources and officers who are properly trained, prepared and overall healthy so that they can do their best to help the offender population they supervise. There still needs to be a scientifically supported link between occupational stress and supervision orientation. Without this link, it is difficult to attach occupation stress to supervision outcomes unless it is suggested by other research to be mediated by another variable in lieu of supervision orientation.

Limitations

Given the aim to study a population within a specific agency, the study was limited to the degree to which data could be efficiently, securely and confidentially collected from that agency. The results were also limited to the demographics of that particular population. The limitations will be broken down into the following categories: research site approval, agency collaboration and participant barriers.

Research site approval

From start to finish, it took approximately two years to gain approval from the research site to conduct research involving CSOs and to actually begin sending the solicitation emails to them for participation. The agency's research review committee had to review the research proposal and determine if the research was going to be accepted as "agency research", or approve the research to be conducted as "non-agency research". If the study was approved as non-agency research, none of the resources of the research site such as agency email, agency time for participants to complete surveys, or agency archival data would have been in-accessible. This would have made the research nearly impossible to conduct.

Although this study was eventually approved as an agency study, there were still challenges to obtaining approval for data collection. The proposal needed to be vetted through the Office of Research and Evaluation (ORE) at the research site. After months of careful deliberation it was finally approved. During this period of deliberation, timeframes for the Survey Monkey host site and approvals to administer the assessment instruments needed to be adjusted several times. This extended phase for approvals took a large chunk of time out of the total time period allotted for dissertation.

Agency Collaboration

Upon completing the first layer of agency approval with the research review committee and then meeting with ORE, a partnership was developed so that the executives of the research site would feel comfortable with the research taking place and being able to benefit from the data analysis results. The research design and analysis

evolved as more variables of interest were added to the study. However, the more variables added to the study, the larger the sample size needed to become. At the start of research development, there were five research variables. With two predictor variables, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was going to be run to analyze the data collected. This study would have only needed 42-50 participants if the design remained the same.

Upon adding three more variables: officer tenure, caseload sizes and offender risk, the data analysis design was changed from a MANOVA to a structural equation model (SEM). Due to the complexities of this model and the testing of multiple variables for interrelationships, at least 100 participants were needed for this study. Due to the limited number of CSOs who could be used for this study, 125 CSOs were solicited for participation.

Participant Barriers

There was a glitch in the Survey Monkey site and only users with Internet Explorer 11 (IE 11) or better could access the survey without prohibition. This glitch was discovered after Survey Monkey was paid, the testing instruments were used to develop a survey on the site and all of the steps were taken to send the solicitation to the necessary CSOs. Accordingly, only a percentage of the potential participants had IE 11 and there was no way for the information technology (IT) department of the research site to determine which CSOs had IE 11. This required CSOs who were interested in participating in this study to contact the IT department of the research site if they did not have IE 11 and request an upgrade of their computer operating system. This added

another layer of burden to CSOs who are already in a stressful and demanding position, to take time out of their schedules to upgrade their operating systems to participate in a survey. Consequently, this reduced the number of participants who completed the survey.

Due to the timing of approval for data collection, the solicitation was sent to CSOs just before the time of their yearly performance ratings. This also potentially limited responses because some officers may have been preoccupied with completing work and preparing for the audit process. Also, just after the audit process, officers began taking summer vacations, so some of the officers who were emailed, were unavailable for various timeframes.

All of the above factors influenced the number of CSOs who participated in the study. Although there was a 60% response rate, only 51 CSOs completed the surveys. Of the 51, only 46 could be used for the research, as 5 of the 51 were disqualified due to their work duties not being consistent with everyone else. Due to the number of participants for the study, only six variables could be analyzed via a multiple regression analysis.

All of the officers were supposed to complete the surveys from their workstations during duty hours. They were also expected to answer the questions honestly and without assistance from anyone else. Contrarily, there was no way to confirm if officers completed the surveys while at work or if they completed them from a home computer; thus, there was no way to confirm if participants all took the surveys within similar environments.

