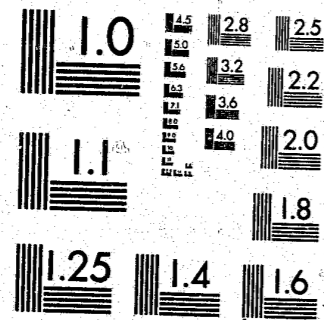


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FINAL REPORT

VOLUME I

THE RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF MINORITY  
CORRECTIONAL EMPLOYEES RESEARCH PROJECT

BY

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PERSONNEL PRACTICES RELATIVE TO  
THE RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF MINORITY CORRECTIONAL EMPLOYEES

BY

EUGENE BEARD

*Prepared under Grant Number 75-NI-99-0023 from the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice.*

*Points of view or opinions in this document are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the Department of Justice.*

## PREFACE

In the last quarter of 1974, the Institute for Urban Affairs and Research of Howard University was awarded a grant for the purpose of identifying and examining factors which attract and retain minority employees in the correctional component of the criminal justice system. The study concentrated on minorities in the following groups: current and former correctional employees, inmates, and professional occupations with an investment in corrections.

Minorities were chosen as the study's focus of concern because of their over-representation in the inmate population and under-representation in the employee population. Many theoreticians believe the racial imbalance between inmates and staff, and differences in values, life styles, expectation, etc. render inmate rehabilitation highly probabilistic.

This report, the first of three volumes on the recruitment and retention of minority correctional employees, examines the policies and practices of six state-operated prisons as they related to the recruitment, screening, selection, promotion and retention of minorities. The second report looks at the projected number of minorities expected to be in certain corrections-related occupations from 1975-1980. The third analyzes minority employees' attitudes and perceptions as a means for designing and implementing recruitment and retention strategies.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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A special note of thanks to Dr. Lawrence E. Gary, Institute for Urban Affairs and Research's principal-in-charge of the overall study.

The advice and counsel provided by the study's Advisory Committee was timely and helpful. The Committee included: Dr. Lee P. Brown, Director of Justice Services, Multnomah County Department of Justice, Portland, Oregon; Dr. Bennett Cooper, Deputy Director, Administration of Justice and Community Development, Culumbus, Ohio; Mr. John Flores, Director of Equal Opportunity Office, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah; Mr. Frank Jasmine, Assistant Director, Pretrial Intervention Center, Washington, D.C.; Dr. Ellis C. MacDougall, Associate

Dean of Criminal Justice, University of South Carolina,  
Columbia, South Carolina; and Mr. Eddie Harrison, Director,  
Baltimore Pretrial Intervention Project, Baltimore, Maryland.

Special thanks go to Mr. Lawrence Greenfeld, LEAA's  
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officer, for their understanding and guidance.

As is customary, the above named persons are absolved  
from any responsibility for errors and omissions in the study.  
These are reserved for the author.

Eugene Beard, Ph.D.  
Project Director

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
PREFACE . . . . .	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS . . . . .	iv
LISTING OF TABLES . . . . .	v
I. STUDY PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY . . . . .	1
A. Methodology . . . . .	1
B. Results . . . . .	2
C. Limitations . . . . .	2
II. THE CURRENT LEVEL OF BLACK EMPLOYMENT . . . . .	4
III. RECRUITMENT . . . . .	8
IV. SCREENING AND SELECTION . . . . .	15
A. General Educational Requirements . . . . .	15
B. Written Tests . . . . .	16
C. Oral Tests and Interviews . . . . .	17
D. Consideration of Applicants with Criminal Records . . . . .	18
E. Background Investigation . . . . .	21
F. Physical and Health Requirements . . . . .	22
G. Other Requirements . . . . .	22
H. Selection Preference . . . . .	23
I. Selection Procedures . . . . .	25
V. EMPLOYEE RETENTION AND ADVANCEMENT . . . . .	28
A. Employee Turnover and Retention . . . . .	28
B. Probationary Periods . . . . .	31
C. Performance Appraisals . . . . .	32
D. Promotion . . . . .	34
E. Retention and Advancement Needs . . . . .	36
VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . . . .	38
A. Conclusions . . . . .	38
B. Recommendations . . . . .	39

LISTING OF TABLES

	Page
1 Present Level of Black Employment in Selected State Correctional Systems, 1974. . . . .	5
2 Comparison of Percent of Black Correctional Employees and Percent of Blacks in State Populations. . . . .	7
3 General Recruitment Practices . . . . .	9
4 Special Minority Recruitment Practices. . . . .	10
5 Entrance Level Salaries for Correctional Officers in Selected State Correctional Systems, 1974 . . . . .	14
6 Tolerance of Arrest and Conviction Records on Personnel Recruitment in Selected States* . . . . .	19
7 Non Work Related Eligibility Requirements . . . . .	24
8 Devices Used in Ranking Candidates in Preparation for Selection . . . . .	26
9 Employee Turnover in Selected State Correctional Institutions, 1974* . . . . .	29
10 Possible Uses of the Personnel Performance Appraisals in Selected State Correctional Systems in 1974. . . . .	33
11 Promotional Standards for Correctional Officers in Selected State Correctional Systems in 1974 . . . . .	35

I. STUDY PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

## I. STUDY PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

This study -- part of a larger study of minority employment and recruitment in selected state correctional systems -- was designed to examine the personnel policies and practices of these selected state correctional systems as they relate to the recruitment, screening, selection, promotion, and retention of minorities. Specifically, the study attempted to determine the extent to which these policies and practices facilitate affirmative action and promote equal employment opportunity. In addition, the study considered the relevance and potential of the Standards and Goals of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice for helping to accomplish equal employment opportunity in correctional facilities across the nation.

