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An Examination of Factors Contributing to the Effectiveness of Female Administrators in Corrections

Daisy Lee Crockett
Walden University

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Walden University

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Daisy Crockett

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Walden University
2017

Abstract

An Examination of Factors Contributing to the Effectiveness of Female Administrators in

Corrections

by

Daisy L. Crockett

MSPA, Troy University, 2004

BS, Arizona State University, 1987

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

February 2017

Abstract

Correctional leadership, especially by women, has been under examined by researchers and scholars. Some researchers have suggested that women may be more likely to exhibit transformational leadership styles, which may be effective for addressing the uniquely stressful corrections work environment and improving working conditions, yet women in corrections have remained relatively excluded from correctional leadership. Increasing women's participation in correctional leadership may involve transformational leadership and training in leadership skills, as well as gender bias relating to the correctional profession. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases and the position held by women. Interpreted through gender bias and gender-leadership theory, the central research questions involved the relationships among transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases and the position held by women in corrections. Utilizing an online survey, a random sample was collected of 71 female members of the National Association of Blacks in Criminal Justice and the Federal Prisons Retiree Association. A multinomial logistic regression was used to determine that transformational leadership ($p = .001$) was a significant predictor of job positions held by women in corrections, but leadership training ($p = .065$) and gender biases ($p = .087$) were not significant predictors. This study may lead to positive social change by providing women in corrections an avenue for increasing their job positions in corrections through cultivation of transformational leadership style.

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Dedication

I dedicate this accomplishment to my mother, Cozy Crockett, who was the greatest motivator and inspiration to me. I also dedicate this dissertation to my children, Marcus and Tomika Griggs, who stood by me and cheered me on and especially to my grandson, Adrian Griggs, who has taught me much and loved me unconditionally.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction to the Problem

The need for strong leadership and increased diversity has become a compelling issue in the correctional workforce. Men dominated the correctional profession until the early 1980s when changes in the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Title VII broke down barriers and restrictions on employment that was once reserved for men (Cheeseman, 2013; Nolasco & Vaughn, 2011). Because of the progress that women have made in occupying supervisory, middle management and executive positions, women in the workforce accounted for 51% of all workers in the management, professional, and related occupations (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011) and fewer than 16% of executive positions in Fortune 500 companies (Catalyst, 2014). Although the number of female managers has more than doubled in 30 years, only 20% of women held senior management positions in the United States (Catalyst, 2014).

These labor statistics were unexpected, considering the fact that the corrections profession was one of the first to be examined in regard to gender equality (Cheeseman, 2013). Zimmer (1987) found women to be underrepresented in corrections in general because of discriminatory behavior from their male counterparts. Wide-scale efforts were undertaken to improve these issues (Matthews, Monk-Turner, & Sumter, 2010). Because of these efforts, the correctional workforce has become more equal. In 1969, women represented 12% of the correctional workforce; in 2007, they represented 37% in adult corrections and 51% in juvenile corrections respectively (Cheeseman, 2013). However,

women occupying managerial roles in corrections continued to be a distinct minority (Lambert, Paoline, Hogan, & Baker, 2007).

Researchers have studied women working in corrections as correctional officers, but few researchers examined how women perceived their opportunities for advancement in this field or their behaviors when they do reach leadership positions (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011; Firestone, Miller, & Harris, 2012; Hussemann & Page, 2011; Matthews et al., 2010). Based on social cognitive career theory (SCCT), individuals' perceptions of their self-efficacy within a field have a significant effect on whether or not that person will be successful (Lent, 2002). Perceiving a lack of women in these career fields could therefore discourage a female correctional officer from pursuing this career. Even if a woman were to enter the vocation, others' perceptions of what a correctional administrator should be could affect decision makers in the hiring process, leading to a lack of advancement (Lent, 2002).

Women working in corrections faced many barriers in the work environment in addition to career progression. Women perceived their career growth was hindered by perceptions of sexual harassment, balancing work and home responsibilities, and a general belief that men were more capable (Matthews et al., 2010). Matthews, Monk-Turner, and Sumter (2010) determined that female correctional staff felt gender bias was a significant factor in promotional opportunities. Gender bias seems to have adversely affected women's ability to ascend to higher levels in leadership because of the traditional expectation of a correctional leader (Hussemann & Page, 2011). Gender stereotyping may have also led organizations to erroneously limit the range of work

opportunities for women, destabilizing the power and influence of female leaders and failing to recognize that women possess the characteristics needed for business success (Warren, Shapiro, & Young, 2009).

Eagly and Heilman (2008) found in their research that gender bias has adversely affected women's ability to promote to higher leadership positions within organizations. To obtain a better understanding of gender bias as a barrier to promotions and the effect on women, I conducted a comprehensive literature review, which is presented in *Chapter 2*.

Chapter 1 provides the background of the study, the statement of the problem, and the purpose statement. This chapter also includes the research questions, nature of the study, and theoretical framework aligning with the problem and purpose statements. To provide further foundation for the study, I define operational definitions, as well as discuss the assumptions, limitations, and delimitations involved in the study. Finally, in this chapter I detail the significance of the study, followed by a brief summary of the chapter.

Background of the Study

Scholars have discussed leadership at length. Leadership is no longer simply described as an individual characteristic or difference; instead, it is depicted in various models as a dyadic, shared, relational, strategic, global, and complex social dynamic (Avolio, 2007; Yukl, 2006). Based on gender-biased perceptions of leadership, men have traditionally dominated leadership positions in corporate, political, military, and other sectors of society, making it difficult for women to gain entry, particularly in positions

that have a strong association with the male gender (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Even though women have made strides in achieving managerial status, few women risen to high-level positions of leadership. However, as noted by Vinkenburg, van Engen, Eagly, and Johannesen-Schmidt (2011), transformational leadership style provides the key to women receiving increased promotional opportunities.

Explanations for the sparse representation of women in senior management have traditionally centered on the idea that a shortage of qualified women existed (Matthews et al., 2010). The shortage of women has been attributed to a number of causes, including women's familial responsibilities and innate tendencies to demonstrate fewer of the traits and motivations necessary to attain and achieve success in high-level positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Women have traditionally not received invitations to the senior management positions because of gendered expectations of leaders and unique experiences of women in the workforce, such as leave of absence because of pregnancy (Desmarais & Alksnis, 2005).

For example, the correctional workforce has demonstrated a significant gender bias, perhaps because of the strong association of corrections with stereotypically masculine traits (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). Primarily, researchers have focused on correctional officers, aspects of the officers' job, stress, correctional orientation, and demographic characteristics (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Hemmens, Stohr, Schoeler, & Miller, 2002). However, a gap in research exists regarding women working in corrections leadership and the affect that women have in leadership roles in corrections (Hemmens et al., 2002). The research that exists shows that women perceive gender bias

in promotional opportunities (Matthews et al., 2010). Literature regarding women in leadership roles has increased as academics and leaders attempt to understand a woman's experience in corrections.

Some of the research on differential leadership styles between the genders has demonstrated that women can bring beneficial perspective to the correctional workforce, particularly in the area of transformational leadership (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Vinkenburg, van Engen, Eagly, & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2011). However, this research may potentially be repeating the error of reinstating gender bias through stereotypical views of men and women (Vecchio, 2002). Little research exists pertaining to women and promotional opportunities in corrections and the factors that women perceived as barriers to executive positions, but this workforce may be particularly appropriate for this research because of the gender roles ascribed in corrections (Cheeseman, 2013).

Statement of the Problem

Although the American Correctional Association (2002) noted in its vision statement that a goal was to "promote diversity in the leadership, staff, membership, and activities of the American Correctional Association" (p. 1), these goals do not seem to have translated into the actions of correctional administrators. A significant increase exists in the number of women employed in corrections, but the effect has been less visible in supervisory, management, and executive level positions in corrections (Cheeseman, 2013). Women experience the *glass ceiling effect*, the invisible barrier that keeps women from reaching and retaining executive-level positions in many aspects of

employment opportunities (Baxter & Wright, 2000; Matthews et al., 2010). Current employment trends suggest that women who have successfully managed to maneuver through the ranks in corrections are often excluded from executive level and policymaking positions, thereby making it almost impossible to effect changes that would benefit other females in the industry (Warren et al., 2009). Haslam and Ryan (2008) determined that beyond the glass ceiling effect, women might be discriminated against in leadership by what researchers termed the *glass cliff*. Haslam and Ryan developed the theory to explain the phenomenon of women being hired for leadership positions in failing organizations more frequently than in successful organizations.

Transformational leadership may be effective in corrections, and some researchers claim women may be more expected to exemplify traits that are particularly valuable in the correctional field (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Vinkenburg et al., 2011). Therefore, training women in correctional positions to utilize transformational leadership characteristics may assist in increasing opportunities for women. However, researchers have not fully examined women in correctional leadership roles and their leadership styles. I intended through this study to address the gap in the literature regarding women in correctional leadership relating to the relationship between transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases and the position held by women.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases and the position held by women. The results allowed me to determine

whether transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases affect the job position that women hold. Although multiple researchers and professional organizations (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011; Matthews et al., 2010; Eagly, 2007; Hemmens et al., 2002) have identified it as an issue, a lack of women occupy leadership positions in corrections. A gap existed in the literature regarding female correctional administrators. By examining those factors that correlate with job successes and failures, the study provided a step in the direction of promoting women's success in this field and addressed the gap in the literature.

Research Questions

The research questions were:

RQ1: To what extent is transformational leadership related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H₀1: Transformational leadership is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_a1: Transformational leadership is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

RQ2: To what extent is leadership training related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H₀2: Leadership training is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_a2: Leadership training is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

RQ3: To what extent is traditional gender bias related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H₀₃: Traditional gender bias is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_{a3}: Traditional gender bias is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

Theoretical Framework

This study involved several models of gender theory and attached biases, career theory, and leadership theory to understand the ongoing disparity of women in upper management positions in corrections. Combined, the theories in the theoretical framework suggest that gendered expectations may influence the ability of females to succeed in careers, particularly those with strong gendered associations, even if the leadership style associated with that gender could benefit the career field, as is the case in corrections (Bass, 1985; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Lent, 2002). This framework informed the research questions and methodology for the study.

Gendered social role theory proposes that the expectations associated with males and females perpetuated those behaviors to conform to the expectations (Eagly, 1987). Specifically, the researchers determined that “expectations about women and men necessarily reflect status and power differences to the extent that women and men are positioned in a gender hierarchy” (Eagly, Wood, & Diekmann, 2000, p. 123). These roles are dynamic, but the current gender roles continue to reflect the association with men as dominant breadwinners and females as homemakers (Eagly et al., 2000). These

assumptions could potentially damage women in correctional careers, where administrators are expected to exhibit a particularly hypermasculine stance (Vickovic, Griffin, & Fradella, 2014).

These gendered expectations may also influence women's careers in corrections, according to career theories. Lent (2002) proposed social cognitive career theory (SCCT), a theory intended to describe career choices that relied on Bandura's (1971) social learning theory. Essentially, Lent (2002) modeled career choices based on a series of cultural and personal factors, suggesting that the decisions that people make regarding their careers can be tied to sociocultural factors that they observe within those career fields, such as gender, race, age, and socioeconomic status. Ngo, Foley, Ji, and Loi (2013) also determined that perceptions of career success were mediated by gender role orientation. Despite some equalizing advances in other careers, a significant disparity between women and men as correctional administrators has remained (Lambert et al., 2007). Therefore, according to SCCT, the prevalence of males in this position may be a self-perpetuating cycle.

Some researchers have also suggested that particular leadership styles are associated more closely with male and female genders (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014). Transformational leadership style, in particular, has been associated with women in management positions (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Transformational leaders seek to modify the beliefs of particular employees to those of the organization (Burns, 1978). These theories led Lambert, Hogan, Altheimer and Wareham (2010) to suggest that different gendered leadership styles could have

significant effects on correctional administration. However, some have argued that these perceptions rely on stereotypical understanding of gender (Vinkenburg et al., 2011). I sought to understand these factors more fully as they related to correctional administrators and gender. *Chapter 3* presents further explanation of the theoretical framework.

Nature of the Study

The study followed a quantitative correlational survey design. The quantitative method was appropriate to generalize the findings in a wide population simply and directly (Creswell, 2009; Howell, 2010). The correlational design measured the relationship between variables associated with the concept (Creswell, 2005). The variables were (a) transformational leadership, as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ); (b) leadership training; (c) gender bias, as measured by the perceived discrimination scale; and (d) job role. I examined the relationship between transformational leadership, training, and gender bias and the position that women held among a sample of 71 women who were members of the National Association of Blacks in Criminal Justice (NABCJ) and the Federal Prisons Retiree Association (FPRA). I measured these variables using a cross-sectional survey and analyzed them using the quantitative method.

To solicit the wide, varied sample required for quantitative studies, I collected data from women in correctional positions at the supervisor level and above. The survey was administered electronically and included a series of preliminary questions to solicit

responses from usable participants. Therefore, the sampling was random, in that every possible participant was able to take part in the study (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008).

Operational Definitions

Gender bias. Gender bias is the separation of sex in which one gender is preferred over the other in such a way as to cause discrimination (Warren et al., 2009).

Gender divisions. Gender divisions produce men at the top of the hierarchy with women being overrepresented at lower levels within an organization. These patterns are recreated and perpetuated through history and organizational tradition (Acker, 1992).

Gender stereotypes. Gender stereotypes are the consensual beliefs regarding personality traits that specifically depict men and women (Berger, Rosenholtz, & Zelditch, 1980; Deaux & Major, 1987) and are a manifestation of the communal perceptions of the differences in character traits and behaviors related to an individual's gender (Lueptow, Garovich-Szabo, & Lueptow, 2001; Moskowitz, Suh, & Desaulniers, 1994).

Glass-ceiling concept. The glass-ceiling concept is an alternate explanation for the sparse representation of women in senior management positions. Baxter and Wright (2000) explained the concept of the glass ceiling, wherein while some women gain entry into the managerial hierarchies, at some point, these women will hit an invisible barrier that blocks any further upward mobility.

Hypermasculine. Hypermasculinity is a particular cultural subset, which assumes several traits as making a person "manly," namely aggression, sexualized attitudes towards women, and excitement from danger (Mosher & Sirkin, 1984).

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is the bond between an employee and the organization, determined as particularly important for the correctional workforce in increasing organizational outcomes (Lambert, Hogan, Altheimer, & Wareham, 2010).

Role congruity theory. Role congruity theory indicates that prejudice occurs when social perceivers hold a stereotype about a social group that is incongruent with the characteristics believed to be required for achievement in certain classes of social roles. The theory is derived from the incongruity that many people see between the characteristics of women and the requirements of leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Social role theory. The differences seen in the behaviors of men and women come from the social roles that each gender occupies and not from the inherent differences between the sexes (Eagly, 1987).

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is the leadership approach that utilizes inspiration and motivation to nurture the personal capacities and abilities of an individual. It tends to be associated with a more enduring leader-follower relationship. Transformational leadership focuses on organizational change by emphasizing new values and alternative visions of the future that surpass the status quo (Barbuto, 2005; Feinberg, Ostroff, & Burke, 2005; Gellis, 2001; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Spreitzer, Perttula, & Xin, 2005).

Transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is the leadership approach that utilizes rewards and punishments to achieve performance, thus making the leader-follower relationship transactional. Transactional leaders seek to uphold stability rather

than promoting change within an organization through uniform economic and social exchanges that achieve specific objectives for both the leaders and their followers (Lussier & Achua, 2004).

Assumptions, Scope and Delimitations, and Limitations

Research Assumptions

One assumption was that survey respondents were currently or previously employed in departments of either correction or youth services, the Federal Bureau of Prisons, community residential centers, or other corrections facilities. Male interviewees were precluded by the use of screening questions, so it was assumed that valid respondents were females who work in corrections. Because the surveys were anonymous, I assumed that respondents provided an accurate depiction of their experiences in the workplace to the extent that they were able. An additional assumption was that participants would respond as honestly as they were able to the survey questions. Since validated instruments were used for both transformational leadership and gender biases, it was assumed that the findings reflected valid information relevant to both constructs (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Schmitt, Branscombe, Kobrynowicz, & Owen, 2002).