Predictor/Compounding Variables

As mentioned throughout this dissertation, there are many variables that can potentially influence occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision outcomes. Due to the limitations of the sample size, community supervision officer (CSO) tenure, caseload sizes and offender risk could not be included in the data analysis process. As a result, the analysis adjusted from a MANOVA, to a Structural Equation Model, to a Regression. CSO tenure, caseload sizes and offender risk will be discussed below.

CSO Tenure

Previous research suggests that increased CSO tenure contributes to his/her overall organizational commitment, which in turn reduces turn-over rates, or an officer's likelihood to voluntarily quit work. Increased tenure also improves an officer's investment in the mission of the agency (N. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Lee et al., 2009). Ironically, over the last ten years, the research site has undergone an organizational paradigm shift from punitive to rehabilitative and supportive. This has required officers with greater tenure to completely change their approaches to community supervision. While research has supported that these officers are less likely to quit, there is still work to be done to determine if those officers are less likely to grasp and buy-into the new direction of the agency, as apposed to the newer officers who were trained in the spirit of this new direction from the very beginning (N. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Lee et al., 2009).

This study measured CSO occupational stress via an instrument called the Job Stress Survey (JSS). While this survey instrument evaluates stress factors such as job

pressure, support from leadership and work demands, this study intended to take research a step further by examining the influence of CSO tenure on his/her level of occupational stress. While this study sought to discover if occupational stress had an influence on supervision orientation, CSO tenure was also considered, as this factor may or may not interact with an officer's ability to manage occupational stress, or an officer's likelihood to take on an orientation which is evidence based and exemplary of modern approaches to community supervision (rehabilitative) verses a more traditional approach to community supervision (authoritative/punitive). Tenure was incorporated into the sampling procedure and measured via a survey question, which asked how long the CSO had been an officer. An inclusion criterion for the study was that CSOs are required to have been officers for at least one year. Due to the unexpectedly low sample size, CSO tenure could not be used as a variable; however, if it had been used, when analyzing the results, the officers with less than 5 years of work history would have been considered new officers. Officers with more than five and less than ten years of experience would have been considered moderately experienced, and those with more than ten years of experience would have been considered veteran officers. Failure to include this variable will prove to be a limitation in the research results.

CSO Caseload Size

Research suggests that CSO caseload sizes have an impact on variables such as job satisfaction and turnover (Bracken, 2007; DeMichele & Payne, 2007). This research would have examined if the caseload sizes of CSOs may influence their occupational stress and/or supervision orientation/style. This would have been measured via archival

data maintained by SMART. The average caseload size of the officers who participated was going to be reviewed along with the extremes of high and low caseload sizes. Upon reviewing these data, an analysis would have taken place to determine if caseload sizes have a statistically significant influence on occupational stress and/or supervision orientation, along with an indirect effect on supervision outcome measures. Again, due to the unexpectedly small sample size of this study, caseload size could not be factored into the data analysis, which introduces another limitation to this research study.

Offender Risk

In accordance with information made available by the research site, CSOs who work for the research site use an assessment tool for all offenders that measures their risk of harm to the community. Specifically, this tool, referred to as the Auto screener, assesses the risk of an offender to commit a violent crime, a crime with a weapon or a sexual offense. Accordingly, this assessment tool considers many of the significant risk variables which research suggests have an impact on recidivism. These variables include criminal history, substance abuse history, along with education and employment history (Kevin et al., 2003; Megan et al., 2006). Once completed, the auto-screener produces a risk level of minimum, medium, maximum or intensive. These risk levels are tracked by the Supervision and Management Automated Record Tracking (SMART) system managed by the research site, and were going to be considered for every offender on the caseloads of the CSOs participating in this study. The influence of the offender risk level on the dependent variables was to be analyzed as a predictor/compounding variable, which is comprised of many factors (as previously indicated) that research suggests to be

influential on offender recidivism (Kevin et al., 2003; Megan et al., 2006). Due to the unexpectedly small sample size for this study, offender risk could not be incorporated into the data analysis. This is yet another limitation to this study, and leaves room for further research.

Recommendations for Future Research or Interventions

This study contributed to the field of community corrections and IO psychology by examining the relationship between CSO occupational stress, community supervision orientation and community supervision outcomes. The study was focused on a specific community corrections agency on the East Coast, responsible for community supervision for offenders living within one city. This concentrated the research results to one demographic.