### A. Methodology

The larger study, of which this effort is a part, involves a survey and related research concerning minority recruitment and retention in state-operated correctional institutions, including an analysis of present conditions and projections into the future. Purposive sampling for the survey resulted in the selection of seven correctional facilities located in California, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, New Jersey, and Ohio. An attempt was made to include each of the four census regions to make the sample representative if not provide generalizability.

This study's sample consisted of the Director of Personnel for the State Department of Corrections in each of the six

states in which the previously mentioned correctional facilities are located. A mail questionnaire was used to request information concerning personnel policies and practices affecting minorities, with focus on recruitment, screening, and selection of correctional officers, as well as retention rates and personnel evaluation and promotion policies. The questionnaire was modeled after the one developed by Eisenberg, Kent and Wall in Police Personnel Practices in State and Local Governments.<sup>1</sup>

(A copy of the questionnaire is included in the Appendix.) Completed questionnaires were received from the Personnel Directors in four states: California, Michigan, Mississippi and Ohio.

### B. Results

Results of the survey are presented in the following sections, which contain findings and implications related to:

- Level of Black Employment,
- Recruitment,
- Screening and Selection,
- Retention and Advancement.

In addition, conclusions and recommendations based on survey findings are presented.

### C. Limitations

The data presented in this report are in one sense incomplete. Time-series employment data -- needed for evaluating the progress made by correctional system affirmative action efforts, as well as for determining the need for particular

<sup>1</sup>Eisenberg, Terry; Kent, Deborah Ann; and Will, Charles R., Police Personnel Practices in State and Local Government. Washington, D.C. The Police Foundation, 1973.

kinds of affirmative action programs and emphases -- were largely unavailable. Although responding Personnel Directors reportedly spent an average of 8.5 hours in preparing their responses to the survey questionnaires, specific statistics on past and present minority recruitment, screening, employment, retention, and promotion experiences were largely unavailable.\* This lack of data constrains not only this study but also the efforts of correctional systems to improve minority employment levels by making difficult or impossible a realistic assessment of the existing situation.

Because of data limitations, the minority employment statistics presented in this report are for Black employees only; information was not obtained concerning other minority groups.

\*Only one state, Mississippi, indicated the existence of a regular report of this kind of information.

## II. THE CURRENT LEVEL OF BLACK EMPLOYMENT

II. THE CURRENT LEVEL OF BLACK EMPLOYMENT

The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals called for concerted action to increase the level of minority employment in corrections.

In addition, the Commission proposed other standards related to issues which have been or will be subject to litigation. For example, one group of standards address issues related to the development of policies and procedures pertaining to the rights of individuals under the supervision of corrections to have access to the courts. A second set of standards focus on the conditions of correctional facilities and identifies the prisoner's rights to freedom from personal abuse and non-discriminatory treatment. A third set of standards apply to discretionary power which correctional institutions have over the offender. And, yet another set of standards center on the offender's first amendment rights of freedom of speech and association. The last set of standards look at the issue of equitable sentencing practices.

Table 1 shows the number and percent of Black employees within the four selected state correctional systems in 1974. The percentage of Black correctional personnel ranged from 8.6 percent in Ohio to 29.0 percent in Mississippi. It should be stressed that information was not obtained about the employment levels of Black personnel; thus it is not possible to discuss the relative salary rates of Black and white employees or the

Table 1

Present Level of Black Employment in Selected State Correctional Systems, 1974

BLACK EMPLOYMENT	STATE			
	California	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi
<u>Black Males</u>				
Number	1,386	237	185	160
Percent of Total Employees	16.8	8.7	5.3	29.0
<u>Black Females</u>				
Number	384	61	117	9
Percent of Total Employees	4.7	2.2	3.3	.02
<u>All Blacks</u>				
Number	1,770	298	302	169
Percent of Total Employees	21.5	10.9	8.6	29.0



extent to which Blacks hold supervisory or professional positions. Nationally, Blacks are about 11.4 percent of the American population; they constitute 47 percent of the inmate population. In two of the four states surveyed, the percentage of Black employees in the correctional system was less than their percentage in the American population. Table 2 compares the percentage of Black correctional personnel with the percentage of Black residents of the four states, using 1973 population estimates. The table shows that in three of the four states, Blacks are underrepresented in corrections as compared with their population in the state; only in California is this not the case. Moreover, in none of the four states is the percent of Black correctional employees as high as the percent of Black inmates.

The underrepresentation of Blacks as correctional employees may be due to a combination of many factors, including:

- Lack of support for the Standards and Goals or other affirmative action efforts and equal employment opportunity goals at some or all levels of the correctional systems;
- Lack of effective affirmative action programs and personnel policies and practices to improve employment and retention of minorities;
- Present effects of past discrimination which continue to complicate efforts to achieve equal employment opportunity;
- Working conditions or other job factors which discourage minorities from desiring or seeking employment in these state correctional systems.

Some of the personnel policies and practices which may serve to encourage or discourage minority employment and retention in the selected state correctional systems are described and assessed in the following sections.

Table 2

Comparison of Percent of Black Correctional Employees and Percent of Blacks in State Populations

PERCENT	STATE			
	California	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi
Percent of Black Correctional Employees	21.5	10.9	8.6	29.0
Percent of Blacks in State*	7.5	13.7	9.4	36.0

\*1973 population estimate, U.S. Bureau of the Census.