Scope and Delimitations

Because of the purpose of this study, the research was delimited to women's experiences in the correctional workforce. The sample was comprised of female members of the NABCJ and the FPRA. I focused on the gender stereotyping and transformational leadership that occurred while these women attempted to be promoted, not on other forms of prejudicial treatment or styles of leadership. The study also pertained to women in

corrections who reached a managerial position. Since women in this sample previously reached management positions, the results may not be generalizable to women currently in entry-level positions, or those who are attempting to reach management positions, in corrections.

Limitations

Because of the purpose of the study and multiple variables, the correlative quantitative survey design was the most appropriate design, despite its limiting factors (Howell, 2010). Based on the correlational design, the results of the quantitative study allowed for examination of the relationships among the variables. No causation can be determined from the data gathered from this study. Furthermore, the data collection relies on self-reporting of the phenomena. As has been fully discussed in gender theory, some aspects of gender bias have become so ingrained in society that they are inextricable from everyday practice, particularly in the workforce (Moss-Racusin, Dovidio, Brescoll, Graham, & Handelsman, 2012). Therefore, the results were limited by the women's ability to recognize overt gender bias. This perceived gender bias was most applicable for self-efficacy, as determined by SCCT (Lent, 2002).

I selected transformational leadership as a variable for the study; therefore, the research required a measure of transformational leadership. For the purposes of the study, the MLQ measured transformational leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Researchers have frequently used and tested this measure for validity, as discussed in the review of literature. Nevertheless, results associated with transformational leadership were bound to the effectiveness of this scale.

I selected gender bias as a variable for the study; therefore, the research required a measure of gender bias. For the purposes of the study, the perceived discrimination scale measured traditional gender biases (Schmitt et al., 2002). The scale used in the study was the condensed version made to be workplace-specific. Cornejo (2007) utilized the scale with the workplace-specific form and reported the reliability to be as high as .96. The scale had good internal reliability with an alpha value of .83.

Significance of the Study

The results of the study addressed the gap in literature regarding women in correctional leadership and leadership training in the correctional workforce. The research is significant because I examined the challenges that women face in correctional organizations and particularly if those challenges are related to promotions, leadership, and job performance. I also determined factors influencing job success for women. By studying the correctional field, I examined a field that has proven to have exhibited traditional gender roles and gender bias, including hypermasculinity (Cheeseman, 2013). Therefore, the effect of gender biases may potentially be more overt in corrections than in other fields, and the results may have more implications for practice. The potential significance of the research was to explore the barriers and leadership behavior that influenced advancement and retention for women in leadership roles in corrections.

The continued lack of women in leadership may be contributing to the larger devaluation of women in society. Biased ascriptions of leadership are perpetuated when women are passed over based on outmoded views of men's and women's skills. Nevertheless, some scholars have suggested that men and women have different methods

of managing (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Recognizing differences between male and female management and leadership characteristics may be important for the future growth of correctional organizations, and evaluating these assumptions in an area where women who are successful have to take on a less stereotypical role may provide a unique perspective on these theories. Specifically, this assertion may be true considering recent findings that suggest little difference exists in perceived leadership effectiveness except in gender-stereotyped fields (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Women's different orientation toward corrections may assist in spurring systemic correctional reforms (Hussemann & Page, 2011).

Summary

This chapter introduced gendered leadership theories, SCCT, and gender bias as potential factors for explaining the continued gender disparity of women in corrections moving into leadership positions. The correctional field was a significant field in which to study this phenomenon because of the hypermasculine attitudes of correctional workers and preconceived notions of career efficacy according to SCCT. The problem noted regarding the lack of understanding of female correctional supervisors led to a quantitative study design to examine three factors—transformational leadership, leadership training, and experience of traditional gender biases—and their relationship to the position of female correctional officers to determine correlations among the variables. *Chapter 2* reviewed literature necessary to highlight the gap in literature regarding women correctional administrators. *Chapter 3* presents the methodology for this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Primarily, the researchers studying corrections have focused on correctional officers, aspects of the officers' job, stress, correctional orientation, and demographic characteristics (Cheesman & Downey, 2012; Lambert, Hogan et al., 2010; Lambert et al., 2007). Correctional leadership has demonstrated a dearth of female representatives (Cheesman, 2013), and little is known about how these female leaders have persevered or struggled. A gap in research exists regarding leadership in corrections and the effects that women have in leadership roles in corrections (Hemmens et al., 2002). The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationships between the positions held by women and transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases. *Chapter 2* is organized in the following manner: (a) theoretical framework, including gender bias, leadership styles, and gender leadership theories; (b) corrections overview; (c) overview of women in corrections; (d) correctional leadership efficacy and training; and, (e) women's correctional leadership. I discuss deficiencies in the data to clarify the gap in literature.

Literature Search Strategy

I found research related to the study using the following keywords: *correctional administrators; gender and corrections; leadership and gender; social role theory; gender theory; leadership training and corrections; correctional administrators and effective leadership; and female correctional administrators*. Databases accessed included Science Direct, PsycINFO, Google Scholar, and Walden databases. Results were limited to those peer-reviewed articles published between 2010 and 2016.

Exceptions to these rules included seminal works in gendered leadership theory by Eagly (1987), Eagly and Carli (2003), and Eagly and Karau (2002), as well as Vecchio's (2002) critique of this body of literature. In addition, Bass (1985), Bass and Avolio (2004), and Lent's (2002) work was included in the theoretical framework because of their individual expertise in their respective fields that were of theoretical interest to this study.

Theoretical Framework

To understand the role of women in leadership roles in corrections, an understanding of several theories was required. Underlying the study was gender role theory, which suggests that socialization produces particular behaviors in men and women (Eagly, 1987). Specifically, feminine behaviors are typically expressiveness, caretaking, and relations oriented, while masculine behaviors are proactivity, self-confidence, and independence (Ngo, Foley, Ji, & Loi, 2013). Ngo, Foley, Ji, and Loi (2013) conducted regression analysis of 362 survey responses from Chinese workers and determined that ascription to prototypical gender roles resulted in increased self-efficacy, hope, and optimism regarding careers, and masculine traits were more associated with self-perceptions of career success. These different perceptions and the associated feelings of well-being may impede or promote success along gender-stratified lines.

Following Ngo et al.'s (2013) findings, gender role theory facilitated understanding of the different role that the correctional profession affords women, based on an understanding of the roles that men and women are assigned as well as their perceptions of success. For the theoretical framework, I focused on gender bias,

transformational leadership style, and gender leadership theories to understand the role of women in correctional leadership positions, as well as potential barriers to their success.

Gender Bias

Gender bias, or sexism, is the discrimination against a particular gender, including sexist comments, generalized assumptions based on gender, or degrading, insulting, or embarrassing behavior based on gender (Firestone et al., 2012). According to Firestone Miller, and Harris (2012), sexism can be displayed as either hostile or benevolent. Hostile sexism involves sexist prejudices that manifest in a negative attitude towards women, whereas benevolent sexism consists of stereotypical views of women that manifest as a positive or affectionate discrimination (Firestone et al., 2012).

A type of gender bias that Hussemann and Page (2011) found to be particularly subversive is espoused by gender difference theory. In gender difference theory, whether through socialization in early childhood or through biological differences, women are presumed to develop particular behaviors associated with their gender (Eagly, 1987; Hussemann & Page, 2011). For example, men are assumed to be motivated morally by a reciprocal, justice-based morality, whereas women develop care-oriented, empathetic moral behaviors intended to respond to moral needs (Gilligan & Attanucci, 1994). The long-term effects of gender expectations, then, continue to shape women's development in the modern world, even within their innermost moral judgments (Hussemann & Page, 2011). Women may experience these effects in the workplace.

Gender bias in the workplace. In the workplace, gender bias can result in decreased opportunities for the gender that is stereotypically less qualified for the job, as

Eagly and Carli (2003) noted in their systematic review of literature related to the phenomenon. Gender stereotypes may reinforce hiring practices for professions typically associated with a particular success, including failing to hire or promote the nonstereotypical gender or assigning gendered job responsibilities (Nolasco & Vaughn, 2011).

Nolasco and Vaughn (2011) examined the hiring practices of criminal justice agencies and their interpretation of Title VII claims under the Civil Rights Act through a systematic search of LEXIS-NEXIS and WESTLAW databases for cases related to this act. After reviewing the findings, Nolasco and Vaughn determined that courts examined a wide range of employer practices in both law enforcement and corrections agencies at various stages of the employment process, such as hiring, assignment of duties, promotion, discipline, and termination. The cases suggested that Title VII was violated when the employers demonstrated gender stereotyping and discriminatory intent. However, these employment actions were deemed legal if employers proved their employment actions were not based on sex stereotypes, but were either business-related or justified by so-called legitimate interests. Although Title VII laws could protect women from discrimination, employers could potentially sidestep these protections by attempting to find excuses to justify their discrimination (Nolasco & Vaughn, 2011).

Additionally, workplaces can take on environmental cultures that foster sexist behaviors (Firestone et al., 2012). In these workplaces, women are simultaneously perceived as less appropriate for the job based on their gender and discriminated against for not displaying stereotypical gendered behaviors (Nolasco & Vaughn, 2011). For

example, in corrections, the hypermasculine culture may inhibit women from being perceived as successful even while women in corrections are expected to display caretaking or nurturing behaviors, and may also make women uncomfortable, leading to higher job stress and decreased opportunities for success (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011; Eagly & Carli, 2003). According to Mosher and Sirkin (1984), hypermasculinity includes crude attitudes and sexual expectations of women, perceptions of aggression or violence as masculinity, and excitement stemming from danger.

Moreover, generalized societal expectations for women to maintain the caretaking role of the family may result in increased work-family conflict and decreased opportunities for success. Powell and Greenhaus (2010) stated that work may interfere with family obligations because of time constraints, increased strain that spills into family or work life, and resulting behavioral changes in either environment. To assess gender differences regarding work-family conflict, Powell and Greenhaus parsed their sample of 528 workers in various industries into matched pairs of male and female workers who had the same job and were less than 5 years different in age. To obtain the data, 71 MBA students with full time jobs were asked to identify such matched pairs in their organization, and surveys were distributed to these matched pairs (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). The responding sample of 264 pairs resulted in the dataset for the study, which was coded and assessed. Powell and Greenhaus found significant differences between male and female workers. Specifically, women experienced higher levels of spillover

from work into personal life than men did. Overall, men and women did not have different levels of work-family conflict (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010).

In corrections, however, women report higher levels of work-family conflict (Lambert, Altheimer, & Hogan, 2010). In situations where work-family conflict exists, workers may be less likely to remain in the career and therefore less likely to reach a leadership position (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Therefore, work-family conflict may result in the lack of female leaders in corrections, as reported by Cheeseman (2013). In addition, gender bias may exist towards those in correctional leadership.

Gender bias and leadership. Gendered expectations for positions may manifest as internal and external pressure on career choices. Based on SCCT, an individual's perception of their self-efficacy within a field has a significant influence on whether or not they will be successful (Lent, 2002). A lack of women in particular career fields could therefore prevent a woman from even pursuing a career in that field. Even if she were to pursue the career field, others' perceptions of what a person in that position should look like could affect decision makers in the hiring process, leading to a lack of advancement (Lent, 2002). Leadership behaviors in general could potentially violate gender role expectations (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Moreover, if a woman does enter a male-dominated career field, she is likely to experience the glass ceiling effect, wherein she reaches an invisible barrier beyond which she will not receive further advancement (Baxter & Wright, 2000).

In a systematic 20-year meta-analysis of published literature relevant to gendered leadership behaviors (1980-2000), Eagly and Carli (2003) determined women were more

likely to manifest democratic, participative styles of leadership rather than autocratic, directive styles. However, workplace socialization and criteria for management positions could diminish the effect among women in leadership roles (Eagly & Carli, 2003). For example, analysis of the selection criteria for positions revealed biases towards autocratic, typically masculine traits, which could potentially skew the effects of gendered leadership styles in studies of women in managerial or leadership positions (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Kark, Waismel-Manor, & Shamir, 2012). These findings are consistent with role congruity theory, which posits that prejudice occurs when social perceivers hold a stereotype about a social group that is incongruent with the characteristics believed to be required for achievement in certain social roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Furthermore, Eagly and Carli (2003) and Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, and Woehr (2014) noted that female leaders in male-dominated or typically masculine professions could experience more extreme prejudicial conditions. In such professions, the presence of women in middle management roles may predict a correlated presence of women in higher leadership roles (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014).

Furthermore, Haslam and Ryan (2008) determined that beyond the glass ceiling effect, women might be discriminated against in leadership by what researchers termed the glass cliff. Haslam and Ryan developed the theory to explain the phenomenon of women being hired for leadership positions in failing organizations more frequently than in successful organizations. In three independent studies, the researchers analyzed surveys completed by management graduates ($N = 95$), high school students ($N = 85$), and business leaders ($N = 83$), wherein participants selected a leader for a hypothetical

failing organization and an organization that was successful. The survey revealed women were selected ahead of men to lead failing organizations (Haslam & Ryan, 2008). Haslam and Ryan noted that the discrimination felt by the women chosen was because of benevolent sexism, or the assignment of affectionate but discriminatory roles for women (Firestone et al., 2012). According to the 83 business leaders polled for the study, women were determined to have leadership abilities specific to running failing organizations, and the participants perceived that the negative situations provided women with an excellent opportunity to demonstrate leadership abilities (Haslam & Ryan, 2008). However, by placing women in these adverse situations, it may be setting female leaders up to fail (Haslam & Ryan, 2008).

To assess the prevalence of gender bias in leadership, Elsesser and Lever (2011) conducted a wide-scale mixed methods analysis of survey responses from 60,470 employed people in the United States. The quantitative analyses revealed that a cross-sex bias existed, wherein women responded more favorably toward male bosses and men responded more favorably to female bosses. This effect existed regardless of workplace make up, that is, male-dominated, female-dominated, or neutral (Elsesser & Lever, 2011). Moreover, 46% of the participants reported preferring male to female bosses at a 2:1 ratio (Elsesser & Lever, 2011). Qualitative analysis demonstrated that when women were preferred as bosses, it was largely because of their feminine qualities, such as caring and compassion, whereas male bosses were defined as superior based on negative qualities assigned to female leaders, such as gossip, cattiness, or “bitchiness” (Elsesser & Lever, 2011, p. 1570). These findings suggest that significant gender biases for leaders

exist in various workplaces in the United States, specifically devaluing female contributions in multiple situations.

Augmenting bias against the female gender, bias may also exist against traits associated with gender, though recent researchers have begun to argue a female advantage for leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Kark et al., 2012). Kark, Waismel-Manor, and Shamir (2012) examined 930 carefully matched male and female employees in the same positions at the same organization and 76 managers in the banking industry to determine how followers perceived the traits of a manager (masculine, feminine, or androgynous). Kark et al. found that employees considered managers perceived as androgynous, that is, associated with neither male or female gender or embodying traits of both males and females in their leadership styles, as the most successful, followed by only-feminine and then only-masculine traits. In the sample, however, employees perceived women who did not demonstrate an androgynous leadership style as ineffective. Transformational leadership, in particular, was found to be an androgynous leadership style (Kark et al., 2012).

Researchers suggested that gender bias might be present in all levels of the workforce, whether that bias is overt or covert, benevolent or hostile (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Elsesser & Lever, 2011; Firestone et al., 2012; Haslam & Ryan, 2008). Gender bias may explain the different roles expected of men and women in corrections as well. Leadership styles are also essential for understanding the theoretical framework of the study.