To garner results that are more generalizable to parole and probation officers across the United States, similar research should be done using multiple correctional departments throughout the US. A stratified sampling approach should be used to ensure that an acceptable representation of each state under observation is used within the study. With a large enough number of participants, the variables that impact occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision outcomes can be included in the research.

Considering the initial idea to examine and evaluate the relationship between nine (9) variables, structural equation modeling (SEM) was going to be used to determine the statistical significance between the variables. This specific form of analysis was to be used for two principle reasons. Firstly, there were many moving pieces involved with this

study, which made it complex and multivariate. SEM is a collection of statistical techniques that allow researchers to test complex models such as this (Weston, 2006).

Weston (2006) referred to SEM as a blend of factor analysis and path analysis; meaning that SEM provides a conservative summary of the interrelationships between variables (factor analysis), while also having the ability to test hypothesized relationships between constructs (path analysis; p. 720). Accordingly, this study was essentially a combination of a factor analysis and path analysis, as it sought to discover the interrelationships between CSO tenure, caseload sizes, offender risk, occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision outcomes (re-arrests, violation reports, successful supervision completion, unsuccessful supervision completion). Simultaneously, this study intended to test the hypotheses that as occupational stress increases, supervision orientation becomes more punitive, thus increasing unfavorable community supervision outcomes, while conversely; as occupational stress decreases, supervision orientation becomes more rehabilitative, thus increasing favorable community supervision outcomes. Due to the sample size, the SEM was unable to be used as a data analysis process. Considering the sample size, the number of variables used for this study was reduced from nine (9) to six (6). After attempting to run various analyses, 6 variables was the maximum number that could be used to run a sound regression. Moreover, an analysis prepared for a large sample size and complex correlations between multiple variables, such as a SEM, is recommended for future research on this subject matter.

More research needs to be done to discover a correlation between the occupational stress of parole and probation officers and supervision orientation. This will solidify the indirect

link between the occupational stress of parole and probation officers and community supervision outcomes such as recidivism and the unsuccessful completion of community supervision. While evaluating that link, the various factors that influence occupational stress and supervision orientation should be controlled so that the true relationship between occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision outcomes may be evaluated.

Conclusion

This study was significant, in that it began the discussion and the evaluation of the link between the occupational stress of parole and probation officers, and how they interact with the offenders they supervise. Research has suggested that the interaction between parole and probation officers and their supervisees, referred to as supervision orientation, has a significant correlation with community supervision outcomes such as recidivism rates and other technical violations of community supervision (Bracken, 2007; Cullen et al., 1985; DeMichele & Payne, 2007; Petersilia, 2007; Robinson et al., 1996; Weldon & Ritchie, 2010). Research also suggests that parole and probation officers have a highly stressful job and the stress of their jobs can impact work performance, job satisfaction and turn-over rates (Bono & Judge, 2003; P. Brown, 1987; Burrell, 2000; Cherniss, 1980a,b; Chilton et al., 2005; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Hulin, 1968; Joseph et al., 2010; Judge et al., 1998; Ley, 1966; Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Turnage & Spielberger, 1991). Nevertheless, there is no research available that correlates the occupational stress of parole and/or probation officers to their supervision orientation. This is the void in literature that this study sought to fill. As revealed by the data results,

there is still much research to be done in this area. This study failed to discover a relationship between CSO occupational stress and CSO supervision orientation. It also failed to show a statistically significant relationship between CSO occupational stress, supervision orientation and supervision outcomes. However, there were many limitations to this study, so it is a solid platform from which to build further research. This study focused on one criminal justice agency with the purpose of assisting this agency in future training practices. Future research should expand across the nation so there will be more participation by officers, and the results can be generalizable to the entire field of community corrections.

REFERENCES

Allen, H. E. (1979). *Critical issues in adult probation*. Summary. Columbus, OH: Ohio State Univ.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 63, 1-18.

Andrews, D. A., Bonta, J., & Wormith, J. S. (2011). The risk-need-responsivity (RNR) model: Does adding the good lives model contribute to effective crime prevention? *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *38*, 735-755.