### III. RECRUITMENT

### III. RECRUITMENT

If correctional systems hope to attract qualified minorities, they must make a special effort to overcome the present effects of past discrimination through active recruitment programs. What are these present effects of past discriminatory practices? They include a lack of role models for minorities among correctional employees; minorities are likely to have few family members, friends, or neighbors who work in corrections. Therefore, few minority group members are likely to hear of job openings by word-of-mouth or other informal recruitment methods. Moreover, because employment in corrections has not been readily accessible to minorities in the past, minority job seekers are likely to ignore correctional job opportunities unless special efforts are undertaken not only to announce available positions but also to stress affirmative action goals.

Both public and private employees concerned with attracting minority job applicants have been discovering in recent years that successful recruitment efforts must be directed towards minority audiences, not just the general community. As indicated in Table 3, the recruitment practices reported by three state correctional systems focus on general audiences, and lack emphasis on reaching minorities specifically. However, the three states do have some special recruitment practices designed to reach minorities. Table 4 indicates these special efforts,

Table 3

General Recruitment Practices

PRACTICES	California	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi
1. Continuous announcements of exams	Yes	Yes	Yes	
2. Period between exams less than 4 weeks	Yes	No	Yes	
3. Want ads in local newspapers	Yes	Yes	Yes	
4. Special posters in public places	Yes	No	Yes	
5. Spot announcements on radio or TV	Yes	No	Yes	
6. Asking referrals from public employment services	Yes	No	Yes	
7. Asking referrals from labor/union organizations	No	No	Yes	
8. Asking referrals from political organizations	No	No	Yes	
9. Asking referrals from police employees	No	No	No	
10. Asking referrals from community organizations	Yes	Yes	Yes	
11. Recruiting at schools or other educational institutions	Yes	Yes	Yes	
12. Recruiting at Army separation Center	Yes	No	Yes	
13. Using Operation Police Manpower Transition Programs	No	No	No	
14. Using mobile vans or similar devices	No	No	No	
15. Other	No	No	No	

\*Mississippi did not respond to this question because it was not doing any recruitment; the State reported a large number of applications were on file.

Table 4

Special Minority Recruitment Practices

	California	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi*
Special integrated recruiting teams	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Special trips to schools/colleges with large minority enrollments	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Visits to community centers	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Use of graduates of operation Police Manpower Transition Program	No	No	No	
Use of storefront centers in inner cities	No	No	No	
Advertisements in community-oriented news media	Yes	No	Yes	
Information officers after hours and on weekends for pre-examination counseling and training	Yes	No	Yes	
Using different selection procedures/standards	No	Yes**	No	

\* No recruitment being done at present.

\*\* "Late exams"

which include, in all three states, special integrated recruiting teams, trips to schools with large minority enrollments, and visits to community centers in minority communities. Two states, California and Ohio, also advertise for personnel in community-oriented news media, and make information officers available in the evenings and on weekends for counseling and pre-examination training in test-taking strategies. This can help minority applicants qualify for correctional jobs and also provide them with a realistic view of work in a correctional system. Michigan also waives the rule that employment tests be taken only at prescribed times.

None of the states surveyed reported minority recruitment approaches such as the use of storefront centers or mobile vans, or use of the graduates of the Operation Police Manpower Transition Program in recruiting.

The states surveyed generally have not been successful in recruiting enough minority applicants to meet affirmative action goals. The lack of success is probably due partly to inadequate minority recruitment efforts. For example, the systems might be more successful in attracting minority applicants if they:

- Involved neighborhood leaders and more community organizations in their recruitment efforts,
- Directed their short-term recruitment efforts at groups over 21, since the three states which are carrying out recruitment have a minimum age of 21 for correctional officers. This makes Career Day or other high school recruitment useful only as a long-term effort to interest youth in careers in corrections,

- Strengthened and expanded special orientation and test-simulation and preparation activities, since minorities and others from low-income backgrounds tend to be relatively ineffective test-takers,
- Provided special orientation and training to recruiters, to make them sensitive to minority concerns and familiarize them with approaches which other agencies have found to be efficient in reaching minorities.

It is likely that factors other than recruitment efforts also affect the success of these efforts. For example, because minorities did not until recently have access to most jobs in corrections, correctional careers were not seriously considered by most young minority group members. While correctional systems may now welcome minorities, the present effects of past discrimination may include:

- A lack of widespread awareness of the range of job opportunities in corrections;
- A continuing belief that minorities face discrimination in correctional employment;
- Personnel practices (involving screening, promotion, etc.) which may affect minorities unfavorably.

In addition, recruitment efforts -- like retention rates -- may be negatively affected by various job environment factors.

For example, the following factors may discourage qualified minority group members from seeking jobs in corrections:

- The location of correctional institutions, often far from major urban areas and even from medium-sized cities;
- Low entry-level salaries;
- Perceived constraints to advancement;

- Long working hours;
- Limited training or advancement opportunities in many occupations;
- The highly structured, often "militaristic" nature of correctional institutions.

The entry-level salaries for correctional officers in the four state systems surveyed are shown in Table 5. Monthly salaries range from \$611.20 in Ohio to \$911.00 in California. These low salaries can be expected to discourage many potential applicants if other, better-paying jobs are available to them.

To the extent that minorities are aware of actual working conditions and promotion opportunities, negative factors may discourage them from applying for jobs in corrections. Such factors are likely to have a particularly significant effect on retention, however, and additional factors are identified in that section of the report.