Leadership Styles

Leadership styles are the different methods that a leader uses in the management of followers. Using effective leadership styles can increase individual identification and organizational commitment through affective, relational bonds if actively engaged (Kark et al., 2012). Bass and Avolio (2004) termed a leader who demonstrates weak leadership behavior as *passive-avoidant*. The two most common leadership styles discussed in the literature as having potential efficacy are transactional and transformational leadership styles (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 2004; Eagly & Carli, 2003).

Transactional leadership style. Transactional leadership styles involve the interchange between leader and follower, wherein a leader aims to conduct a transaction as a means of achieving organizational objectives (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Transactional leaders use rewards and punishments to achieve employee outcomes; as a result, the leader-follower relationship is transactional. Transactional leadership privileges organizational stability rather than dynamic change within an organization through uniform economic and social exchanges that achieve specific objectives for both the leaders and their followers (Lussier & Achua, 2004). The contingent rewards portion of the transactional leadership style has proven to be effective within organizational settings (Brown & May, 2012; Vinkenburg et al., 2011).

Transformational leadership style. Bass (1985) identified the transformational leadership style, which involves leadership behavior that aims to transform followers' goals and motivations into organizational goals and motivations. Transformational leadership focuses on organizational change by emphasizing new values and alternative

visions of the future that surpass the status quo (Barbuto, 2005; Feinberg et al., 2005; Gellis, 2001; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Spreitzer et al., 2005). A transformational leader behaves in a manner that shows individualized consideration and inspirational motivation (Vinkenburger et al., 2011). A transformational leader tends to be future oriented, compared to a transactional leader, who is typically oriented in the present (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Kark et al. (2012) noted that despite the stereotypical picture of bold, aggressive leaders, transformational leaders typically demonstrated more communal leadership behaviors. Eagly and Carli (2003) and Vinkenburger et al. (2011) determined that transformational leadership was especially advantageous for women in leadership roles because of its incorporation of expected female traits (for example, mentoring, egalitarianism, and inspirational).

Use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to measure

transformational leadership. The MLQ is a measure of leadership behavior that determines leadership style either through self-assessment or superiors,' peers,' and subordinates' assessment of leadership behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Bass and Avolio (2004) designed the MLQ to measure transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive avoidant leadership to determine a leader's effectiveness within an organization. The MLQ is a commonplace and expected tool for measuring leadership traits (Vinkenburger et al., 2011).

Transformational and transactional leadership styles have both shown efficacy within workplaces, depending on the situation (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Of the two, transformational leadership is the most appropriate when organizational change is a

major aim (Barbuto, 2005; Feinberg et al., 2005; Gellis, 2001; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Spreitzer et al., 2005). The MLQ measures traits of transformational leaders (Bass & Avolio, 2004). In corrections, organizational change is required; therefore, MLQ scores were included in the study's examination of female leaders in corrections. This focus also stemmed from literature suggesting women are more likely to display transformational leadership traits.

Gender-Leadership Theories

In an effort to rid bias from discussions of leadership efficacy, some researchers have examined whether women have a different leadership style that may be beneficial in particular situations (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Vecchio, 2002; Vinkenbunrg et al., 2011). For example, Vecchio (2002) examined the gender leadership literature to decide whether such an advantage existed and found that the advantage was overstated and based on stereotypical views of gendered behaviors. Vecchio also suggested that male characteristics were more preferred than female characteristics in job settings. Therefore, Vecchio concluded that no female leadership advantage existed.

Critiquing Vecchio's (2002) findings, Eagly and Carli (2003) proposed that aspects of female-associated leadership behaviors held an advantage. Eagly and Carli determined through a review of literature and published trade materials that women were more likely to demonstrate participative, team oriented leadership behaviors, rather than top-down, traditional styles of leadership. Moreover, the biases toward women in leadership roles may lead women to adapt more situational, flexible, and varied leadership styles, leading to increased perceptions of effectiveness (Kark et al., 2012).

Similarly, Eagly (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of the gendered leadership advantage literature and determined that although women have a disadvantage because of predispositions toward *masculine* traits in leadership, women may be more likely to demonstrate transformational leadership traits, leading to higher perceived efficacy in the contemporary work environment.

Kark et al. (2012) also noted that these orientations may make women more likely to demonstrate effective transformational leadership, which may make women seem more androgynous and thereby more effective in leadership roles despite bias. Specifically, Kark et al. proposed that a leader would increase identification and benefit the leadership exchange by possessing stereotypically masculine and feminine traits, fostering relational exchanges, and acting in a dominant, idealized way. In Kark et al.'s sample of 96 male and female managers, women were penalized more harshly than men for failing to develop an androgynous leadership style.

Vinkenburg et al. (2011) proposed that exhibiting transformational leadership behaviors, including individualized consideration and inspirational motivation, demonstrated the best means for women to increase chances for promotion. Examining 271 American ($n = 122$) and Dutch ($n = 149$) employees' survey responses on the MLQ to experiences with male and female supervisors, Vinkenburg et al. determined that people expected female supervisors to display more effective transformational leadership behaviors than men. In another sample of 514 American ($n = 237$) and Dutch ($n = 277$) participants, Vinkenburg et al. analyzed survey responses and further exhibited that expected transformational leadership behaviors for a person seeking a promotion were

different for men than for women; the people surveyed expected men to display inspirational motivation and women to promote individualized concern and inspirational motivation. Thus, developing both transformational leadership behaviors was essential for women in attaining promotion opportunities (Vinkenburg et al., 2011).

Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2014) conducted a meta-analysis of 95 studies (1962–2011) relating to the gender advantage in leadership to determine whether such an advantage existed within the literature. Upon examination of all leadership contexts, Paustian-Underdahl et al. determined that no gendered leadership advantage existed. However, when the ratings were isolated from others, women were rated as more effective than men were in leadership roles. On the other hand, men tended to rate themselves as more effective leaders than women did in self-rating (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). In the industries that Paustian-Underdahl et al. considered either male-dominated or female-dominated, the associated gender was perceived as significantly more effective than the nontraditional gender. The findings of Paustian-Underdahl et al.'s study may have broad significance for the present study regarding female leaders in a male-dominated corrections workforce, as reviewed in the following sections.

Corrections Overview

Overall, correctional employment includes any position tasked with maintaining the everyday functioning of the criminal justice system after people are convicted of a crime (Vickovic et al., 2014). Corrections have undergone significant systematic change in the last decade, leading to decreased budgets even as institutions implement new standards for evidence-based practice (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). Scrutiny of the

adversarial relationship between correctional officers and inmates and increased standards of care for prisoners have resulted in significant systemic reform (Cook & Lane, 2012). Because of these changes, it has become essential to ensure a committed, stable correctional workforce with strong leadership (Hogan, Lambert, & Griffin, 2013).

Positions in corrections include correctional officers, treatment, support, administrative staff, and correctional leaders (wardens and others in position of leadership (Bierie, 2012). Correctional officers maintain safety and security as well as aid in rehabilitation and reducing recidivism (Finney, Stergiopoulos, Hensel, Bonato, & Dewa, 2013). Because organization in corrections environment can be the difference between order and chaos, the job roles are often highly regimented, and employees are discouraged from breaking rigid protocols (Garland, Hogan, & Lambert, 2012). The correctional workforce is predominately White, male, and around 40 years old (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Bierie, 2012). Many researchers have noted that the correctional environment tends to be centered on a particular type of masculine toughness (Bierie, 2012; Cheeseman, 2013; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). Issues in the literature involved maintaining correctional staff, including organizational variables and job stress.

Maintaining Correctional Staff

The importance of staff in corrections has led researchers and institutions to examine means of maintaining well-trained, effective correctional staff (Hogan et al., 2013). Jurik and Halemba (1984) and Van Voorhis, Cullen, Link, and Wolfe (1991) developed two models to denote the effects on those who work in corrections. The first model is the importation-differential experiences model, which proposes that

demographic factors affect a person's values, attitudes, and behaviors, including gender, and the different socialization practices lead to different behaviors in the correctional workplace (Jurik & Halemba, 1984). The second model is the work role-prisonization model, which suggests that the correctional work environment itself is the shaping factor, and that work environment's effect on correctional workers surpasses the effect of any demographic variables (Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Support exists for both models dependent on the factor studied, though recent literature has suggested that the work role-prisonization model has been more supported in relation to job stressors (Garland et al., 2012; Hogan et al., 2013; Lambert et al., 2007). These findings may be significant for the present study because women who attain leadership positions typically have job tenure in the workforce. Therefore, as women gain more experience, gender differences wane, according to the work role-prisonization model (Garland et al., 2012).

Hogan, Lambert, and Griffin (2013) quantitatively examined survey responses from 2,621 correctional officers within a Southwestern correctional agency to examine turnover intent at different career stages, and found that correctional employees are affected differently depending on their career stage. In the early career (< 1 year experience) and early-transitional (1–4 years' experience) stages, Hogan et al. determined the intent to leave was predicted by the quality of supervisors, organizational support, organizational commitment, coworker support, work-life balance, and increased stress levels, as well as increased educational levels among employees. For employees in midcareer (5–9 years' experience) and later (> 10 years' experience) stages, work environment factors showed lesser predictive value, though organizational commitment

and work-life balances remained the only predictors of intent to leave (Hogan et al., 2013).

These findings are significant for the present study because women bear the brunt of work-life balancing (Lambert, Hogan, et al., 2010), and the lack of support for women in the profession may result in a lack of organizational commitment (Cheeseman, 2013). Therefore, women may continue to experience intention to leave in correctional professions beyond when men taper off, resulting in less promotion opportunities if this turnover intent is followed. Organizational variables may assist in maintaining staff.

Organizational variables. As demonstrated in Griffin, Hogan, and Lambert (2013) findings, organizational commitment affects the success of correctional organizations. Stinchcomb and Leip (2013) determined that organizational variables were more influential than personal variables within the correctional workforce. Among organizational variables with high effects were supportive work climate, empowerment and autonomy, and compensation and benefits (Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). These factors contribute to an employee's organizational commitment (Griffin et al., 2013; Hogan et al., 2013).

To determine how to encourage organizational commitment, Hogan et al. (2013) distributed surveys to 272 staff in a maximum-security state correctional facility to determine factors that affected the development of organizational commitment. White employees were more likely to demonstrate organizational loyalty than non-White employees, a factor that Hogan et al. attributed to the prison environment, where racism and racial tensions proliferate. Furthermore, correctional officers were less likely to have

commitment than other staff within the institution, which Hogan et al. suggested results from perceived lack of support from correctional leadership. In general, Hogan et al. proposed that employees who felt connected to their jobs were less likely to experience job stress and more likely to commit to the organization.

Examining recent developments in the prison system through analysis of current events and published literature, Cerrato (2014) proposed that a dangerous trend exists in the current state of the correctional force, namely sacrificing long-term stability in institutions for immediate order. According to Cerrato, that means emphasizing brute force and immediate inmate placation rather than instituting longitudinal change to improve the institution. Similarly, Hussemann and Page (2011) found that work experience decreased male and female prison officers' likelihood to aspire to progressive attitudes toward imprisonment, namely belief in prisoners' abilities to be rehabilitated. The adversarial relationship between inmates and correctional officers may lead to correctional officers being less likely to attempt mediation during daily conflict within facilities (Gordon, Proulx, & Grant, 2013). To combat the situation, effective correctional leaders are required (Cerrato, 2014). Without such leaders, correctional employees will continue to experience relatively high levels of job stress (Vickovic et al., 2014).

Job stress. Managing job stress and understanding the factors that contribute to job stress has been a focus in the literature because those who work in corrections experience specific job stressors beyond those experienced in the typical workplace (Dial, Downey, & Goodlin, 2010; Gordon et al., 2013; Hogan et al., 2013). Sexual assault and violence are commonplace in correctional facilities (Cook & Lane, 2012; Gordon et al.,

2013). Gordon, Proulx, and Grant (2013) noted in surveys of 1,273 officers in multiple prisons (low-high security facilities) within one state that 73% of correctional officers were afraid or somewhat afraid of experiencing violence from inmates, and 83% believed that the risk of being victimized was likely (47%) or somewhat likely (36%). Gordon et al.'s sample consisted primarily of low-medium security facilities (18% Level 1-low; 43% Level 2-low-medium; 22% Level 3-medium; 17% Levels 4, 5, 6-medium-high), suggesting that fear does not only exist in maximum-security facilities with the most dangerous inmates.

Researchers have examined job stress extensively in the literature. Using survey data from populations of correctional workers, Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) and Cheeseman and Downey (2011) determined that job stress and satisfaction among correctional officers is often a concern. While examining 489 newspaper articles to analyze the portrayal of correctional officers and their work in print media, Vickovic et al. (2014) noted that job stress may be increased by negative public perceptions of correctional workers, though the majority of the literature included a focus on stress from within organizations. For example, Finney, Stergiopoulos, Hensel, Bonato, and Dewa (2013) and Garland, Hogan, and Lambert (2012) noted that correctional officers experience more job stress than in typical settings based on the nature of the position, and that the organizational structure of climate had the most significant effect on the factors of job stress and burnout. Finney et al. (2013) analyzed published literature regarding the phenomenon of job stress among corrections workers according to the job stress model developed by Cooper and Marshall (1976). Finney et al. determined that the literature

was deficient in that the cross-sectional design of the studies limited the researchers' ability to note causative relationships, that no longitudinal studies existed in the literature regarding job stress, and that women were underrepresented among the samples.

The findings related to organizational factors that contribute to increased job stress are in conflict. In a sample of surveys completed by 471 correctional officers in a southern prison system during a 3-month period, Cheeseman and Downey (2011) determined, via correlational analysis, that the generation of an employee and the extent of the stress experienced on the job had a significant relationship with job satisfaction, and that gender and job satisfaction related to job stress. The fact that older employees who were male had more job satisfaction and less stress, which aligned with the predominant characteristics of the workforce, suggested that systemic bias existed for racial, age, and gender minorities in the correctional system (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Bierie, 2012; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). Conversely, Garland et al. (2012) found that White employees reported higher levels of role stress in a large, private Midwestern prison. Some researchers have found that organizational factors have more effects than do personal characteristics (Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). Therefore, managing job stress remains an issue for the correctional field. Another issue requiring wide scale management is that of institutional sexism within corrections, as reviewed in the next section.

Overview of Women in Corrections

Historical Overview

Until the 1970s, women were only employed in corrections in women's facilities (Cheeseman, 2013). While correctional workers considered women adequate for *mothering* female and juvenile offenders, they were considered inadequate to *guard* adult male offenders (Hussemann & Page, 2011). Cheeseman (2013) noted that initiatives to integrate women more thoroughly into the profession began as early as 1969, including the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice's 1973 standards for recruiting and hiring women in all correctional professions. However, it was not until the late 1970s that legal action was taken to integrate women into men's correctional facilities as staff (Cheeseman, 2013). Nevertheless, the corrections field was one of the most progressive professions for integrating women into the workforce at this time (Nolasco & Vaughn, 2011). For example, Jurik (1985) noted that increasing gender diversity in the corrections field could help address systemic issues in the corrections profession.

Subsequently, in the 1980s, gender assumptions about the masculine nature of corrections led many conservatives to critique the ability of women to work successfully in male correctional facilities (Bierie, 2012; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011; Nolasco & Vaughn, 2011). Objections to women being employed in corrections included: that women were not mentally or physically strong enough to work in the correctional field, that inmate privacy could be violated by female correctional officers, and that female officers could introduce the possibility of sexual misconduct or victimization (Cheeseman, 2013). Judicial actions taken under Title VII proved that the criminal justice

system was unduly precluding women from entry, and these barriers for the most part have been removed from the current workforce of the 21st century (Nolasco & Vaughn, 2011).