Anzalone, E. A. (2011). "At liberty on parole" and its implications for parole violators. *Widener Law Journal*, 20(2), 597-613.

Aries, E. J., Gold, C., & Weigel, R. H. (1983). Dispositional and situational influences on dominance behavior in small groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44(4), 779-786.

Arsenault, A., & Dolan, S. (1983). The role of personality, occupation and organization in understanding the relationship between job stress, performance and absenteeism. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 56(3), 227-240.

Bangasser, R. A. (2010). *Stress on probation and parole officers: The impact of correctional orientation, caseload and safety on job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intention.* University of St. Thomas (Minnesota). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51,* 1173–1182.

Beehr, T., Glaser, K., Canali, K., & Wallwey, D. (2001). Back to basics: re-examination of demand-control theory of occupational stress. *Work & Stress*, 15(2), 115-130.

Bem, D. J., & Allen, A. (1974). On predicting some of the people some of the time: The search for cross-situational consistencies in behavior. *Psychological Review*, 81(6), 506-520.

Benedict, W. R. (1994). *Return to the scene of the punishment: Recidivism of adult male felons on probation, 1986, 1989.* Kansas State University. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, 170-170 p.

Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Core self-evaluations: A review of the trait and its role in job satisfaction and job performance. *European Journal of Personality*, 17(1), S5-S18.

Bowling, N. A. (2007). Is the job satisfaction-job performance relationship spurious? A meta-analytic examination. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71, 167–185.

Bracken, D. C. (2007). Risk management and/or punishment in the community: Supervising conditional sentences. *British Journal Of Community Justice*, 5(2), 71-82.

Brett, J. M., Feldman, D. C., & Weingart, L. R. (1990). Feedback-seeking behavior of new hires and job changers. *Journal Of Management*, 16(4), 737.

Brown, A., & Kelly, S. (2006). Linking employee research to business performance. *Strategic Communication Management*, 10(6), 22-25.

Brown, P. (1987). Probation officer burnout: An organizational disease/ An organizational cure, part II. *Federal Probation*, 51, 17-21.

Bureau of Justice Statistics, (2016). Key statistic: parolees. www.bureauofjusticestatistics.gov.

Burrell, W. (2000). How to prevent PPO stress and burnout. *Community Corrections Report*, (1), 1-2, 13-14.

Champion, D. J. (1990). Burnout in probation and corrections (Book). *Criminal Justice Review* (Georgia State University), 15(2), 292-294.

Cheeseman, K. A. (2006). *Correctional officer stress and job dissatisfaction: A new examination of an age old phenomenon.* (Order No. 3233257, Sam Houston State University). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, 195-195 p.

Chen, Y., Chen, S., Tsai, C., & Lo, L. (2007). Role stress and job satisfaction for nurse specialists. *Journal Of Advanced Nursing*, 59(5), 497-509.

Cherniss, C. (1980a). *Staff burnout: Job stress in the human services.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Cherniss, C. (1980b). *Professional burnout in human service organizations.* New York, NY:Praeger.

Chilton, M. A., Hardgrave, B. C., & Armstrong, D. J. (2005). Person-job cognitive style fit for software developers: The effect on strain and performance. *Journal of Management Information Systems,* 22(2), 193-226.

Cohen, J. C., Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (2004). *Regression analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Cohrs, C., Abele, A., & Dette, D. (2006). Integrating situational and dispositional determinants of job satisfaction: Findings from three samples of professionals. *The Journal of Psychology*, 140(4), 363-395.

Cole, D., Maxwell, S., Arvey, R., & Salas, E. (1993). Multivariate group comparisons of variable systems: MANOVA and structural equation modeling. *Psychological Bulletin*, 114(1), 174-184.

Collins, A. E. (2004). *Promoting well-being in the workplace: A tailored approach to stress management.* Bowling Green, KY: Bowling Green State University.

Cordes, C. & Dougherty, T. (1993). A review and an integration of research on job burnout. *Academy of Management Review* 18(4), 621-656.

Cullen, F., Link, B., Wolfe, N. & Frank, J. (1985). The social dimensions of correctional officer stress. *Justice Quarterly*, 2(4), 505-533.