Table 5

Entrance Level Salaries for Correctional Officers  
in Selected State Correctional Systems, 1974

STATE	SALARY	
	Monthly	Annual
California	\$911.00	\$10,932.00
Michigan	\$809.10	\$ 9,709.20
Ohio	\$611.20	\$ 7,334.40
Mississippi	\$643.00	\$ 7,716.00

#### IV. SCREENING AND SELECTION

#### IV. SCREENING AND SELECTION

Like most public agencies, the state correctional systems surveyed have developed a complex set of screening procedures which are designed to make the employee selection process as nearly objective as possible. Moreover, these procedures are supposed to be uniformly applied. Unfortunately, many of these procedures as applied serve to discriminate against minority applicants. The subsections below describe the various screening practices of the four state correctional systems and specify those which limit minority access to jobs in corrections. The specific requirements studied are those stated for entry-level positions as correctional officers.

##### A. General Educational Requirements

Three of the states surveyed have general educational requirements for applicants for correctional officer jobs. Ohio requires only an eighth grade education. Applicants in Michigan, California, and Mississippi are required to have completed high school/GED. In addition, applicants are required to be interviewed by a board composed of members of the institution.

While low-level educational requirements are not likely to be a major exclusionary factor, general educational requirements have been held discriminatory in some court cases because there is no demonstrated relationship between a given amount of formal education and successful job performance. On the other hand, specified achievement levels, such as a given reading

comprehension level or ability to write sufficiently well to prepare required reports, can be appropriate requirements when they are job-related.

B. Written Tests

Three of the four states surveyed (all but Michigan) require correctional officer applicants to take a written test prepared by the State Personnel Board or Department. If these tests have been shown to be related to job performance -- if they have been "validated" for correctional officers -- then they are acceptable screening procedures. However, it appears that the skills and other characteristics of a "successful" correctional officer have never been identified with precision, and it is therefore unlikely that success on the test correlates highly with success on the job.

Non-job-related tests are a major factor working to exclude minorities from many kinds of jobs, for several reasons:

- Minorities tend to have less formal education and thus less experience with written tests than whites;
- Minorities may face psychological barriers to successful test-taking because of a history of discrimination and inferior social and economic status;
- Many tests contain deliberate or unconscious cultural biases which cause lower average scores for minorities.

In addition, tests can be used to deliberately exclude minorities, not only through biased questions but also by having minorities take the tests under uncomfortable or other unfavorable

conditions, or by not scheduling the test at times convenient for minority applicants.

In order to produce a test which can measure the knowledge and skills required for successful job performance, the correctional system needs to undertake job task analysis, identify job-related knowledges and skills, develop tests to measure these jobs and skills, and validate the tests by comparing the job performance of individuals who scored high on the tests and individuals who scored low. Validated tests of this kind can be considerably more helpful as a screening tool than educational requirements or standardized achievement tests. As the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals has noted,

"... Many persons with less than a college education can be of special use in corrections, since they understand the problems of offenders, who are likewise without higher education."<sup>2</sup>

C. Oral Tests and Interviews

Oral tests or formal interviews for entry level corrections custodial personnel are required by all four of the states surveyed. These oral tests suffer from the same problems as written tests in terms of their lack of a demonstrated relationship to job performance. They also tend to be highly subjective and can readily be manipulated by the interviewer. While it

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<sup>2</sup>National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Corrections Report, p. 472.

may seem reasonable to infer a relationship between an applicant's demonstration of poise, firmness, leadership, and skill in social interaction during an oral test and his or hers on-the-job performance in a custodial, counseling, or service role, the importance of such characteristics in determining job success has not been established. Moreover, the interview is an artificial situation, and generally does not even attempt to simulate the actual working environment. Actual employee performance during the probationary period is, of course, the oral test of ability to successfully carry out the responsibilities of the job.

D. Consideration of Applicants with Criminal Record

The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals has predicted that:

"As participatory management of the correctional system becomes a reality, more offenders will find roles in corrections."<sup>3</sup>

Ex-offenders have a knowledge of corrections which may make them particularly valuable correctional employees. However, a major obstacle to the hiring of ex-offenders is the Civil Service limitation upon the hiring of convicted felons or even persons with arrest records, which exists in many states. Most states now distinguish between arrests and convictions; as Table 6 shows, of the four states surveyed, only Mississippi automatically disqualifies applicants with arrest records but not

<sup>3</sup>National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, op. cit., p. 478.

Table 6

Tolerance of Arrest and Conviction Records on Personnel Recruitment in Selected States\*

	California	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi
Traffic Violations Convictions	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Arrest record for misdemeanors	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Arrest record for felony	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Conviction record for misdemeanor	Yes	Yes	No	No
Conviction record for felony	No	Yes	No	No

\*Yes indicates that a person with such a record is accepted as a job applicant. No indicates that a person with such a record is not accepted as a job applicant.



convictions. Two states, Mississippi and Ohio, disqualify applicants with misdemeanor convictions, and three of the four states (all but Michigan) disqualify persons with felony convictions. Thus felony ex-offenders cannot seek corrections jobs in three of the four states surveyed.

Disqualification of job applicants based on arrest records discriminates against minorities, since minorities are particularly likely to live in central cities and, more than whites, are more likely to have arrest records, particularly "suspicion" arrests. Fifty to 90 percent of the male residents of urban slums have an arrest record,<sup>4</sup> and the likelihood of having been arrested is five times as high for Blacks over 18 as for whites over 18.<sup>5</sup>

Even in states where a distinction is made between arrests and convictions, arrest records may discourage minorities from applying for jobs in corrections. An effective program for minority recruitment, which includes a clear statement of state policy regarding the hiring of individuals with arrest or conviction records on job announcements and application forms, can help overcome this problem.