Contemporary Overview

Despite court rulings in the favor of removing discrimination from corrections, women continue to face discrimination in the workforce and women are simultaneously viewed as ineffective in their jobs and as more nurturing or caregiving than their male coworkers (Matthews et al., 2010). In addition, workers continue to file discrimination suits relating to decreased opportunities for women's promotion in comparison to males in the criminal justice system (Nolasco & Vaughn, 2011). In general, the views espoused by the critics of women's efficacy are consistent with sexism, which derive from stereotypical views of gendered behaviors that place men as rational, aggressive, and risky and women as nurturing, expressive, and self-subordinating (Firestone et al., 2012). Using multivariate statistical analysis of two Department of Defense sexual harassment surveys (2002 and 2006), Firestone et al. (2012) determined that male-dominated professions, focused on stereotypically masculine traits, develop a culture of environmental harassment that may contribute to systematic negative attitudes toward women. The current system of corrections was designed around stereotypically masculine values of toughness and physical strength, which may devalue stereotypically female characteristics, such as family values and compassion, and inhibit women's ability to be seen as successful in the male-dominated corrections workforce (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011).

Although barriers to entry exist, more women are entering the correctional workforce; as of 2007, women made up 37% of adult correctional personnel and 51% of juvenile corrections personnel, compared to 12% in 1969 (Cheeseman, 2013). The women who chose corrections as a profession were more likely to view their role in corrections as a social service than men, who think of the corrections profession as managing criminals, according to quantitative analysis of more than 900 survey responses from correctional workers in Minnesota (Hussemann & Page, 2011). Researchers conducted studies in relation to female correctional personnel's attitudes toward imprisonment, occupational hazards, and opportunities for promotion (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011; Hogan et al., 2013; Matthews et al., 2010; Wyse, 2013).

Women and Attitudes Toward Imprisonment

In early research regarding women in corrections, Jurik (1985) proposed that increasing the diversity of the correctional workforce could prompt systemic, progressive reforms to imprisonment. Some scholars continue to propose that women, specifically correctional administrators, are more likely to support rehabilitation efforts and transformation of prisoners (Hussemann & Page, 2011).

Contrary to gender stereotypes and the findings related to women's potential progressive actions in corrections (Hussemann & Page, 2011), Wyse (2013) noted that women were just as likely as men to hold gendered assumptions about offenders and to make stereotypical assumptions about offenders' motivations that influenced behavior and ultimate outcomes of treatment. Through a mixed methodology involving observational, interview, and case note data collected within the probation or parole

system of a western U.S. state, Wyse found that both men and women correctional workers behaved more harshly toward male offenders, who were perceived as flawed and underdeveloped. On the other hand, female offenders were viewed as more malleable and typically influenced by relationships, such as that with children or partners (Wyse, 2013). Though these gendered assumptions are not positive for either gender of correctional worker, these findings do suggest that men and women hold similar viewpoints and attitudes regarding prison, which contradicted research suggesting fundamental differences in imprisonment attitudes (Hussemann & Page, 2011).

As researchers dispelled the assumptions that women could not excel in corrections and even encouraged their entry, researchers demonstrated that women in the profession do establish particular behavior and seem to exhibit similar behaviors in corrections (Bierie, 2012; Gordon et al., 2013). Early findings from Lambert et al.'s (2007) quantitative analysis of 272 survey responses conducted in 2000 demonstrated that women perceived: (a) less danger on the job and job role ambiguity; (b) more input in decision-making processes and support from supervisors; and (c) higher levels of job satisfaction in the correctional environment when compared with their male coworkers. However, Lambert et al. (2007) noted that for the most part (that is, on 19 out of the 21 indices of job beliefs measured in the study), men and women were relatively equal in their beliefs and perceptions. Other researchers found that female officers display less use of force than their male colleagues in similar decision-making processes, though women exhibit more aggressive behaviors when their authority has been challenged (Bierie, 2012; Chapman, 2009). Based on these findings, the basic perceptions of women and

men in corrections are similar, but more granular examination may result in a clearer depiction of gender differences.

In an attempt to examine the assumption that women were more progressive in corrections, Husseman and Page (2011) polled 911 male and female correctional officers in multiple facilities in Minnesota and found that this assumption was upheld based on self-reporting measures. Women were more likely to view prisons as rehabilitative in nature and to anticipate prisoners to change than men were—an attitude present from the beginning of men and women’s tenures in corrections (Husseman & Page, 2011). However, during their careers, both male and female officers became more punitive in their job roles and were less likely to assume that prisoners could or would change, and those officers employed in minimum security facilities were more likely to be optimistic about prisoner change than those officers employed in facilities with heightened security (Husseman & Page, 2011). Husseman and Page noted that the pronounced effects of job experience on progressive behavior were more of a consideration than the gender differences, as men and women’s perspectives became more or less the same as years of experience accrued.

Women and Occupational Hazards

Regarding occupational hazards, researchers since Lambert et al.’s (2007) findings suggested that female correctional officers report significantly more job stress than male officers do, including heightened perceptions of occupational danger, increased conflicts between work life and home life, and higher levels of contact with inmates (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Dial et al., 2010; Triplett, Mullings, & Scarborough,

1999). Cheeseman and Downey (2011), Dial, Downey, and Goodlin (2010), and Lambert, Hogan, et al. (2010) found that gender had a significant effect on the levels of job stress, with females reporting more stress than males. In early correctional literature, perceptions of occupational danger were correlated with job stress (Triplett et al., 1999). Female correctional officers reported less job stress and more job satisfaction when they felt that leadership supported them (Lambert, Hogan, et al., 2010).

To determine whether a gendered model of job stressors could be created, Lambert, Altheimer, and Hogan (2010) studied survey data from 160 employees in a Midwestern correctional setting and determined that, to a certain extent, men and women responded differently to the correctional work environment. Women showed more responsiveness to work-family conflict—both work inhibiting family relationships and family inhibiting work relationships—than did men, specifically reporting increased job stress and decreased job satisfaction when work and family conflicted (Lambert, Altheimer, et al., 2010). Moreover, women reported that this kind of conflict also inhibited organizational commitment, whereas it had no effects for men; men reported that role conflict and ambiguity, work overload, and job danger had more effects on work stress (Lambert, Altheimer, et al., 2010). Lambert, Altheimer, et al. (2010) proposed that this conflict may result from gendered expectations of males to demonstrate “masculine” toughness.

Gordon et al. (2013) also highlighted the increased fear and risk of victimization among women in corrections. Among the sample of 1,273 correctional officers in multiple facilities, women were more likely to fear attacks by inmates, fear attacks by

other officers, be attacked by other officers, and experience retaliation for reporting victimization by other officers (Gordon et al., 2013). Gordon et al. noted that the heightened perception of risk and fear for women in corrections may stem from the officers' perceptions of a lacking awareness of self-protection, in part because of the tenuous relationship of women in the profession. Matthews et al. (2010) found in a qualitative examination of women in corrections that half of the sample experienced sexual harassment on the job weekly or even daily. Increasing women's sense of belonging within the correctional workforce through social integration may reduce perceptions of danger, an institutional responsibility left largely in the hands of correctional leaders (Gordon et al., 2013). This increased sense of belonging may also assist in providing more opportunities for women to advance within the profession.

Women and Opportunities for Advancement

Because of the hypermasculine culture of corrections and gender bias, particularly in institutions with higher security, correctional leadership may view women as less effective or capable than their male counterparts (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). As a result, women may potentially lose opportunities for advancement in their career. Examining women's opportunities for advancement, Matthews et al. (2010) conducted a qualitative examination of a theoretically derived sample of 14 women in different positions in corrections to explore their perceptions of their career trajectories. Of the 14 women, Matthews et al. found that all of the women reported that promotions were important to them; 10 women had been promoted at least once into a higher position, whereas the four who had not been promoted saw promotional opportunities in their

futures. After the initial promotion, five out of the 10 women who had been promoted were unsure or did not expect further promotions (Matthews et al., 2010). Moreover, 12 out of the 14 women had perceived injustice in promotional standards for women when compared with men. Matthews et al.'s findings seemed consistent with the glass ceiling effect (Baxter & Wright, 2000), but also suggested that women may internalize the feelings of not belonging and give up on trying for promotions. The seeming inability for women to break through the glass ceiling may also result from the particular demands of and lack of knowledge about correctional leadership, as reviewed in the next section.

Current State of Correctional Leadership

Correctional administrators are the employees of a prison in charge of supervision and maintenance of multiple demands; without qualified correctional administrators, such facilities cannot be effective (Cerrato, 2014). The literature related to correctional leadership remains limited despite the importance of the role in maintaining order within the corrections system. Cerrato (2014) determined that correctional administrators should be hired selectively because of the extent that their qualifications can affect the long-term stability of a prison and systemic positive change in the system. The roles of correctional leaders vary, but include managing relationships between correctional officers, including managing elevated job stress and demands; maintaining order and safety for inmates and correctional officers; and implementing changes within the system to improve organizational outcomes (Bierie, 2012; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). Currently, correctional leadership is largely left to prison wardens who have to oversee the safety

and security of the prison as well as any budget, human resources, facility, and inmate issues (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013).

The state of correctional leadership is troubled, considering that Hogan et al. (2013) found that job tenure correlated with lower levels of affective organizational commitment, personal identification with leadership and the organization. Hogan et al. conducted quantitative analysis of 272 surveys of correctional staff employed in a maximum-security facility to determine the relationship between organizational commitment and personal characteristics, job stress, job involvement, and job satisfaction. Job stress, job involvement, and job satisfaction all demonstrated a relationship with organizational commitment (Hogan et al., 2013). Results also demonstrated that race and position affected normative commitment to the organization (Hogan et al., 2013). As is common with similar studies, these researchers failed to note differences between employees at different levels in the organization.

Because correctional staff felt less normative organizational commitment, Hogan et al. (2013) proposed that current correctional leadership has not focused appropriately on fostering organizational commitment, which can mitigate issues experienced by correctional staff, including job stress. Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) noted that correctional leaders also have multiple roles, which may lead to heightened job stress. Long-term, occupational stress felt by correctional leaders, such as wardens, could have a significant effect on the overall functioning of the correctional facility because of the leaders' failure to successfully complete essential job roles (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013).

Roles of Correctional Leaders

The role of correctional leadership is not only to ensure safety and security within prisons, but also to manage interactions between correctional officers and between correctional officers and inmates (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Gordon et al., 2013). One of the essential roles of a correctional administrator is to determine the appropriate use of discretionary force in interactions between correctional officers and inmates (Bierie, 2012). Moreover, correctional leaders must maintain safety within the prison, for both other correctional staff and for the inmates (Cook & Lane, 2012). Another task of correctional leadership is implementing change and incorporating institutional goals in everyday practice (Cerrato, 2014). Additional duties include administrative and human resources issues, such as managing employee stress and burnout (Finney et al., 2013; Garland et al., 2012). Because of the often tumultuous corrections environment, effective correctional leadership is paramount in maintaining a stable workforce and organizational outcomes (Hogan et al., 2013; Lambert, Hogan, et al., 2010).

Correctional Leadership Efficacy and Training

Correctional leaders have a significant effect on the correctional setting (Cerrato, 2014; Finney et al., 2013; Garland et al., 2012; Lambert, Hogan, et al., 2010). In a surveyed sample of 2,106 line-level jail personnel from 46 states, Stinchcomb and Leip (2013) found that organizational factors, as encouraged by effective correctional leadership, had more effect on job satisfaction in employees than did personal factors. To have beneficial outcomes, correctional leaders must be efficacious, which researchers have examined in the context of experience, behaviors, and leadership styles (Atkin-

Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011; Dial et al., 2010; Finney et al., 2013; Griffin et al., 2013; Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). Training may assist in developing effective behaviors in correctional leaders (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013).

Correctional Leadership Efficacy

Experience. To assess the state of correctional leadership, Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) solicited responses from prison wardens involved in a correctional student-mentoring program. Surveys were distributed to the sample, and 103 wardens at 29 state-run institutions responded. Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong conducted quantitative analysis of the survey data and noted that the extensive demands on correctional leaders frequently cause high levels of occupational stress; as a result, successful prison leaders need to have stress management skills as well as interpersonal skills.

Additionally, Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) determined that particular background factors may affect the ability of a person to be promoted, depending on the needs of the facility. For example, the researchers cited a warden's treatment background resulted in experience with implementation of rehabilitative programming and evidence-based practices; conversely, a background in security resulted in experience with ensuring institutional safety. Thus, these background experiences would lead to different people being hired depending on what the prison required, irrespective of gender. In the sample under study, Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong determined prison wardens who had custodial roles were less stressed than those who had no prior correctional officer experience, though those who had both correctional and treatment backgrounds were the least stressed population.

Cheeseman and Downey (2011) and Dial et al. (2010) also determined that experience on the job could potentially act as a mitigating factor on the elevated job stress experienced in correctional environments. Cheeseman and Downey utilized job experience as a potential explanatory factor to their correlational analysis of 471 survey responses from correctional staff in a Southwestern prison system. Though Cheeseman and Downey determined that the generation one is born into can have a significant relationship with job satisfaction and therefore reduced job stress, the data could be attributed to increased job experience by that generation. Dial et al. (2010) utilized the same survey responses as Cheeseman and Downey (2011) to observe the relationship between work stress and generation. Dial et al. noted that a significant relationship existed between Generation X workers and decreased job stress, which the researchers noted could be a result of increased work experiences within this older population.

On the other hand, Griffin et al. (2013) found that correctional officers ($N = 2621$) in a Southwestern correctional facility were more likely to leave corrections because of safety concerns and occupational hazards after 4 years of experience in corrections, based on their responses to a Quality of Work Life survey. Hussemann and Page (2011) found that over time, correctional workers became more hardened toward prisoners and less likely to believe in rehabilitation or prisoners' abilities to change. However, Dial et al. (2010) proposed that the effect could also be because of generational values among older employees in the correctional system.

Background and experience may assist in making a leader more experienced (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011; Dial et al., 2010). However,

women may not have the opportunity to attain this type of background based on the increased turnover intent early in their careers and bias within the field (Matthews et al., 2010). Other factors that may increase correctional leaders' efficacy are their personal behaviors and traits.

Traits and behaviors. Finney et al. (2013) noted that communication within and between correctional supervisors and correctional officers was a skill necessary for effective leadership. Correctional officers noted that supportive correctional leaders encourage effective work habits, take pride in correctional officers' accomplishments, have high self-esteem, and maintain professional working relationships with their followers (Finney et al., 2013). Stinchcomb and Leip (2013) noted that communication of relational support, through maintaining a sense of humor or focusing on employees' families, could also improve a correctional leader's effectiveness. According to Garland et al. (2012), instrumental communication, or transferring knowledge about relevant organizational matters and vital information regarding job duties, was also an essential component of increasing productivity in the correctional workplace. An effective correctional leader would therefore possess exemplary communication skills (Garland et al., 2012).

Effective correctional leaders must also foster organizational commitment through their behaviors (Griffin et al., 2013; Hogan et al., 2013; Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). Stinchcomb and Leip (2013) surveyed 2,106 line-level jail personnel from 46 states and conducted logistic regression analysis on the results to determine factors related to global job satisfaction. Stinchcomb and Leip observed that although personal variables did not

have statistically significant relationships with job satisfaction, organization factors, including a positive work environment, empowerment or autonomy, and perceived fairness of compensation and treatment, did relate to job satisfaction significantly. However, the dataset was not randomized, because of the lack of availability of a registry for these employees. Moreover, I did not examine the leaders' role in developing organizational factors in this study.

Similarly, examining the factors that contributed to job stress among correctional officers, Garland et al. (2012) determined that correctional leaders who were effective in job role stress clarified correctional officers' appropriate roles and responsibilities, created a supportive atmosphere, and fostered employee agency whenever possible. To obtain the data, Garland et al. distributed a stress survey to 260 staff in a private Midwestern prison and analyzed data utilizing multivariate ordinary least squares regression analysis, resulting in five statistically significant predictors of job role stress: instrumental communication, supervisory support, formalization, job autonomy, and race. The researchers found that supervisory support, in particular, worked as a buffer for job stress by initiating organizational loyalty and intrinsic value for job roles among correctional officers (Garland et al., 2012; Lambert, Hogan, et al., 2010). Moreover, in analysis of survey responses from 272 correctional staff in a maximum security prison, Hogan et al. (2013) determined that organizational commitment may happen reciprocally. Therefore, correctional officers will follow leaders who support their decisions more loyally than leaders who do not foster trust within the workplace.