Deary, I. J., Blenkin, H., Agius, R. M., Endler, N. S. (1996). Models of job-related stress and personal achievement among consultant doctors. *British Journal of Psychology*, 87, 3-3.

Del Boca, F. K., & Darkes, J. (2003). The validity of self-reports of alcohol consumption: state of the science and challenges for research. *Addiction*, *98*1-12.

DeMichele, M. & Payne, B. (2007). Probation and parole officers speak out: Caseload and workload allocation. *Federal Probation*, 71(3), 30-35.

Donald, I., Taylor, P., Johnson, S., Cooper, C., Cartwright, S., & Robertson, S. (2005). Work environments, stress, and productivity: An examination using ASSET. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 12(4), 409-423.

Edwards, J. R. (1996). An examination of competing versions of the person-environment fit approach to stress. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(2), 292-339.

Fernandez, D., & Perrewé, P. L. (1995). Implicit stress theory: An experimental examination of subjective performance information on employee evaluations. *Journal Of Organizational Behavior*, 16(4), 353-362.

Fried, Y., & Ferris, G. R. (1987). The validity of the job characteristics model: A review and meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 40(2), 287-322.

Fried, Y., Shirom, A., Gilboa, S., & Cooper, C. L. (2008). The mediating effects of job satisfaction and propensity to leave on role stress-job performance relationships: Combining meta-analysis and structural equation modeling. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 15(4), 305-328.

Gaines, J., & Jermier, J. M. (1983). Emotional Exhaustion in a High Stress Organization. *Academy Of Management Journal*, 26(4), 567-586.

Gellis, Z. D. (2001). Job stress among academic health center and community hospital social workers. *Administration In Social Work*, 25(3), 17-33.

Georgiou, G. (2013). Does increased post-release supervision of criminal offenders reduce recidivism? evidence from a statewide quasi-experiment. *International Review of Law and Economics, 37*, 221-243.

Grieger, L., & Hosser, D. (2014). Which risk factors are really predictive? An analysis of Andrews and Bonta's inmates "central eight" risk factors for recidivism in German youth correctional facility. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *41*, 613-634.

Grier, K. S. (1982). *A comparison of job stress in law enforcement and teaching* (Doctoral dissertation. University of South Florida, 1981). Dissertation Abstracts International, 43, 870B.

Hackman, J., & Lawler, E. E. (1971). Employee reactions to job characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 55(3), 259-286.

Haseth, K. (1999). Norwegian adaptation of the job stress survey (JSS). In C.D. Spielberger & I. Sarason (Eds.), *Stress and emotion* (Vol. 17). Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

Holgate, A. & Clegg, I. (1991). The path to probation officer burnout: New dogs, old tricks. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 19, 325-337.

Holland, J. L., & Gottfredson, G. D. (1976). Using a typology of persons and environments to explain careers: Some extensions and clarifications. *The Counseling Psychologist, 6*(3), 20-29.

Holmström, S., Molander, B., Jansson, J., & Barnekow-Bergqvist, M. (2008). Evaluation of a Swedish version of the job stress survey. *Scandinavian Journal Of Psychology*, 49(3), 277-286.

Hulin, C. L. (1968). Effects of changes in job-satisfaction levels on employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 52(2), 122-126.

Ismail, A., Yeo, S., Ajis, M., & Dollah, N. (2009). Relationship between occupational stress, emotional intelligence and job performance: An empirical study in malaysia. *Theoretical & Applied Economics*, 16(10), 3-16.

Jamal, M. (2007). Job stress and job performance controversy revisited: An empirical examination in two countries. *International Journal Of Stress Management*, 14(2), 175-187.

Jamal, M. (2011). Job stress, job performance and organizational commitment in a multinational company: An empirical study in two countries. *International Journal Of Business & Social Science*, 2(20), 20-29.

Jolin, A. (1990). *Predicting recidivism using survival models*. *Criminal Justice Review* (Georgia State University), 15(1), 119-120.

Jones, M., & Kerb, J. J. (2007). Probation and parole officers and discretionary decision-making: Responses to technical and criminal violations. *Federal Probation*, *71*(1), 9-15.