Changes in or exceptions to these regulations will be required if correctional agencies are to carry out the recommendations of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and

<sup>4</sup>President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1967, p. 75.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 44.

Training by taking "immediate and affirmative action to recruit and employ qualified ex-offenders in correctional roles."<sup>6</sup> The Joint Commission also indicated that:

"The fear of failure should not work as a discriminatory factor against the hiring of ex-offenders. In fact, the opposite is true. If meaningful job opportunities are to be made available to ex-offenders, the system's desire for success must be tempered by tolerance of a certain number of failures."<sup>7</sup>

Training programs are an important part of any program to employ ex-offenders, since they help maximize chances for success. Correctional administrators and the public must be willing to accept the risks in order to reap the benefits of utilizing ex-offender personnel in corrections jobs. The ability to recruit actively from the ex-offender population helps a state demonstrate the success of rehabilitation, and also serves as an example to other agencies which might provide job opportunities to ex-offenders. Thus current regulations -- usually state civil service requirements -- which limit or prevent the hiring of ex-offenders by correctional agencies need reconsideration and revision.

#### E. Background Investigations

None of the four states surveyed requires either polygraph tests or local personal references of correctional job applicants.

<sup>6</sup>Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, op. cit., Standard 14.4, p. 43.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid.

However, three of the states -- all except California -- require "background checks" on applicants. Details of the investigative process were not requested.

F. Physical and Health Requirements

All four states require medical examinations for correctional job applicants. Some observers believe that disqualification for hypertension is discriminatory, since a disproportionate number of Blacks suffer from high blood pressure. All four states disqualify applicants for hypertension.

Physical requirements for correctional job applicants vary. California and Ohio have a five-foot-eight inch minimum height requirement for male applicants, and Mississippi has a five-foot-one inch minimum height requirement. Three states (all but Mississippi) have weight and visual acuity requirements.

Such physical requirements could tend to discriminate against a particular racial or ethnic group; for example, if Asian-Americans tend to be short, height requirements may tend to exclude them. Such physical requirements should be eliminated unless a thorough review shows they have a specific relationship to job success.

G. Other Requirements

As determined by a supplementary questionnaire submitted to personnel specialists in the four state systems, a variety of other requirements - some of them work-related, others not - are used by the various states in the screening process. For

example, although community of residence is in no case a screening factor, Ohio hires only residents of the State. Mississippi requires U.S. citizenship. Table 7 summarizes non work-related eligibility requirements.

Every state identifies candidates by race on its application forms and records race on personal folders. Such race identification is in violation of federal civil rights legislation unless it is used for affirmative action and EEO reporting purposes.

Non work-related requirements by definition do not relate to projected job success. Thus they should be carefully reviewed for possible discriminatory effect -- and, in many cases, eliminated. The rationale behind each such requirement needs to be determined, and its legitimacy established if the requirement is to be maintained.

H. Selection Preferences

In the hiring of employees, the states surveyed identified the following areas of preference in selection:

- Veterans preference is given by all four states. Although its intent is to compensate veterans for their service to their country, such preference discriminates against women (whose numbers in the military service are limited by legislation). Federal veterans preferences are now being challenged in court.
- Three of the four states surveyed -- all but Michigan -- use some preference approach such as "exceptional appointments" to hire applicants who have special or critical skills such as bilingual competence.

Table 7

Non Work Related Eligibility Requirements

	California	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi
Race Identification	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Voter Registration	No	No	No	No
U.S. Citizenship	--	--	--	Yes
State of Residence	---	--	Yes	--

- In the correctional institutions surveyed, lateral entry, i.e., transfers from other merit system positions throughout the state bureaucracy, is restricted. There are requirements of no prior experience in corrections for entry from outside the correctional system. Although information covering this issue is incomplete, the available data suggests that lateral transfers are used by state workers as career building devices. Mississippi, for example, reports that more than seventy percent of its lateral transfers were promotions. Lateral entry can tend to perpetuate discrimination, however, if the state has few minority employees.

I. Selection Procedures

All four of the surveyed states use specific selection procedures which are designed to make the process "objective." Table 8 summarizes some of the devices used for ranking job applicants, once the ineligible and clearly unqualified have been eliminated. The validity -- and the potential for discrimination -- of each of these devices has already been discussed. The effect of these approaches often is a "subjective" selection process, open either to conscious subversion by an interviewer or reviewer of applications or to unconscious discriminatory effect because the procedures tend to exclude or eliminate minorities disproportionately.

State agencies may take a variety of actions to prevent the selection process from unfairly reducing the chances for minority hiring. Selection boards can take the place of individuals, with minority representation on such boards. Interviews can be taped for periodic review by key officials. Affirmative action plans may be developed, and EEO goals stressed in

Table 8

Devices Used in Ranking Candidates  
in Preparation for Selection

DEVICE	STATE			
	California	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi
Written Tests	Yes	No	Yes	No
Oral Interview/Exam	Yes	Yes*	Yes	Yes
Veterans Preference	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Completed Job Application Form	No	No	Yes	No

\*5 points, 10 points if disabled.

staff meetings and special training sessions. Perhaps the single most useful tool for identifying minority recruitment and selection problems -- so that appropriate remedies may be sought -- is the keeping of time-series records which describe applicants by race and sex. These records should show recruiting contacts and applicants, permitting consideration of test scores, rankings, number hired, reasons for non-selection, etc. Thus they can be used to pinpoint the causes of weaknesses or failure in minority recruitment and hiring efforts.