Additionally, organizational trust may assist in reducing job stress and increasing job satisfaction among followers (Lambert, Hogan, et al., 2010). Responding to the controversy of whether or not women had different responses to working in prisons, as supported by the importation model of prison work, Lambert, Hogan, et al. (2010) analyzed survey results from 160 correctional staff at a Midwestern prison to determine whether results supported the work role-prisonization model or the importation-differential experiences model. The data suggested that men and women responded similarly to supervisory support, and that the work-role model, wherein the organization affected the attitudes held by men and women, had more support than did the importation model (Lambert, Hogan, et al., 2010).

An additional correctional leadership trait that has demonstrated use in improving correctional environments is fostering job autonomy and agency (Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). Within the first year of employment in corrections, opportunities for mentoring and organizational support have been demonstrated to have the most efficacies for encouraging employees to continue in the correctional workforce, and afterwards, correctional employees appreciated being allowed more freedom, according to survey data collected from a sample of 2,621 correctional officers in a Southwestern facility (Griffin et al., 2013). Garland et al. (2012) determined that job autonomy had a significant effect on reducing job stress in corrections, though the researchers considered integrating these practices into leadership practices a potential issue.

Transformational leadership traits and behaviors may assist in fostering correctional leaders' efficacy (Garland et al., 2012; Griffin et al., 2013; Lambert, Hogan,

et al., 2010). Creating job autonomy and agency, communicating, and developing organizational commitment are the tenets of transformational leadership style (Bass, 1985), which may suggest its use in correctional environments.

Leadership style. Finney et al. (2013) maintained that conscientious choice of leadership style had significant organizational outcomes for employees and inconsistent leadership or leadership perceived as unfair led to increased job stress among correctional officers. Specifically, researchers discovered that unclear goals, a lack of agency, unsupportive leadership behavior, and unfair work environments, as consistent with passive avoidant or transactional leadership styles, had negative effects for correctional officers (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Finney et al., 2013). Conversely, researchers have demonstrated organizational commitment and job autonomy, promoted in transformational leadership style, as positively affecting organizational outcomes in corrections (Finney et al., 2013; Garland et al., 2012; Griffin et al., 2013; Hogan et al., 2013). In a geographically diverse sample of 103 prison wardens, Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) determined that warden's perceptions of embodying transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, had a significant relationship with decreased job stress.

Leadership style therefore may assist in maintaining efficacious correctional leaders. Brown and May (2012) suggested that leadership styles could be fostered through training. Similar to other aspects of correctional leadership, the literature regarding training for correctional leaders is limited, particularly training which may develop leadership traits.

Correctional Leadership Training

Correctional leaders can be promoted from either a correctional officer background or a clinical background, depending on the needs of the facility (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). Leadership training is provided to prepare new correctional leaders for the demands of their jobs and to increase skills of current correctional leaders (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). Garland et al. (2012) proposed that training was an essential component of improving organizational outcomes, specifically managing interpersonal relationships. Despite the importance of leadership behaviors in correctional leadership, training for wardens typically consists primarily of preparation for ensuring the prison's functioning, rather than examining professional development or leadership training (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). Although not tested in corrections, transformational leadership training has demonstrated efficacy (Brown & May, 2012).

Garland et al. (2012) cautioned that training must be developed contextually based on specific environmental factors of the workplace. Gordon et al. (2013) suggested diversity training for correctional leaders may increase correctional administrators' knowledge of the value of a diverse correctional staff. Because of increased perception of fear and risk on the job for female correctional officers and minorities, Gordon et al. noted that administrators should understand the benefits of having a diverse staff to better communicate the value to correctional officers and boost officers' self-efficacy. Furthermore, Matthews et al. (2010) noted that more training opportunities should be provided for women to encourage their promotional opportunities and decrease extant stereotyping within the correctional field.

Women's Efficacy in Correctional Leadership

Previous researchers have noted that women experience barriers to promotion and supervisory positions in corrections, where stereotypically masculine traits are valued (Britton, 2003; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). Moreover, according to an analysis of sexual harassment surveys distributed within the Department of Defense, when women or minorities are promoted, coworkers are more likely to perceive that promotion was based on unfair criteria, such as sexual misconduct or reverse discrimination (Firestone et al., 2012). As a result, women in corrections who hope to be promoted may be underreporting issues, such as sexual harassment, which contributes to a cycle of discomfort in the workplace and reduces opportunities for women to succeed (Matthews et al., 2010). Cheeseman (2013) stated that gendering in the correctional field could result in negative perceptions about female correctional officers' abilities to be promoted, despite the positive effects women have demonstrated on the correctional field, paralleling Eagly and Carli's (2003) assertion that females may experience excessive discrimination in traditionally masculine workforces, such as corrections.

Conversely, recent speculation exists regarding whether women in correctional administration are more prone to progressive leadership behaviors, especially related to inmate rehabilitation, which may stymie a perceived required prison reformation (Cerrato, 2014; Hussemann & Page, 2011). Of the data surveyed for this literature review, no studies were found that pertained specifically to leadership styles of females in correctional leadership. However, certain factors from the literature may translate based on the general timbre of the requirements of correctional leaders, what research exists

regarding women in corrections, and what information is available about women's behaviors and leadership roles. Although relying on gendered expectations may be troubling based on the seeming underwriting of gender biased expectations of women, the widespread conformity to gender rules and empirical observations of the different behaviors exhibited by males and females in corrections may result in furthering women's presence as correctional leaders (Eagly & Carli, 2003). The positive traits that may extrapolate to success in correctional leadership for women can be categorized as job satisfaction and management, human resources management, and inmate and safety management.

Job Satisfaction and Management

In a survey of prison wardens, Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) found no correlation between gender and additional job stress, despite earlier findings suggesting increased stress for female correctional officers (Dial et al., 2010; Triplett et al., 1999). Alternatively, Cheeseman and Downey (2014) and Dial et al. (2010) reported that female officers experienced more job stress, which was significant and negatively correlated to job satisfaction. The conflicted findings on job stress and female correctional officers warrant further investigation, as no researchers have examined how female correctional administrators handle job stress. Experience with initial increased job stress could translate to improved strategies for managing stress, which is an essential trait for correctional leaders (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011; Dial et al., 2010). Lambert et al. (2007) noted that with the increased job satisfaction determined in the study of men and women in a sample of 420 staff at a Midwestern, high security state prison, a female

warden who set a tone of rehabilitation and fairness may have contributed to the increased job satisfaction of female officers.

Human Resources Management

Communication may be one area where women demonstrate an advantage in correctional leadership, as Eagly and Carli (2003) noted that because of gendered expectations, female leaders are more likely to foster a communicative style. Bierie (2012) determined that gendered expectation of females to communicate and interpret various social cues led to transfer of these skills into the behavior of women in corrections. Researchers highlighted communication as a key component of effective changes in correctional environments in a discussion of initiating cultural changes in the prison system to prevent sexual violence (Cook & Lane, 2012) as well as in a meta-analysis of the literature surrounding job stress among correctional officers (Finney et al., 2013).

Frequent communication between leaders and followers also maintains organizational commitment, which researchers have determined a significant factor in preserving a stable workforce and managing worker stress in correctional facilities (Griffin et al., 2013). Specifically, traditional gendered expectations of cooperation in female leaders may help to foster affective commitment, where individuals demonstrate loyalty to the organization, internalize organizational goals, and maintain personal pride in organizational outcomes (Griffin et al., 2013). The follower behaviors are consistent with those encouraged by transformational leadership style, so women who received professional development to develop these skills may increase self-efficacy,

organizational outcomes, and correctional workforce simultaneously (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Gordon et al., 2013; Lent, 2002). These behaviors may also assist with inmate management.

Inmate Management

Inmate management, specifically developing correctional officers' protocol in responding to inmates, is a key role for correctional administrators (Bierie, 2012). Hussemann and Page (2011) noted that gendered views toward justice, namely retributive-masculine justice as opposed to relational-feminine justice, may carry stigma within the correctional field, but the reformation to a less adversarial system may be necessary to prompt correctional reform (Cerrato, 2014). Additionally, Lambert et al. (2007) noted that in prisons, inmates tend to hold an informal code of chivalry, wherein men treat female staff more politely than male staff. If fostered by female correctional administrators, this general attitude may help to decrease adversarial relationships between staff and inmates and lead to better outcomes. Alternatively, the chivalrous attitudes may perpetuate the idea that women are weak and unfit to be leaders.

Moreover, women may be more likely to assess situations less punitively than males (Lambert et al., 2007). In survey data from 2,077 staff in 112 federal prisons, women correctional officers demonstrated the tendency to assess fewer minor assault events than their male counterparts did, although women assessed the same number of serious violent events within the same prisons (Bierie, 2012). These findings present a significant advantage because of the primary role of correctional leadership to determine appropriate and inappropriate use of discretionary force (Bierie, 2012). Adversarial

relationships among correctional officers and inmates can lead to decreased cooperation among correctional officers and lessen the stability and safety of facilities (Gordon et al., 2013). In general, women are more likely to enter corrections with an initial intent to rehabilitate prisoners, whereas men enter the field for a stable job and to increase the safety of prisons for the outside world (Lambert et al., 2007). Hussemann and Page (2011) noted that this initial dedication to reform may decrease with work experience, which could limit the usefulness of the initial optimistic outlook in prompting systemic reform.

In survey results from a sample of 376 correctional officers from 13 jails in Florida, Cook and Lane (2012) found that female correctional officers were more likely to assign credibility and less likely to blame victims of sexual assault in correctional settings. Cook and Lane examined reactions to specific vignettes and asked officers to respond to specific questions intended to assess attitudes towards sexual assault, with results indicating that women were more likely to demonstrate concern and compassion for the victim. As inmate safety maintains importance as a role of a correctional leader, and since prisoner sexual violence is of significant concern in maintaining the safety of the population, the more responsive reaction of female correctional officers is more likely to be effective in initiating systemic reform to reduce the incidents of violence (Cook & Lane, 2012). However, as previously noted, not enough research on women in correctional leadership positions is available to determine whether the presence of these traits in correctional officers translates into leadership behaviors.

Deficiency in the Data Regarding Women in Correctional Leadership

The literature regarding the correctional workplace has focused on the unique experience of working in the correctional environment primarily from the viewpoint of correctional officers (Hogan et al., 2013). When researchers examined other positions, they frequently analyzed data together without noting differences among positions (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011; Gordon et al., 2013; Hogan et al., 2013). Still, a quantitative analysis of experiences stratified by position is not available in the literature.

Despite the distinctive demands that corrections places on leadership, few researchers have focused on correctional leaders of either gender (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Hemmens et al., 2002). However, researchers in the current literature found that female correctional officers experienced more conflict regarding the dangers of working in corrections and appeared troubled by their lack of opportunities for job promotion (Matthews et al., 2010; Triplett et al., 1999), and found that female corrections workers may exhibit different attitudes toward their jobs (Bierie, 2012; Dial et al., 2010; Gordon et al., 2013). Gordon et al. (2013) demonstrated that women felt more susceptible to violence and victimization from prisoners and coworkers, but Griffin et al. (2013) proposed that job experience could mitigate the perceived lack of safety through encouraging coping strategies. No researchers have examined how women in correctional leadership positions have translated increased experience and leadership behaviors into successful correctional careers, although Lambert, Hogan, et al. (2010) noted that gender was an avenue for further exploration in the correctional leadership literature.

Furthermore, the literature regarding training for leadership behavior in correctional settings is sparse, despite the important role correctional administrators play in the overall functioning (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). The behavior espoused in transformational leadership style would seem to benefit the correctional workforce, including communication, organizational commitment, and fostering job autonomy (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). The effect may be particularly felt regarding affective organizational commitment, which has demonstrated mitigating effects on job stress and increased job satisfaction (Hogan et al., 2013; Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). Brown and May (2012) proposed that short term, intensive training programs could promote the development of transformational leadership behavior. Moreover, some researchers suggested that women are more likely to embrace transformational or participative leadership styles (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Matthews et al., 2010).

Despite the positive effects that leadership training and professional development have demonstrated for organizational outcomes, few programs are in place for leaders to increase leadership and professional skills (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013). Therefore, no researchers have examined training as a factor in effective correctional leadership. More research is needed regarding leadership training in corrections to demonstrate its effects and encourage facilities to offer more opportunities for development. For instance, it is clear that women are potentially discriminated against in workplace promotions based on the masculine culture of corrections, but training that accounts for this kind of organizational culture could potentially improve opportunities for women (Garland et al.,

2012). Before such programs are developed, future researchers need to ascertain the current state of women in correctional leadership positions and how training has affected the positions women hold.

Summary

Chapter 2 focused on highlighting the gap in literature regarding women in correctional leadership and the factors that have contributed to creating the issue within the correctional field. Women have had a long and troubled experience within the correctional workforce because of gender bias and a hypermasculine workplace environment (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). Because of this troubled past, women have experienced undue barriers to promotion to leadership positions (Gordon et al., 2013). While the perceptions of women's inability to be successful in corrections is damaging to their likelihood to pursue leadership positions (Lent, 2002), women may have particular leadership traits, including a transformational leadership style, that could have significant positive effects on organizational outcomes within the stressful, difficult correctional field, especially if provided appropriate training opportunities (Eagly & Carli, 2013). To address the gap in literature, I examined the relationship between transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases and the position held by women through the present quantitative correlational study. *Chapter 3* details the methodology for the study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

Through this quantitative, cross-sectional, correlational survey study, I sought to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases and the position held by women in corrections. I sought to determine the relationships between the three variables and how they affected the positions that women held. In this chapter, I discuss the rationale for the research design, the population studied, and the procedures used for the recruitment of the sample. I examine the instruments used in the study and extract the variables that came from the instruments operationalized. I also reviewed the data collection and coding procedures as well as the analyses used to address the research questions. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the ethical considerations provided the participants.

Research Design and Rationale

The study followed a quantitative, cross-sectional, correlational survey design. The goal was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases and the position held by women in corrections. According to Creswell (2009), a quantitative approach is selected instead of a qualitative approach when findings should be generalized to the overall population. Additionally, Creswell noted that the goal of the quantitative approach is to establish the “which” or “what” in terms of relationships instead of establishing the “why.” I selected the survey design because of the administration of combined questionnaires for measuring transformational leadership, leadership training, traditional gender biases, and position. A

cross-sectional design aided in the collection of data at one point in time. I analyzed the data, using SPSS statistical software to generate the variables of interest. The variables were then entered into a binary logistic regression to assess the strength of the predictive relationship. The study involved a quantitative, cross-sectional, correlational survey design to combine the elements described.

I considered but did not choose other research designs. A qualitative method was not used because the goal was not to establish why the relationships occurred, but to establish if statistical relationships existed. Thus, a qualitative method would not have been ideal. Other quantitative designs were considered, such as a longitudinal study or an experimental study. However, the purpose of the study was to establish relationships between variables that are a reflection of participants at only one point in time. No treatment or intervention to use existed that would suggest an experimental study. Thus, a correlational study was the most appropriate research design. I obtained Walden IRB approval and the approval number is 12-02-15-0069871.