Joseph, D. L., Newman, D. A., & Hulin, C. L. (2010). Job attitudes and employee engagement: A meta-analysis of construct redundancy. *Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings*, 1-6.

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., & Durham, C. C. (1997). The dispositional causes of job satisfaction: A core evaluations approach. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 19, 151-188.

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(1), 17-34.

Kasl, S. V. (1978). Epidemiological contributions to the study of work stress. In C. L. Cooper & R. Payne (Eds.), *Stress at work* (pp. 3–48). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Kasl, S. V. (1987a). The researcher's perspective. In J. C. Quick, R. S. Bhagat, J. E. Dalton & J. D. Quick (Eds.), *Work stress: Health care systems in the workplace* (pp. 16–20). New York: Praeger.

Kasl, S. V. (1987b). Methodologies in stress and health: Past difficulties, present dilemmas, future directions. In S. V. Kasl & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Research*

methods in stress and health psychology (pp. 307– 318). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Kasl, S. V. (1998). Measuring job stressors and studying the health impact of the work environment: An epidemiologic commentary. *Journal Of Occupational Health Psychology*, 3(4), 390-401.

Kevin, I. M., James, B. W., & Sims, C. (2003). Recidivism among federal probationers-predicting sentence violations. *Federal Probation, 67*(1), 31-31.

Kilbridge, M. D. (1961). Turnover, absence, and transfer rates as indicators of employee dissatisfaction with repetitive work. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, 15(1), 21-32.

Kim, H., & Stoner, M. (2008). Burnout and turnover intention among social workers: Effects of role stress, job autonomy and social support. *Administration in Social Work*, 32(3), 5-25.

Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Krontiris, K., & Watler, C. (2010). Rethinking prisoner reentry in Harlem. *Harvard Journal of African American Public Policy*, 1673-84.

Kubrin, C., Stewart, E. (2006). Predicting who reoffends: The neglected role of neighborhood context in recidivism studies. *Criminology,* 44(1), 165-197.

Landy, F., & Conte, J. (2010). *Work in the 21st century. An introduction to industrial and organizational psychology third edition.* Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Langan,P. & Cunniff, M. (1992). Recidivism of felons on probation, 1986-89. *Federal Sentencing Reporter* 15(1), 58-65.

Langan, P. & Levin, D. (2002). *Recidivism of prisoners released in 1994*. Retrieved from: http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/index.cfm?ty=pbdetail&iid=1134.

Lambert, E., Hogan, N., & Barton, S. (2002). Satisfied correctional staff: A review of the literature on the correlates of correctional staff job satisfaction. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 29, 115-143.

Lattimore, P. K., & Baker, J. R. (1992). The impact of recidivism and capacity on prison populations. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 8(2), 189-215.

Lee, W., Phelps, J. R., & Beto, D. (2009). Turnover intention among probation officers and direct care staff: A statewide study. *Federal Probation*, 73(3), 28-39.

Leedy, P., & Ormrod J. (2010). *Practical research planning and design (9th Ed.)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Person Education, Inc.

Leung, M., Chan, Y., & Olomolaiye, P. (2008). Impact of stress on the performance of construction project managers. *Journal Of Construction Engineering & Management*, 134(8), 644-652.

Ley, R. (1966). Labor turnover as function of worker differences, work environment, and authoritarianism of foremen. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 50(6), 497-500.

Liu, R. (2003). The moderating effects of internal and perceived external sanction threats on the relationship between deviant peer associations and criminal offending. *Western Criminology Review*, 4(3), p. 191-202.

Lobban, R. K. (1994). *Impact of occupational hassles and supervisory style on perceived occupational stress.* (Order No. NN89498, University of Waterloo (Canada)). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, 305-305 p.

Locke, E. A. (1995). The micro-analysis of job satisfaction: Comments on Taber and Alliger. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16(2), 123-125.

Lounsbury, J. W., Smith, R. M., Levy, J. J., Leong, F. T., & Gibson, L. W. (2009). Personality characteristics of business majors as defined by the big five and narrow personality traits. *Journal of Education For Business*, 84(4), 200-205.

Lundberg, U. (2006). Stress, subjective and objective health. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, *15*, 41–48.