V. EMPLOYEE RETENTION AND ADVANCEMENT

V. EMPLOYEE RETENTION AND ADVANCEMENT

Recruitment and selection policies and procedures help determine who becomes a correctional system employee. Policies regarding probationary periods, evaluations, training, and advancement opportunities -- as well as general working conditions -- help determine which employees remain within correctional systems and advance to positions of authority. The subsections below present turnover and retention rates for the four state correctional systems surveyed and examine state policies and experiences regarding probation, employee evaluation, and promotion.

A. Employee Turnover and Retention

Table 9 shows rates of correctional officer turnover for the four state correctional systems. Turnover is very high in all four systems, ranging from 24 percent in Ohio to 34 percent in California. The turnover rate for other categories of employment, particularly professional categories, may be much lower, but these figures indicate major employee retention problems regarding correctional officers in all four states.

The turnover rates in Table 9 generally do not reflect reduction-in-force procedures, as shown by the percentage differentials in that table. In every case, more correctional officers were hired during the year than left employment.

What factors contribute to this extremely high turnover?

Table 9

Employee Turnover in Selected State  
Correctional Institutions, 1974\*

	California	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi
Number of full-time employees	315	1,037	331	534
Number leaving employment	106	137	78	286
Number hired	144	152	86	378
Percent leaving	34%	13%	24%	54%
Percentage difference between those leaving and those hired**	+12%	+0.02%	+0.02%	+17%

\*Turnover shown is for correctional officers

\*\*Positive differential indicates more employees hired than leaving.

Low pay, already mentioned as a negative recruitment factor, is one probable cause. Persons may take jobs as correctional officers because no better-paying position is available, then leave as soon as a higher-salary job becomes available.

Working conditions may also contribute to turnover; other parts of this research effort have suggested their importance in recruitment and retention of not only correctional officers but professional employees. Other important factors include reasonable hours and workloads, fringe benefits, in-service training and educational opportunities, and recognition for good performance. In addition, advancement opportunities are likely to affect turnover -- for minorities as well as other employees.

As the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training indicated,

"To a great extent the ability of corrections to attract and keep competent personnel will depend upon the employee's perception of his potential for self-fulfillment."<sup>8</sup>

Correctional systems with high turnover among particular categories of personnel -- or employees of particular racial or ethnic groups -- should carefully assess job slots in terms of the working environment, material benefits, and non-material benefits -- which constitute the "potential for self-fulfillment."

<sup>8</sup>Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, op. cit., p. 15.

Changes must often be made in non-monetary factors in order to increase employee retention.

B. Probationary Periods

All four states reported the use of a probationary period for new employees, with varying lengths of from three to nine months. The length of the probationary periods were as follows: California, nine months; Michigan, six months; Mississippi, six months; and Ohio, three months.

The states estimate that they lose only two percent or less of new employees during the probationary period; however, as Table 9 showed, correctional officers do have high turnover rates. No breakdowns or terminations by race or sex were available.

The data suggest that the probationary period is more of a formality than a real period for determining whether the employee can succeed in the job. It is possible that the testing, screening and selection processes used by the correctional systems successfully identify suitable incumbents for vacant positions. Alternatively, it is possible that the determinations made by these processes are largely irrelevant and that almost anyone who presents him/herself for employment can perform the duties. If involuntary termination rates during the probationary period are extremely low because the jobs involved do not require extensive skills, then perhaps the screening and selection procedures used are unnecessarily complex and costly, and should

be simplified. On the other hand, perhaps the probationary period is not adequately used as a time for eliminating personnel who perform poorly. This situation deserves careful review by correctional officers.

C. Performance Appraisals

Evaluations of employee performance by supervisors is one important basis for job retention and advancement within correctional systems. Table 10 shows possible uses of performance appraisals by the four state correctional systems. As the table shows, these personnel assessments not only may help determine whether salary increases or promotions are received, but also may affect assignments or help determine transfers. In all four states, negative performance appraisals may be used as a basis for recommending counseling or for employee dismissal.

The four states report that their employees are permitted to see their appraisals and to discuss them with the reviewing official. Employees are required to sign their evaluations.

Although standards of performance are important, explicit and fair standards of performance are not always easy to develop. Everyone who directs the work of employees within the correctional system uses some frame of reference for judging whether the work of the employees is satisfactory. In certain instances, these standards are highly explicit; in other cases, the person making the judgements cannot enunciate clearly the basis for his evaluations. The use of guidelines for judging performance and

Table 10

Possible Uses of the Personnel Performance Appraisals  
in Selected State Correctional Systems in 1974

	California	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi
Salary increases	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Promotions	No	No	Yes	Yes
Discipline	No	No	No	No
Assignment/transfer	Yes	No	No	Yes
Dismissal	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Counseling	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Other	No	No	Yes*	No

\*Lay-off

standards should be a matter of record within the correctional system, if the system is to guard against discrimination in performance appraisals.

D. Promotion

The four states surveyed report diversified procedures designed to make employee promotional policies fair and objective. Table 11 summarizes the standards reportedly used by the states' correctional officials for employee promotion. The most often used factors for promotion include oral and written examinations, in-service training (used by all four states), supervisor's evaluation of performance in present position, seniority within a given rank, length of service in the department, education, and supervisor's evaluation of promotion potential (used by three states).

Several of these promotion considerations serve to discourage the promotion of minority personnel. The discriminatory effects of oral and written tests were described in the Employee Screening and Selection section of this report. Another potentially discriminatory factor is seniority.