Target Population and Sampling Procedures

I sought to target women who work in corrections. Only those women who are part of the NABCJ and the FRPA were included in the study. The NABCJ (2012) is a nonprofit organization created in 1974 by leaders dedicated to improving the administration of criminal justice. The goal of NABCJ is to achieve equal justice for Blacks and other minorities. The membership consists of criminal justice professionals, law enforcement, courts, institutional and community corrections, as well as academia and other community-based interests (NABCJ, 2012). The NABCJ contains

approximately 2,200 members, with more than half being women. Of the approximately 1,000 women in the organization, around 30% held supervisory or management positions (D. Burwell, personal communication, February 20, 2015), suggesting a potential sample size of approximately 300 members if all eligible individuals participated.

Retired members of the Federal Bureau of Prisons initially established the FPRA (2015) in 1963; it was not officially chartered until 1973. The purpose of the organization was to keep connections with retired staff members. The organization has since developed into a forum for retired staff of the Federal Bureau of Prisons to share ideas, encourage information-sharing, create a support system for retirees and their families, and promote a positive public image of corrections (FPRA, 2015). The organization has approximately 375 members. Since the association does not request the position held upon retirement, the percentage of female supervisors and managers could not be determined (FPRA, 2015).

This study involved a simple random sample of the women who specifically work or worked in corrections. Using a simple random sample, all possible participants within the study population (NABCJ and FPRA) had an equal opportunity of taking part in the study (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). Data collection occurred through an electronic survey created via SurveyMonkey.

The participant recruitment procedures were different for NABCJ and FPRA. For NABCJ, the electronic survey used in the study was sent to a NABCJ representative. To ensure that participants' rights to privacy were not infringed, the link to the electronic survey was provided to a NABCJ representative who then sent the link via e-mail to the

target population of women within NABCJ. I did not have direct access to participant contact information and all data remained anonymous (see Appendix B).

Approval to use e-mail addresses was not required for FPRA participants. The e-mails were manually collected using a 2012 FPRA directory. This was the most current directory obtained from the FPRA. The FPRA discontinued using e-mail addresses after 2012; therefore, I used the 2012 directory and 94 women listed in the directory received an e-mail with the link to SurveyMonkey.

I conducted a power analysis in G*Power to assess the required sample size. *Power* refers to the ability to find significance in a sample when it actually exists in the population. The conventional level of power for research studies is .80, which is an 80% likelihood that significance is found in the sample (Cohen, 1988). The alpha level is used to determine the *p* value, which determines significance. By convention, the alpha level of .05 was used, which is a 5% chance that a Type I error occurs (significance is determined in the sample when it does not exist in the population). Effect size is the degree of the relationship between the variables. I chose a moderate effect size by convention for the analysis, which suggests that the relationship should be apparent when visibly examined (Cohen, 1988). With an alpha level of .05, power of .80, and moderate effect size, the required sample size to find significance within a binary logistic regression was at least 70 participants. Therefore, a minimum of 70 participants was needed to find significance and generalize the findings to the larger population.

Instrumentation

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

In this study, I used the MLQ created by Bass and Avolio (2004) to measure transformational leadership. The construct of transformational leadership encompasses the elements of charisma, motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration questions. While the MLQ measures transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive avoidant leadership, I only studied transformational leadership. The MLQ is comprised of 45 statements that ask the participant to reflect on their demonstration of leadership within the organization (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Participant responses to each of the questions ranged from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently, if not always*). The survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete. Researchers have previously established strong evidence for validity with the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 2004). In addition, thousands of research programs, master's theses, and doctoral dissertations have involved the use of the MLQ. Reliability for the instrument has ranged from moderate ($\alpha > .70$) to good ($\alpha > .80$).

Traditional Gender Biases

To measure traditional gender biases, I used the perceived discrimination scale (Schmitt et al., 2002). The scale used was the condensed version made to be workplace-specific. The researchers originally showed the scale to have good internal reliability with an alpha value of .83. Cornejo (2007) reported that the reliability was as high as .96 for the workplace-specific form. In a workplace environment, the scale was utilized, and it was determined that overall and action-to-result motivation were negatively related to

gender discrimination (Cornejo, 2007). I chose this questionnaire because of its measurement of workplace gender biases as an overall scale, which could not be found in alternative questionnaires.

In addition to these two questionnaires, the final questionnaire included a demographic survey portion. The demographic survey included age and education. Additionally, the survey asked whether or not the participants had leadership training and what current position they were in. For current position, the participants answered whether they had a job role that was a leadership position (supervisor, management, or executive) or non-leadership.

The NABCJ representative was sent the link to SurveyMonkey to distribute the SurveyMonkey link to the selected participants. The members of the FPRA was sent an email through SurveyMonkey requesting their participation in the survey.

Operationalization of Variables

The MLQ measured transformational leadership. In total, 20 total questions deal with transformational leadership, divided into five different subscales. The subscales are idealized influence (attributes), idealized influence (behaviors), individual consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation. Each of these subscales was generated by an average of survey items. Idealized influence (attributes) were measured by the average of Questions 10, 18, 21, and 25, while Questions 6, 14, 23, and 34 measured idealized influence (behaviors). Questions 15, 19, 29, and 31 measured individual consideration. Questions 2, 8, 30, and 32 measured intellectual stimulation, and Questions 9, 13, 26, and 36 measured inspirational motivation. All the questions

ranged in responses from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently, it not always*). I took the average of all of these questions to measure transformational leadership. The variable was considered an interval measurement.

Leadership training was measured by a single variable in the demographic portion of the survey. Participants specified whether or not they had received leadership training. Responses were coded as 0 (*no*) and 1 (*yes*). I measured traditional gender biases by the perceived discrimination scale. The perceived discrimination scale is comprised of eight questions ranging in responses from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The eight questions were averaged together to create a single traditional gender biases score.

I measured job role by a single variable on the demographic portion of the survey. Participants specified whether they had a leadership type role (supervisor, manager, or executive) or nonleadership type role. Responses were coded as 0 (*nonleadership*) or 1 (*leadership*).

Data Analysis Procedures

I entered collected data into the SPSS software package to help analyze the data and generate statistics. Descriptive statistics were generated on the demographic and research variables collected. I conducted frequencies and percentages on nominal variables and conducted means and standard deviations for interval and scale variables. The following section presents the analysis used to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: To what extent is transformational leadership related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H_{01} : Transformational leadership is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_{a1} : Transformational leadership is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

RQ2: To what extent is leadership training related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H_{02} : Leadership training is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_{a2} : Leadership training is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

RQ3: To what extent is traditional gender bias related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H_{03} : Traditional gender bias is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_{a3} : Traditional gender bias is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

To examine the three research questions and hypotheses, I conducted a binary logistic regression to assess if transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender bias predicted the job role of women in correctional professions. A binary logistic regression is the appropriate analysis to conduct when the goal is to assess the relationship between a set of independent variables and a single dichotomous dependent variable, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2012). In the regression model,

the independent variables were transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender bias. Transformational leadership and traditional gender bias were interval level variables. Leadership training was a dichotomous variable. The dichotomous dependent variable was job role.

Prior to analysis, the assumption of adequate sample size should be met. The logistic regression required at least 10 participants, one for both job roles (leadership vs. non-leadership) to conduct the test. This was different from the sample size calculated from the power analysis. The power analysis required 70 participants to generalize the results, while the logistic regression as an analysis required at least 10 participants for each job role to conduct the test. I assessed the overall chi square statistic for the model for significance to determine if the model adequately predicted job role. If the overall model showed statistical significance, then I assessed the individual predictors for significance. The odds ratio for each significant predictor was examined, which presented the likelihood that job role increased the leadership predictor variable.

Threats to Validity

The validity of the current study was also threatened by the possibility of participant attrition. It was possible that participants might drop out of the study before fully completing the questionnaires, leading to missing data for those individuals. Another potential problem lied in participants failing to provide truthful or accurate responses to questionnaires. To overcome these threats, I attempted to recruit more participants than necessary to achieve sufficient power and preemptively compensate for any participants who dropped out after beginning the study. Furthermore, participants

were encouraged to think about all questionnaire items carefully and to respond as accurately as possible to ensure that participant responses were truthful. Additionally, participants were assured that all responses were confidential, and that their responses were de-identified to ensure confidentiality was maintained.

Ethical Considerations

To take part in the electronic survey, all participants consented to participate. Participants received a description of the study, the nature of the study, and the confidentiality of the study. I did not collect any personally identifiable information within the survey. Any electronic identification information, such as an IP address, was removed from the data immediately. Every participant received the option of leaving the survey when they chose to do so. Participants had no obligation to take part in or complete the survey. No incentives were given to the participants. I have kept all data on a personal computer in a password-protected file. I obtained Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval prior to data collection.

Summary

Chapter 3 presented the research design used to address the problem and purpose of the study. I also discussed the population and sample of interest. *Chapter 3* presented the procedures for data collection, including the instruments used and the operationalization of the variables of interest. The chapter included a discussion of the data analysis procedures and concluded with the ethical considerations given to each of the participants. *Chapter 4* includes the analysis of the data collected and the results of the logistic regression conducted.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases and the position held by women in corrections. The intent of the study was to determine whether these three variables affect the position that women hold. I examined the experiences of women in corrections who had been potentially affected by gender bias while in pursuit of a senior management position.

The study followed a quantitative, cross-sectional, correlational research design. This chapter presents the statistical findings from the data collection process. The chapter opens with a pre-analysis data screen to examine for partial or incomplete responses. I used descriptive statistics to examine the trends in the nominal and continuous level variables. To address the research questions, I proposed a multinomial logistic regression model to assess if transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender bias predict the job position of women in correctional professions. The following section includes the three research questions of the present study.

RQ1: To what extent is transformational leadership related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H_01 : Transformational leadership is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_a1 : Transformational leadership is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

RQ2: To what extent is leadership training related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H₀2: Leadership training is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_a2: Leadership training is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

RQ3: To what extent is traditional gender bias related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H₀3: Traditional gender bias is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_a3: Traditional gender bias is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

Data Collection

Pre-Analysis Data Cleaning

I selected the survey participants through two correctional organizations: The NABCJ and the FPRA. Women were selected based on their position in the organization. Only women who held supervisory positions and above were targeted as potential participants. Data collection occurred through an electronic survey created on SurveyMonkey. The electronic survey used in the study was sent by an NABCJ representative to the participants the representative selected that met the survey criteria. The FPRA participants were selected using a 2012 FPRA member directory.

Prior to conducting inferential analysis, I examined the data for missing cases. A total of 73 participants took the survey; however, two cases were excluded from the sample because of nonresponses on several survey items. One respondent was removed for not responding to a majority of the survey items for transformational leadership, one of the key independent variables in the study. One participant was removed for not responding to the job level survey item, the dependent variable in the study. Thus, final analyses included a sample of 71 participants.

Descriptive Statistics

Frequencies and percentages of nominal variables. A total of 71 women in correctional positions completed the survey process. The survey consisted of a range of questions that included education, age, years employed, job position, and leadership training; however, race and ethnicity were not included in the survey. Most participants were in the age group 50–59 ($n = 29, 40.8\%$), followed by the age group 40–49 ($n = 21, 29.6\%$). Educational status was approximately evenly distributed between associate's degrees ($n = 19, 26.8\%$), bachelor's degrees ($n = 23, 32.4\%$), and graduate degrees ($n = 23, 32.4\%$). Participants were approximately evenly split between being a retiree from corrections (state, federal or municipal; $n = 29, 40.8\%$) and not being a retiree ($n = 35, 49.3\%$). Many participants had not experienced leadership training before assuming their supervisory position ($n = 35, 49.3\%$). Participants were approximately evenly divided between current job positions: senior management ($n = 27, 38.0\%$), management ($n = 18, 25.4\%$), and supervisory ($n = 26, 36.6\%$). Table 1 presents the frequencies and percentages for the sample characteristics.

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages for Sample Characteristics

Variable	<i>N</i>	%
Age		
30–39	15	21.1
40–49	21	29.6
50–59	29	40.8
60 or older	6	8.5
Educational status		
Some college but no degree	6	8.5
Associate’s degree	19	26.8
Bachelor’s degree	23	32.4
Graduate degree	23	32.4
Are you a retiree from corrections (state, federal or municipal)		
Yes	29	40.8
No	35	49.3
No response	7	9.9
Leadership training before assuming supervisory position		
Yes	29	40.8
No	35	49.3
No response	7	9.9
Current position or job level		
Senior management	27	38.0
Management	18	25.4
Supervisory	26	36.6

This study reflected that 64.8% of the participants had a bachelor’s or graduate degree. It is evident that women working in the correctional workforce have become more equal since 1969, when women represented 12% of the correctional workforce; in 2007, women represented 37% in adult corrections and 51% in juvenile corrections respectively (Cheeseman, 2013).

Means and standard deviations of individual survey items. The average scores for a majority of the responses on the individual survey items for transformational leadership and traditional gender bias fell on the higher spectrum of the Likert scales. This suggests that participants generally agreed with the corresponding statements within both scales. Tables 2 and 3 present the descriptive statistics for each survey item composing transformational leadership and traditional gender bias.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Individual Items for Transformational Leadership

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	2.90	0.80
I talk about my most important values and beliefs.	3.00	0.93
I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.	2.94	0.78
I talk optimistically about the future	3.26	0.65
In instill pride in others for being associated with me	3.14	0.82
I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	3.35	0.66
I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	3.42	0.53
I spend time teaching and coaching	3.48	0.58
I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	3.32	0.60
I treat others as individuals rather than just a member of the group.	3.41	0.52
I act in ways that builds others' respect for me.	3.41	0.49
I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	3.31	0.73
I display a sense of power and confidence.	3.26	0.66
I articulate a compelling vision of the future	3.44	0.58
I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.	3.31	0.67
I get others to look at my problems from many different angles.	3.25	0.53
I help others to develop their strengths	3.44	0.53
I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	3.41	0.58
I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	3.38	0.52
I express confidence that goals will be achieved.	3.44	0.53

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Individual Items for Traditional Gender Bias

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Men in general have opportunities at this organization that I do not have.	4.00	0.86
There are privileges that men have at this organization that I do not have.	4.11	0.77
At this organization men have received some advantages due to their gender.	4.20	0.75
Good things have happened to men at this organization because of their gender.	4.14	0.76
Men have received preferential treatment at this organization because of their gender.	4.06	0.75
I have been the victim of gender discrimination at this organization.	4.16	0.89
I have to work harder than men at this organization to get the same level of recognition.	4.37	0.70
At this organization, my suggestions or ideas are often ignored because of my gender.	3.96	0.93

Means and standard deviations of continuous variables. I took an average of the 20 items from the transformational leadership scale, which created the corresponding variable. I also calculated an average of the eight items of the perceived discrimination scale, which created traditional gender bias. Transformational leadership scores ranged from 2.50 to 4.00, with $M = 3.29$ and $SD = 0.42$. The average scores suggest that participants “fairly often” displayed the traits for transformational leadership. Traditional gender bias scores ranged from 1.75 to 5.00, with $M = 4.12$ and $SD = 0.67$. The average scores suggest that participants generally “agreed” with the items for traditional gender bias. Table 4 presents descriptive statistics of the continuous variables. Figures 1 and 2 present bar charts for the distribution of transformational leadership and traditional gender bias scores. By visual inspection of the frequency charts, a majority of the sample scored higher than 3.00 for the transformational leadership scores and higher than 4.00

for traditional gender bias, suggesting that participants were generally agreeable with the corresponding survey items making up the scales.