Malekiha, M., Abedi, M. R., & Baghban, I. (2012). Personality, Self-esteem predictors of happiness and depression among high school student in Iran. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research In Business*, 3(10), 569-580.

McGowan, J., & Gormly, J. (1976). Validation of personality traits: A multicriteria approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 34(5), 791-795.

Megan, C. K., Brame, R., & Shawn, D. B. (2006). Scarlet letters and recidivism: Does an old criminal record predict future offending? *Criminology & Public Policy, 5*(3), 483-503.

Minor, K. I., Wells, J. B., & Angel, E. (2008). Recidivism among juvenile offenders following release from residential placements: Multivariate predictors and gender differences. *Journal Of Offender Rehabilitation*, *46*(3/4), 171-188.

Minor, K. I., Wells, J. B., & Sims, C. (2003). Recidivism among federal probationers-predicting sentence violations. *Federal Probation*, 67(1), 31.

Monson, T. C., Hesley, J. W., & Chernick, L. (1982). Specifying when personality traits can and cannot predict behavior: An alternative to abandoning the attempt to predict single-act criteria. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43(2), 385-399.

Motowidlo, S. J., Manning, M. R., & Packard, J. S. (1986). Occupational stress: Its causes and consequences for job performance. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 71(4), 618-629.

Muse, L. A., Harris, S. G., & Feild, H. S. (2003). Has the inverted-u theory of stress and job performance had a fair test? *Human Performance*, 16(4), 349-364.

Nabirye, R. C., Brown, K. C., Pryor, E. R., & Maples, E. H. (2011). Occupational stress, job satisfaction and job performance among hospital nurses in Kampala, Uganda. *Journal Of Nursing Management*, 19(6), 760-768.

Naydenova, I., Lounsbury, J. W., Levy, J. J., & Kim, J. (2012). Distinctive big five and narrow personality traits of psychology majors. *Individual Differences Research*, 10(3), 129-140.

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Petersilia, J. (2007). Employ behavioral contracting for "earned discharge" parole. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 6(4), 807-814.

Peterson, D. (2006). Help new hires adjust to avoid buy-back offers. *Crain's Cleveland Business*, 27(38), 15.

Piar, D. F. (2003). A uniform code of procedure for revoking probation. *American Journal Of Criminal Law*, 31(1), 117-173.

Pitts, W. (2007). Educational competency as an indicator of occupational stress for probation and parole officers. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*. 57-73, 130.

Platsidou, M., & Agaliotis, I. (2008). Burnout, job satisfaction and instructional assignment related sources of stress in greek special education teachers. *International Journal Of Disability, Development & Education*, 55(1), 61-76.

Polisky, R. (1981). Enhancing the job satisfaction of probation and parole officers. *Corrections Today*, 43(1), 78-81.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59(5), 603-609.

Prochaska, J. O., DiClemente, C. C., & Norcross, J. C. (1992). In search of how people change: Applications to addictive behaviors. *American Psychologist*, *47*(9), 1102-1114.

Pseekos, A., Bullock-Yowell, E., & Dahlen, E. R. (2011). Examining Holland's person-environment fit, workplace aggression, interpersonal conflict, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 48(2), 63-71.

Rehfuss, M. C., Gambrell, C. E., & Meyer, D. (2012). Counselors' perceived person—environment fit and career satisfaction. *Career Development Quarterly*, 60(2), 145-151.

Ricks, E. P., & Eno Louden, J. (2015). The relationship between officer orientation and supervision strategies in community corrections. *Law And Human Behavior*, *39*(2), 130-141.

Rizzo, J. R., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15(2), 150-163.

Robinson, D., Porporino, F. & Simourd, L. (1996). Do different occupational groups vary on attitudes and work adjustment in corrections? *Federal Probation*, 60(3), 45-53.

Rodríguez-Escudero, A. I., Carbonell, P., & Munuera-Aleman, J. L. (2010). Positive and negative effects of team stressors on job satisfaction and new product performance. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 27(6), 856-868.

Roethlisberger, F., & Dickson, W. (1934). *Management and the worker*. Boston: Harvard University Press.