Seniority as a criteria for promotion becomes discriminatory when hiring practices have been racially "skewed" over time. Minorities tend to have been hired recently, so they have less seniority than employees hired during the years when minorities were excluded or discouraged. Seniority is a major issue not only in promotion but also if a reduction in force becomes necessary.



Table 11

Promotional Standards for Correctional Officers  
in Selected State Correctional Systems in 1974

	California	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi
Supervisor's evaluation of performance in present position	3		3	2
Veterans preference	2			2
Seniority within a given rank	1	3	3	
Written examination	3	3	3	1
Oral examination	3	3	3	3
Length of service in the department	3	3		1
Awards or commendations	3			2
Peer evaluation	3			
Education	1	1		2
Supervisor's evaluation of promotion potential	3	3		3
In-service training	3	1	3	2

Key: 1 - Used to meet eligibility requirement for promotion.  
2 - Used to provide extra points towards promotion.  
3 - Used to rank employees for promotion.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### A. Conclusions

The findings of this study -- based on a survey of four state correctional systems -- support the conclusion that the standards and goals for minority recruitment in state correctional institutions, as specified by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals in Corrections, are not being met. Moreover, the present recruitment, selection, and retention policies of state correctional agencies offer little hope of major improvements in the near future.

Specifically,

- Although minority recruitment programs exist, they have had limited success.
- Employee screening and selection procedures now in use tend to perpetuate the present efforts of past discrimination, rather than helping to overcome them.
- Promotion procedures reflect many of the same biases as screening procedures, and serve to perpetuate discriminatory effects.
- High turnover rates for correctional officers suggest that correctional employment policies and practices are inadequate not only for the recruitment and retention of qualified minority personnel, but also in the recruitment and retention of qualified white personnel. The entire system requires review and revision.
- Correctional agencies do not keep the kinds of time-series records needed to identify and document problems in minority recruitment, employment, retention, and promotion. Without such information, the specific remedial action required is difficult to determine.

- Overall, present personnel policies and practices do not provide for the best possible provision of correctional services and do not permit the full use of the potential of minority personnel to meet correctional system needs.

### B. Recommendations

Specific recommendations have been made in previous sections concerning how correctional systems can begin to improve their ability to recruit and retain qualified minority personnel. In general terms, affirmative action in corrections requires a strong leadership role by correctional administrators at the state level -- to assure that policies, practices, and attitudes are substantially changed and a workable program developed -- and at both the state and facility levels -- to see that policies and programs are implemented.

There are three possible routes to the implementation of an effective and consistent affirmative action program in corrections.

- Use of measures designed to help minorities advance within the current framework of correctional agencies hiring policies and job structures;
- Use of measures designed to help correctional agencies change that existing framework; and
- Use of measures designed to help various areas of correctional services re-evaluate the total framework of their utilization of existing minority manpower.

Based on the survey conducted for this study, it appears that the latter two approaches are necessary for long-term progress, with the first approach useful only as an interim measure.

Improved personnel policies and practices must be developed, and minority personnel must be better utilized.

In order to meet these requirements, a variety of major review and development efforts will be required. The following actions are specifically recommended:

1. Fundamental changes must be made in personnel policies, practices and procedures. Irrelevant requirements for education, work experience or personal characteristics should be eliminated. Promotion should be based on skills and knowledge acquired through work experiences and on-the-job training, wherever possible. A "hire now, train later" policy is recommended. Above all, civil service job classifications need to be re-examined to remove inflexibilities, recognize the special barriers facing employees from minority groups, and incorporate paraprofessional tasks and structures.
2. Some present personnel practices should be immediately discontinued or modified. Specifically, (a) eliminate the arrest and/or conviction disqualification in favor of personalized selection; (b) eliminate oral tests in favor of multiple personalized interview procedures that would allow for evaluation of interpersonal skills and group interaction strengths; and (c) re-examine and revise or remove non work-related requirements that are unrelated to job performance.
3. Correctional agencies employing minorities should be required to establish continuous career ladders from the entry level through higher level jobs requiring additional skills. To establish these career ladders, correctional institutions need to conduct functional task analyses for all levels of jobs, including those now performed by professionals, in order to define and restructure jobs, identify knowledges and skills needed to perform them, and articulate specific qualifications for employment and promotion.
4. Correctional institutions should use the probationary period for in-service training opportunities to improve skills and build psychological support systems that will improve retention and increase the the likelihood of promotion.

5. A central career counseling service for potential and present minority correctional personnel should be established. Its goal should be to help minority correctional personnel develop and carry out both short- and long-range plans for advancement.
6. Skill training for minority correctional personnel, both classroom and on-the-job, should be extended. Such training should emphasize "generalist" skills, and it should be not only to improve the performance of minority personnel in their current jobs but also to equip them to perform at the next higher level.
7. The Federal government should subsidize salaries over a limited period of years, and in diminishing amounts, to bring correctional salaries to a level of parity with those of other public servants such as firemen and police officers.
8. States should be encouraged to establish goals for minority hiring that would raise the level of minority employees to that for minority inmates of the system. These goals should include firm time frames.
9. Further documentation of the findings of this report is needed by replicating the study on a sample of no less than one hundred correctional institutions.

These recommended actions constitute the difficult initial steps toward the development of workable employment policies and procedures which eventually -- once fully implemented -- can make equal employment opportunity in corrections a reality.

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

SURVEY OF  
CORRECTIONAL PERSONNEL PRACTICES  
IN SELECTED STATE GOVERNMENTS

This study is being conducted by the Howard University Institute for Urban Affairs and Research under a United States Department of Justice Law Enforcement Assistance Administration grant 75NI-99-0023 Recruitment and Retention of Minority (Institutional) Correctional Employees. Please answer all questions completely and return as soon as possible. A self-addressed prepaid envelope is enclosed for your convenience.