Table 4

Range, Mean, and Standard Deviation of Transformational Leadership and Traditional Gender Bias

Variable	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Transformational Leadership	2.50	4.00	3.29	0.42
Traditional Gender Bias	1.75	5.00	4.12	0.67

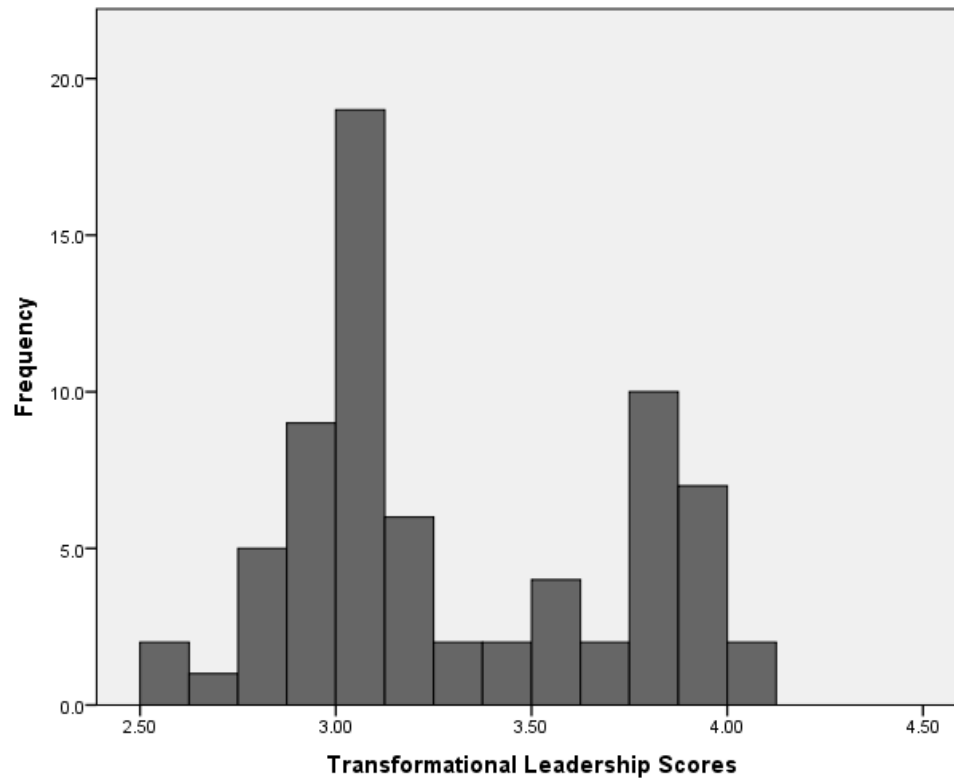


Figure 1. Bar chart for transformational leadership scores.

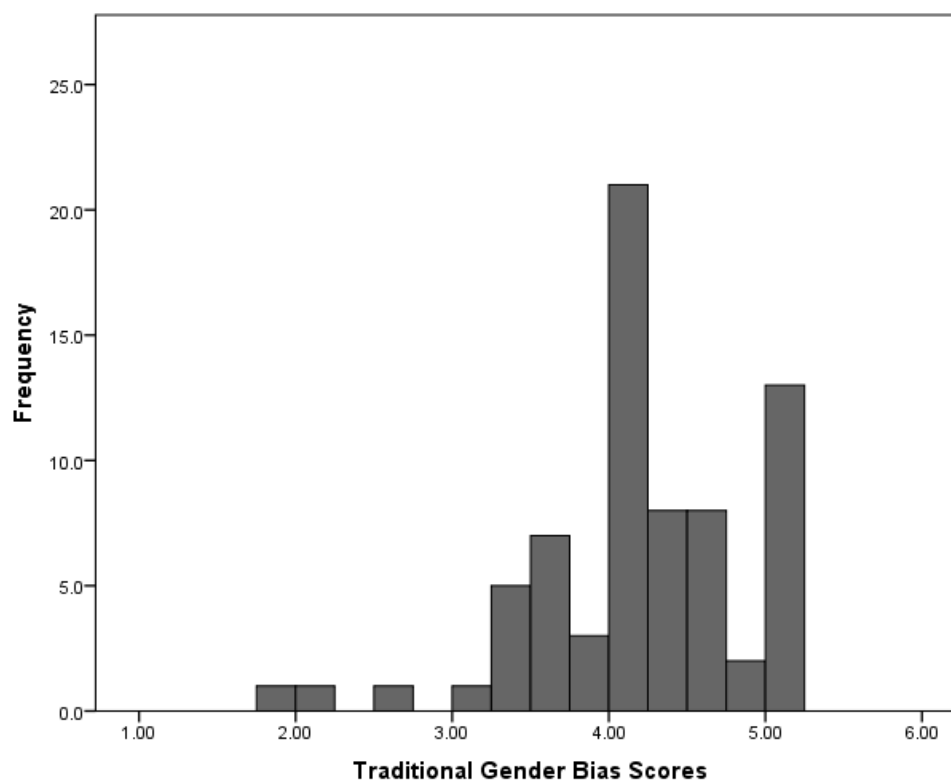


Figure 2. Bar chart for traditional gender bias scores.

Reliability Analysis

I examined the inter-item reliability for each set of subscale items by use of Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha provides the mean correlation (reliability coefficient) between each pair of items in a scale and the corresponding number of items within the scale (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2012). Reliability coefficients of .7 or higher indicate acceptable inter-item reliability (George & Mallery, 2016). The reliability coefficients for transformational leadership ($\alpha = .931$) and traditional gender bias ($\alpha = .940$) were both higher than .9, indicating excellent inter-item reliability for both measures. The high reliability for both scales suggests consistency in the responses and it

appears that the corresponding items are accurately measuring a single construct. Table 5 presents the findings of the Cronbach's alpha coefficients.

Table 5

Cronbach's Alpha for Transformational Leadership and Traditional Gender Bias

Variable	No. of Items	α
Transformational Leadership	20	.931
Traditional Gender Bias	8	.940

Results

Multinomial Logistic Regression

RQ1: To what extent is transformational leadership related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H_01 : Transformational leadership is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_{a1} : Transformational leadership is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

RQ2: To what extent is leadership training related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H_02 : Leadership training is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_{a2} : Leadership training is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

RQ3: To what extent is traditional gender bias related to job position for women in corrections professions?

H₀₃: Traditional gender bias is not related to job position for women in corrections professions.

H_{a3}: Traditional gender bias is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

In order to address the research questions, I conducted a multinomial logistic regression equation to assess the predictive relationship between transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender bias on job position (supervisor, manager, or executive). The dependent variable, job position, was originally intended to have a dichotomous option on the survey corresponding to leadership and nonleadership. For the purposes of the research, the survey item received a more specific coding scheme with three potential options: supervisor, manager, or executive. Because of the dichotomous response no longer being utilized, I conducted a multinomial logistic regression using the nominal, three-category variable.

A multinomial logistic regression was appropriate to use because the categorical outcome variable, job position, has three categories: supervisor, manager, or executive (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender bias served as the independent variables to predict job position. For the dependent variable, supervisory position was the reference category for the regression analysis. Results of the multinomial logistic regression were significant in the overall model, $\chi^2(6) = 38.04$, $p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .468$, suggesting that a collective

predictive relationship existed between transformational leadership, leadership training, traditional gender bias, and job position. The predictor variables accounted for approximately 46.8% of the variation in job position.

Transformational leadership, Wald (1) = 11.60, $p = .001$, was a significant predictor of job position (senior management vs. supervisory). For every one-unit increase in transformational leadership scores, participants were 22.07 times more likely to be in senior management positions versus supervisory positions. No other significant predictors existed in the model. Because of significance of the transformational leadership predictor, the null hypothesis (H_01) for Research Question 1 was rejected, suggesting that transformational leadership is related to job position for women in corrections professions. The null hypotheses for Research Questions 2 (H_02) and 3 (H_03) were not rejected, suggesting that traditional gender bias and leadership training are not related to position for women in corrections professions. Table 6 presents the parameter estimates of the multinomial logistic regression model.

Table 6

Multinomial Logistic Regression for Transformational Leadership, Leadership Training, and Traditional Gender Bias Predicting Job Position

Group	Predictor	<i>B</i>	SE	Wald(1)	<i>p</i>	OR
Senior management	Transformational Leadership	3.10	0.91	11.60	.001	22.07
	Leadership Training	1.44	0.78	3.41	.065	4.20
	Traditional Gender Bias	-1.02	0.60	2.93	.087	0.36
Management	Transformational Leadership	-0.46	1.00	0.21	.643	0.63
	Leadership Training	-0.08	0.88	0.01	.929	0.93
	Traditional Gender Bias	-1.11	0.60	3.46	.063	0.33

Note. Reference category: Supervisory; Overall Model: $\chi^2(6) = 38.04$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .468$.

Ancillary Analysis

I conducted a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) as an ancillary analysis to examine for potential differences in transformational leadership and traditional gender bias between job positions. A MANOVA is an appropriate statistical analysis when assessing for differences in multiple continuous dependent variables between groups (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The continuous dependent variables in this analysis corresponded to transformational leadership and traditional gender bias. The independent grouping variable in this analysis corresponded to job position (senior management, management, and supervisory).

The results of the analysis showed that the participants in senior management positions scored significantly higher in transformational leadership scores in comparison to participants in management and supervisory positions. In addition, the results indicated that significant differences existed in traditional gender bias by job position. Senior managers had lower traditional gender bias scores than participants in supervisor positions. The scores of senior managers may be indicative of more experienced staff who have developed the competency to move beyond the glass ceiling by applying their knowledge, skills, and abilities to effectively maneuver through work issues.

The lower traditional gender bias scores by senior managers may suggest that women with more experience working in corrections may have mastered the ability to work through and around issues viewed as bias. These women may have learned effective strategies from years of experience to compensate for bias in the workplace.

Assumptions of a MANOVA

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the MANOVA. Normality of the continuous dependent variables was assessed with Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) tests. I used Box's M to test the homogeneity of covariance assumption. The analysis also involved use of Levene's test to assess the homogeneity of variance assumption.

Normality assumption. The results of the KS test indicated statistical significance for transformational leadership ($p < .001$) and traditional gender bias ($p < .001$); therefore, the assumption was not met for these variables. Although the normality assumption was not met, the MANOVA is robust for stringent assumptions when the sample size is large ($n \geq 50$; Stevens, 2009).

Homogeneity of covariance assumption. I assessed homogeneity of covariance with Box's M test and the results of the test were not statistically significant at $\alpha = .001$ (Pallant, 2013); therefore, the assumption was met.

Homogeneity of variance assumption. I assessed homogeneity of variance with Levene's test and the results were not statistically significant for transformational leadership ($p = .307$) and traditional gender bias ($p = .949$); thus, the assumption was met for these variables.

Results of MANOVA. The results of the overall MANOVA were significant for job position, $F(4, 134) = 9.76, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .226$, suggesting that statistical differences existed by job position. The results of the individual ANOVA indicated significant differences in transformational leadership by job position, $F(2, 68) = 17.93, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .345$. Participants in senior management positions ($M = 3.60$) had

significantly higher transformational leadership scores in comparison to participants in management ($M = 3.08$) and supervisory positions ($M = 3.12$).

The results of the individual ANOVA indicated significant differences existed in traditional gender bias by job position, $F(2, 68) = 3.87, p = .026$, partial $\eta^2 = .102$.

Participants in senior management positions ($M = 3.92$) had significantly lower traditional gender bias scores in comparison to participants in supervisory positions ($M = 4.40$). Tables 7 and 8 present the findings of the overall MANOVA and individual ANOVAs. Table 9 presents the descriptive statistics of the variables between job positions.

Table 7

MANOVA for Transformational Leadership and Traditional Gender Bias between Job Positions

Source	Hypothesis df	Error df	F	p	η^2
Job position	4	134	9.76	<.001	.226

Table 8

ANOVAs for Transformational Leadership and Traditional Gender Bias between Job Positions

Source	Dependent Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
Job position	Transformational leadership	2	4.18	2.09	17.93	<.001	.345
	Traditional gender bias	2	3.23	1.62	3.87	.026	.102
Error	Transformational leadership	68	7.93	0.12			
	Traditional gender bias	68	28.41	0.42			
Total	Transformational leadership	71	781.97				
	Traditional gender bias	71	1239.31				

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations for Transformational Leadership and Traditional Gender Bias by Job Position

Continuous Variables	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Transformational leadership				
Senior management	2.95	4.00	3.60	0.35
Management	2.50	3.85	3.08	0.38
Supervisory	2.60	3.95	3.12	0.30
Traditional gender bias				
Senior management	2.63	5.00	3.92	0.59
Management	1.75	5.00	4.03	0.72
Supervisory	2.00	5.00	4.40	0.65

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine if transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases influence positions held by women in

correctional facilities. This chapter presented the findings of the data collection process. I conducted frequencies and percentages for the nominal variables of interest and descriptive statistics for the continuous variables of interest. The data analysis involved a reliability analysis on the scales of transformational leadership and traditional gender bias. Both scales met the threshold for acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .70$). I conducted a multinomial logistic regression to examine the research questions. The findings suggested that transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender bias collectively have a significant effect on predicting job position. However, only transformational leadership was significant as an individual predictor in the model. Because of significance of the transformational leadership predictor, the null hypothesis (H_01) for Research Question 1 was rejected, suggesting that transformational leadership is related to job position for women in corrections professions.

The null hypotheses for Research Questions 2 (H_02) and 3 (H_03) were not rejected, suggesting that traditional gender bias and leadership training are not related to job position for women in corrections professions. Results of a MANOVA indicated that significant differences existed in transformational leadership and traditional gender bias between the job positions.

Overall, I found that transformational leadership was a significant predictor of job position. For every one-unit increase in transformational leadership scores, participants were 22.07 times more likely to be in senior management positions than supervisory positions. For Research Questions 2 (H_02) and 3 (H_03), the null hypotheses were not rejected. Leadership training and traditional gender bias was not related to job position in

corrections. I did not factor race or ethnicity in the survey questions, which may have resulted in a different outcome as barriers to promotions. The following chapter further details the statistical findings. I outlined connections made back to the theoretical framework selected for the study and identified suggestions for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases and the position held by women in corrections. I focused on whether these three variables affected the job positions occupied by women within corrections and examined the gender biases that these women experienced while in the pursuit of senior management positions. This research was significant because few researchers have examined correctional leadership (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013), and because of the barriers previous researchers found that women faced in the correctional profession, including gender stereotyping and disparate perceptions of the correctional profession between the genders (Bierie, 2012; Dial et al., 2010; Gordon et al., 2013; Griffin et al., 2013; Matthews et al., 2010; Triplett et al., 1999).

The findings of this study suggest that a collective predictive relationship existed between transformational leadership, leadership training, traditional gender bias and job position, accounting for approximately 42.5% of variance in job position. Of the variables, only transformational leadership was independently significant in predicting job position. This chapter provides an interpretation of the findings by research question. Next, the chapter presents the limitations of the present study and recommendations for future researchers based on these limitations. Last, I provide implications of the findings for practice and conclude the study.

Interpretation of the Findings

This study involved the investigation of three research questions. The first research question served to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and job position for women in the corrections profession. The second research question served to examine the relationship between leadership training and job position for women in the corrections profession. The third research question served to examine the extent that traditional gender bias related to job position for women in the corrections profession. The following section includes the findings interpreted with relation to the previously published literature, organized by research question.

Research Question 1

Participants in senior management positions had significantly higher transformational leadership scores in comparison to participants in management and supervisory positions. Transformational leadership was a significant predictor of job position. For every one-unit increase in transformational leadership scores, participants were 22.07 times more likely to be in senior management positions than supervisory positions. Therefore, for Research Question 1, the null hypothesis was rejected.

The results related to this research question were consistent with the limited literature published on leadership style in corrections. Examining prison wardens in the United States, Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong (2013) determined that prison wardens' self-rating of transformational leadership on the MLQ was correlated with decreased job stress among correctional officers. The positive correlation between transformational

leadership and job stress, it seems, may result in women who embody transformational leadership receiving promotions.

The results were also consistent with some implications of correctional leadership literature. Kark et al. (2012) assessed that transformational leaders employed communal leadership behaviors. Researchers have variously supported such communal behaviors as effective in correctional leadership, including fostering community spirit (Finney et al., 2013), relational support (Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013), and organizational commitment (Griffin et al., 2013; Hogan et al., 2013; Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). Additional traits and behavior consistent with transformational leadership styles identified in the research literature include the possession of high self-esteem (Finney et al., 2013) and the fostering of job autonomy and agency (Finney et al., 2013; Garland et al., 2012; Griffin et al., 2013; Hogan et al., 2013; Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). Thus, without specifically addressing transformational leadership, much of the research on correctional leadership highlighted the efficacy of transformational traits among correctional leaders, consistent with the present findings.