Samartha, V., Lokesh, & Karkera, A. (2010). Impact of occupational stress on employee performance in banks-an empirical story. *Paradigm (Institute Of Management Technology)*, 14(1), 65-71.

Schlager, M. D. (2008). An assessment of parole officer and administrator attitudes on organizational culture and parole supervision in a northeastern state. *Journal Of Offender Rehabilitation*, 47(3), 271-289.

Schmidt, P., & Witte, A. (1998). *Predicting recidivism using survival models.* New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.

Shrout, P., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and non-experimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7(4), 422-445.

Sial, M., Imran, R., & Zaheer, A. (2011). Job related stress and role performance: An empirical evidence from call centers of pakistan. *International Journal Of Academic Research*, 3(5), 459-463.

Smith, D. (2001). Probation and training. *British Journal Of Social Work*, 31(4), 641-642.

Spielberger, C. D. (1986). *Preliminary professional manual or the job stress survey (JSS)*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Spielberger, C. & Vagg, P. (1999). *Job stress survey professional manual.* Lutz, FL: PAR.

Spielberger, C. D., Westberry, L. G., Grier, K. S., & Greenfield, G. (1981). The police stress survey: Sources of stress in law enforcement. *Human Resources Institute Monograph Series* Three, No. 6. Tampa, FL: University of South Florida, College of Social and Behavioral Sciences.

Staw, B. M., & Ross, J. (1985). Stability in the midst of change: A dispositional approach to job attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 70(3), 469-480.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics (5th ed.).* San Francisco, CA: Pearson.

Tabor, R. (1987). *A comparison study of occupational stress among juvenile and adult probation officers.* (Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, 138-138 p.

Tett, R., & Meyer, J. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology*, 46(1), 259-293.

Turnage, J. J., & Spielberger, C. D. (1991). Job stress in managers, professionals, and clerical workers. *Work and Stress*, 5, 165-176.

Unruh, D., Gau, J., & Waintrup, M. (2009). An exploration of factors reducing recidivism rates of formerly incarcerated youth with disabilities participating in a re-entry intervention. *Journal Of Child & Family Studies*, 18(3), 284-293.

Vagg, P. R., & Spielberger, C. D. (1998). Occupational stress: Measuring job pressure and organizational support in the workplace. *Journal Of Occupational Health Psychology*, 3(4), 294-305.

Vagg, P. R., & Spielberger, C. D. (1999). The job stress survey: Assessing perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of generic sources of stress in the workplace. *Journal Of Occupational Health Psychology*, 4(3), 288-292.

Warner, R. (2008). *Applied Statistics From Bivariate Through Multivariate Techniques.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Waters, L. K., & Roach, D. (1971). Relationship between job attitudes and two forms of withdrawal from the work situation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 55(1), 92-94.

Watson, D., Suls, J., & Haig, J. (2002). Global self-esteem in relation to structural models of personality and affectivity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(1), 185-197.

Wechsler, I., Kahane, M., & Tannenbaum, R. (1952). Job satisfaction, productivity, and morale. A case study. *Occupational Psychology*, 26, 1-14.

Wei, L., Jun-Quan, Z., Jing, S., Ji-Hong, K., Zhi-Yuan, D., & Sheng, W. (2007). Job stress related to glyco-lipid allostatic load, adiponectin and visfatin. *Stress & health. Journal Of The International Society For The Investigation Of Stress*, 23(4), 257-266.

Weldon, S., & Ritchie, G. (2010). Treatment of dual diagnosis in mentally disordered offenders: Application of evidence from the mainstream. *Advances in Dual Diagnosis*, 3(2), 18-23.

Weston, R. (2006). A brief guide to structural equation modeling. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 34(5), 719-751.

Wethington, E. (2000). Theories of organizational stress. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 45 (3), 640-642.

Whitehead, J. (1989). *Burnout in probation and corrections.* New York, NY: Praeger.

Whitehead, J. & Lindquist, C. (1985). Job stress and burnout among probation/parole officers: Perceptions and causal factors. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 29(2), 109-119.

Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. (2000). Psychological well-being and job satisfaction as predictors of job performance. *Journal Of Occupational Health Psycholog*