Finally, the results supported literature from the theoretical frameworks of gendered leadership theories. Transformational leadership, according to Eagly and Carli (2003) and Vinkenbunrg et al. (2011), adhered to traditionally female roles of mentoring, participating, collaborating, and communicating. Additionally, Elsesser and Lever (2011) asserted that female bosses were preferred based on stereotypically feminine qualities, such as caring and compassion, consistent with transformational leadership qualities (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Stereotypical views of women, as held by the participants in this

study, could therefore increase the perceived efficacy of female transformational leaders in corrections. Additionally, the female transformational leaders may experience increased self-efficacy and career aspirations because of their ascription to traditional gender roles (Ngo et al., 2013). To extend these findings and verify whether the preference for transformational leadership is truly gender-based, further research is necessary among both male and female correctional leaders.

Alternatively, the female leaders in this sample could simply be effective transformational leaders, resulting in their promotion. Kark et al. (2012) assessed that women, based on expected gender roles and socialization, could display effective transformational leadership more so than males. Bierie (2012) noted that gendered behaviors, including communication and social interpretation, were both expected from and displayed by women in corrections. Transformational leadership could be a pathway for moving up the corporate ladder for women, as recommended by Vinkenburg et al. (2011). Women may also develop transformational traits in order to respond to and flourish in the correctional environment.

Research Question 2

For Research Question 2, the null hypothesis could not be rejected; in other words, training was not related to job position within this sample. This finding contradicted correctional leadership researchers, who cited the need for training among correctional leaders to foster effective leadership behaviors (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Matthews et al., 2010). Particularly, Matthews et al. (2010) cited the need for more

training opportunities for women to encourage their promotional opportunities and decrease extant stereotyping within the correctional field.

The findings related to this research question should be interpreted with caution. Many participants had not experienced leadership training before assuming their supervisory position ($n = 40, 66.7\%$), which was consistent with Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong's (2013) assessment of the lack of training for correctional leaders. Atkin-Plunk and Armstrong also determined that in their sample of prison wardens, training, when it occurred, consisted primarily of training in daily operations and functions rather than leadership training or professional development. Researchers have suggested that leadership training is effective in promoting leadership behaviors (Brown & May, 2012). If participants had more exposure to leadership training, then this training may have had more of an effect on leadership traits. As the participants had mostly not received leadership training, it is difficult to extrapolate their experiences as a reflection of the efficacy of leadership training on promoting job position.

Research Question 3

On average, participants agreed that gender bias existed in the correctional profession, but the ranking of gender bias did not relate to job position within this sample. This finding contradicted much of the literature published on women in correctional leadership. As in this study, Cheeseman and Downey (2011) highlighted the gender bias present in the correctional workforce, and multiple researchers noted that systemic bias existed for racial, age, and gender minorities in the correctional system (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Bierie, 2012; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). Contrary

to this study's findings, previous researchers averred that this tendency to value masculine traits in the corrections work culture led to barriers to promotion and supervisory positions (Britton, 2003; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). Moreover, disparate job experiences and chauvinism were reported to reduce opportunities for women's promotion into upper management, consistent with the glass ceiling effect (Hussemann & Page, 2011; Matthews et al., 2010; Warren et al., 2009). Women perceived their career growth was hindered by sexual harassment, balancing work and home responsibilities, and a general belief that men were more capable (Matthews et al., 2010). The findings of the present study therefore contradicted the body of literature regarding women's experiences in corrections.

The findings may also contradict assumptions about gender bias within the workplace. Eagly and Heilman (2008) addressed the influence of gender biases on women's promotion, finding that gender stereotypes limited leadership expectations of women and lessened the power of female leaders. Eagly and Carli (2003) and Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2014) noted that male-dominated industries were hostile to female leaders. For gender-dominant industries, such as corrections, Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2014) found that the traditional dominant gender was considered more effective than the nontraditional gender; for corrections, that would mean men would be more favored, since they make up a majority of the workforce (Cheeseman & Downey, 2011). This favoring would subsequently translate to job opportunities, including promotion.

However, as the women who responded to the survey were in management positions, the results may be consistent with the work role-prisonization model.

According to this model, the correctional work environment shapes employees beyond the effect of demographic variables, an effect that becomes more pronounced as the employee remains in the correctional profession (Van Voorhis et al., 1991). Women who attain leadership positions typically have significant job tenure, which, according to the work role-prisonization model, leads to the reduction of gender differences regarding the experience of gender bias in the correctional workforce (Garland et al., 2012). Therefore, the women who responded to this study may have less experience of gender bias than the women earlier in their correctional careers, such as correctional officers. This factor would explain the inconsistency between this study and previous research, since no previous study only addressed women in correctional leadership.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study are inherent to quantitative research. The opinions and experiences participants had as females working in correctional positions were not fully explored. This sample was collected from two professional correctional organizations and included only women in management positions in the correctional field. Of the respondents, only a third (33.3%) of the women had received leadership training prior to their leadership position, and the survey was limited in asking only whether or not this training was received, rather than examining this factor in-depth, or assessing the veracity of participant responses.

Thus, another limitation was that this study was completely based on self-report measures. The potential problem was that the participants failed to provide truthful or accurate responses to questionnaires. For example, participants may have viewed

themselves as exhibiting transformational leadership behaviors even when they were not doing so. Using the self-reporting method allowed for a simple approach to data collection, but the method also relied on the honesty and the introspective ability of participants.

The possibility of participant attrition also threatened the validity of the current study. Of the 73 participants taking the survey, only 71 surveys could be used for the study. No issues with ethical considerations existed. Each participant was required to read the purpose of the study and consent to the study before answering the survey questions.

Recommendations

Future researchers should further enhance the literature regarding female correctional administrators with additional studies on this population. The first opportunity for future research is in evaluating the longitudinal effectiveness of transformational leadership training for women early in their careers. This study revealed that transformational leadership was related to job position in correctional management, in that women who reported using transformational leadership achieved higher positions in corrections. As some researchers have noted that leadership styles can be improved through training (Brown & May, 2012), future researchers should consider either including women in correctional leadership with and without leadership training as inclusion criteria and comparing their job positions, or conducting a qualitative study to explore experiences with leadership training explicitly. Alternatively, researchers could provide leadership training to a group of women in corrections and track their progress compared to a control group in a longitudinal study.

Second, since this research focused on female correctional administrators, it would be valuable to conduct a study that investigates the relationship between female and male correctional administrators. According to the theoretical framework of this study, women may be expected to employ transformational leadership qualities, thereby making female transformational leaders more successful (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Kark et al., 2012). To extend these findings and verify whether the preference for transformational leadership is truly gender-based, further research is necessary among both male and female correctional leaders. Researchers could replicate the present study among the gender-varied group to assess whether differences emerged regarding the relationship between gender bias, leadership training, and leadership style and job position in corrections.

Additionally, future researchers should consider replicating the present study among different groups of women. A potential sample is women in corrections in general, since the women in leadership positions that comprised the present study may have created solutions to overcome the barriers represented by gender bias in the correctional workforce. I also recommend that this study be replicated using different demographic variables as potentially related to job position or leadership style among women. Other demographic variables that might be correlated with transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender bias include race and socioeconomic status.

An additional recommendation stems from the limitation of leadership style in the present study. Transformational leadership is only one form of leadership. Future

researchers could examine alternative leadership styles to see if transformational leadership is truly the leadership style with the most success in corrections. This recommended study may provide the literature an understanding of which leadership style is more successful in a correctional environment. Alternatively, researchers could conduct in-depth qualitative studies to explore in more depth the conditions or experiences that resulted in transformational behavior among leaders. Researchers could also explore the relationship between mentoring and transformational leadership to see whether transformational leadership traits of a mentor influenced the subsequent leadership behaviors of the mentee.

Finally, future researchers could address self-reporting bias by including perspectives of those managed by the female leaders. The MLQ can be administered to both the leader and to the follower, so that a more accurate depiction of participants' leadership styles emerges. Moreover, addressing gender bias and whether and how it affects followers' ratings of female leaders in corrections would align with research regarding gender bias in other workforces, as exemplified by Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2014) and Vinkenburg et al. (2011).

Implications

The findings of this study have implications for the theoretical framework, the field of corrections, and social change. First, regarding the theoretical framework, the results did not demonstrate that experiences of gender bias, alone, had a relationship with job position. This finding contradicted the theoretical and research assumption that gender bias, in and of itself, would bar women's participation in leadership in a male-

dominated field, as espoused by Eagly and Carly (2003), Eagly and Heilman (2008), and Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2014). Conversely, the results supported the work role-prisonization model (Van Voorhis et al., 1991), which implies that this model may be most appropriate for understanding female leaders in corrections. In other words, the results implied that women may strategize to overcome gender bias, though future researchers will need to investigate these strategies further as they were beyond the scope of the present study.

The findings also have implications for the field of corrections. Results from the descriptive statistics of the study indicated that high levels of gender bias existed in corrections, and that few female leaders received leadership training prior to entering leadership positions. These findings indicate that the correctional field may need to take steps to remedy gender bias. Though gender bias was not related to job position within this sample, the experience of gender bias may lead women early in their careers to leave the field of corrections based on poor experiences (Hussemann & Page, 2011; Matthews et al., 2010; Warren et al., 2009). These experiences included heightened perceptions of occupational danger, increased conflicts between work life and home life, and higher levels of contact with inmates (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Dial et al., 2010; Triplett et al., 1999).

The results implied that correctional leaders may need to invest additional resources toward providing leadership training. As indicated by the results, transformational leadership was related to job position among the female leaders in this sample. Though the correctional field currently faces a crisis regarding budget cuts

(Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013), investing in leadership could help to create a committed, stable correctional workforce (Hogan et al., 2013). Specifically, integrating training in transformational leadership could help female leaders to be more effective in their position, therefore translating to increased promotions and steps toward gender equality within corrections. Women who received professional leadership development targeted toward transformational leadership skills may increase self-efficacy, garner organizational outcomes, and receive promotions within the correctional workforce (Atkin-Plunk & Armstrong, 2013; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Gordon et al., 2013; Lent, 2002).

The findings further have implications for positive social change. Widespread issues exist in corrections, ranging from poor working conditions to poor treatment of inmates (Cerrato, 2014; Vickovic et al., 2014). High turnover and poor working conditions have led to unstable workforces and reduced organizational outcomes, which could be addressed through more effective leadership (Hogan et al., 2013; Lambert, Hogan et al., 2010). Scrutiny of the adversarial relationship between correctional officers and inmates and increased standards of care for prisoners has resulted in significant systemic reform (Cook & Lane, 2012), but strong leaders are required to maintain these changes. Some researchers pointed to the masculinist, aggressive culture as a potential driver of these systemic issues in corrections (Cerrato, 2014; Cheeseman & Downey, 2011; Dial et al., 2010).

By investigating barriers and contributors to women's success, the publication and dissemination of this study may therefore effect social change positively by potentially influencing policy makers and administrators to improve gender equality and

make strides towards effective change in corrections. Specifically, reviewing the study results may encourage correctional stakeholders to provide opportunities for women to gain transformational leadership skills. In turn, the encouragement may lead to their promotion and help to effect this change. The actions on the part of corrections stakeholders may also help those who are incarcerated, their families and friends, and advocates for social justice.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, leadership training, and traditional gender biases and the position held by women in corrections. This study suggests that the use of transformational leadership was related to job position among the female correctional leaders in the sample. Thus, it appears that women gain promotions by employing a transformational leadership style. Findings did not relate gender biases or leadership training to job position, although these results may require further investigation by future researchers because of their contradiction with the literature. The study could eventually be significant in helping policy makers provide a pathway for increased gender equality in correctional leadership through transformational leadership style. This finding could help current female correctional leaders, as well as aspiring correctional officers, in continuing to make inroads into the male-dominated correctional profession.

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Appendix A: Letter of Intent

January 12, 2015

The National Association of Blacks in Criminal Justice
P.O. Box 20011-C
Durham, NC 27707

Carlyle Holder, President

Thank you for the opportunity to submit my request to your organization. As an introduction, my name is Daisy Crockett, currently a PhD candidate at Walden University.

After 21 years of service, I retired from the Federal Bureau of Prisons as an Associate Warden in December 2009. Upon retirement, I began to further my education in academia by enrolling in a doctorate program. My ultimate goal is to teach and conduct research in the fields of corrections and public policy. Currently, I am in the process of developing a proposal to conduct research as a part of the requirement to graduate.

The title of my dissertation is "An examination of factors contributing to the effectiveness of female administrators in corrections". This topic was chosen due to the barriers that many women face while working in a field that has been dominated by their counterparts. The dissertation will focus on transformational leadership, leadership training and gender bias. I am trying to answer the following research questions (1) To what extent is transformational leadership related to job role for women in corrections professions (2) To what extent is leadership training related to job role for women in corrections professions; and (3) To what extent is traditional gender bias related to job role for women in corrections professions.

In order to conduct this research, I would like to survey women in management positions from the supervisory level and above. Since your organization has a dynamic and rich source of members, I need your assistance in gaining access to these women either by emailing the survey to your members or providing the names of the members so that I can electronically send the survey.

This limited examination, once completed and data collected will add to the body of knowledge in identifying and addressing barriers that inhibit advancement and retention for women in leadership roles in corrections and the relationships among demographic factors, leadership and training, and job trajectories for women in corrections.

As with all research conducted at an academic level, research protocols will be followed as outlined by the Walden University Institutional Review Board. Additionally, my dissertation supervisory committee will ensure that no harm results from women participating in the study. No personally identifiable information will be collected within the survey. Any electronic identification information, such as an IP address, will be removed from the data immediately.

Please let me know what procedures I should follow to gain access to supervisory level women in your organization. I believe that this research has significance for your organization and its members and hope you agree to work with me. I look forward to working with you and your organization. Please feel free to contact me at the following for any additional questions [REDACTED].

Sincerely,

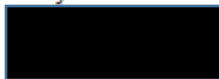
/s/

Daisy L. Crockett
PhD candidate

Appendix B: Letter of Approval

**National Association of Blacks in Criminal Justice****"Committed To Justice for All"**

June 8, 2015


Daisy Crockett


Dear Daisy,

Based on the review of your proposal, *An Examination of Factors Contributing to the Effectiveness of Female Administrators in Corrections*, your request to use NABCJ members to conduct your study has been approved. Approval is contingent on you agreeing to work with a NABCJ representative who will be responsible for forwarding the survey's web link to the email addresses of the members selected by NABCJ.

We look forward to working with you in the completion of your dissertation.

Sincerely,


National President

Appendix C: Perceived Discrimination Scale

Please select the most accurate response to each item. Your honest and thoughtful replies are appreciated. Your responses will remain confidential and will not be released to anyone.

1. Men in general have opportunities at this organization that I do not have.

Strongly		Neither Agree		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	nor Disagree	Agree	Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. There are privileges that men have at this organization that I do not have.

Strongly		Neither Agree		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	nor Disagree	Agree	Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. At this organization men have received some kinds of advantages due to their gender.

Strongly		Neither Agree		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	nor Disagree	Agree	Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Good things have happened to men at this organization because of their gender.

Strongly		Neither Agree		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	nor Disagree	Agree	Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. Men have received preferential treatment at this organization because of their gender.

Strongly		Neither Agree		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	nor Disagree	Agree	Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. I have been the victim of gender discrimination at this organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. I have to work harder than men at this organization to get the same level of recognition.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. At this organization, my suggestions or ideas are often ignored because of my gender.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix D: Letter of Permission from Mind Garden



www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her research:

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any published material.

Sincerely,

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