All information will be held in strict confidence.

Thank you for your cooperation.

I. IDENTIFICATION  
(Please print or type.)

Name of your state: \_\_\_\_\_

Address: \_\_\_\_\_

(city/town) (state) (zip code)

Your name: \_\_\_\_\_ Your title: \_\_\_\_\_  
(person completing questionnaire)

Name of your institution: \_\_\_\_\_ Your phone: \_\_\_\_\_

Address of your office: \_\_\_\_\_

(city/town) (state) (county) (zip code)

II. NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES

1. What is the total number of authorized correctional\* positions in your institution as of December, 1974?

(Include both male and female.) Total #: \_\_\_\_\_

2. How many of these positions are currently vacant?

Number of positions vacant: \_\_\_\_\_

3. How many employees are presently working within your correctional institution as of December, 1974? (Please give the exact number for each category if possible.)

	TOTAL EMPLOYEES		SWORN EMPLOYEES		NONSWORN EMPLOYEES	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Full-time	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Part-time	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Provisional or temporary	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

\*Correctional positions are defined as both custody officers and treatment officers, but not maintenance, secretarial, civilian food service, or industry personnel.

4. During the past 12 months, ending December 1974, a) how many sworn correctional personnel have left your institution, and b) how many sworn correctional personnel were hired? (Include both male and female.)

a) Number who left this institution: \_\_\_\_\_

b) Number who were hired by this institution: \_\_\_\_\_

5. What is the monthly starting salary for new correctional officers in your institution?

Monthly starting salary: \$ \_\_\_\_\_

III. CIVIL SERVICE/MERIT SYSTEM

6. a) Are sworn correctional personnel in your institution under a civil service merit system? (Check only one.)

- Yes (all ranks).
- Partly (some ranks). (Please explain.)
- No (Skip to Question 6c.)

b) If "yes" or "partly" answered in a), is it the same civil service merit system as for most other public employees in your state?

- Yes
- No

c) If "no" answered in a), please describe the type of system used.

\_\_\_\_\_

7. a) Are nonsworn correctional personnel under a civil service merit system? (Check only one.)

- Yes (all positions).
- Partly (some positions). (Please explain.)
- No (Skip to Question 7c.)

b) If "yes" or "partly" answered in a), is it the same civil service merit system as for most other public employees in your state?

- Yes
- No

c) If "no" answered in a), please describe the type of system used.

\_\_\_\_\_

	Institution Personnel Officer	Corrections Department	Civil Service Commission/ Central Personnel Office	Corrections Department & State Civil Service Commission	Function Not Perform
Preparing job specifications and/or position descriptions	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Developing pay schedules	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Conducting recruitment programs	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Conducting psychiatric or psychological appraisals	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Screening applications and/or applicants for eligibility before written tests	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Administering and scoring written tests	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Determining minimum acceptable test scores	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Deciding appeals to written test scores	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Determining the eligibility of candidates after written tests	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Certifying eligible candidates for appointment	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Conducting oral interviews	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Conducting medical exams	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Conducting physical agility tests	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Conducting background investigations	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

IV. CORRECTIONAL PERSONNEL RESPONSIBILITIES AND FUNCTIONS

9. a) Does your correctional institution have a Personnel Office separate and distinct from the central office or Civil Service Commission?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No (Skip to Question 10.)

b) If "yes," how many are employed in the Correctional Personnel Office?

Number of sworn correctional employees: \_\_\_\_\_

Number of nonsworn correctional employees: \_\_\_\_\_

Other (Specify): \_\_\_\_\_

10. Listed below are the various personnel functions performed for personnel staff. Please CHECK each function which is performed

- a) primarily by the Institution Personnel Officer.
- b) by the Corrections Department.
- c) primarily by the Civil Service Commission/Central Personnel Office.
- d) by both the Corrections Department Personnel Office and State Civil Service Commission.
- e) The function is not performed.

(Check one in each row)

	Institution Personnel Officer	Corrections Department	Civil Service Commission/ Central Personnel Office	Corrections Department & State Civil Service Commission	Function Not Performed
Establishing entrance qualification standards for applicants	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Preparing examination announcements	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Constructing written test examinations	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Purchasing selection tests	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Determining relatedness of examinations and other selection processes to job performance	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Conducting job or task analysis	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

	Institution Personnel Officer	Corrections Department	Civil Service Commission/ Central Personnel Office	Corrections Department & State Civil Service Commission	Function Not Performed
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Evaluating results of background investigations

\_\_\_\_\_

Conducting polygraph examinations

\_\_\_\_\_

Developing promotion standards

\_\_\_\_\_

Giving written promotion examinations

\_\_\_\_\_

Planning and conducting training programs

\_\_\_\_\_

Operating the grievance & appeal system

\_\_\_\_\_

Engaging in collective bargaining with unions and/or employee organizations

\_\_\_\_\_

Administering a retirement system

\_\_\_\_\_

Administering an employee benefit system such as group health, group life, etc.

\_\_\_\_\_

If your correctional personnel office at institution or central office performs functions in addition to the ones included above, please describe them:

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

For what functions are outside personnel consultants utilized, if any?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

V. RECRUITMENT AT THE ENTRANCE LEVEL

11. Among the recruitment practices listed below, please check all the ones used by your department for a) male correctional positions and b) female correctional positions.

(Check all that apply.)

	Male Sworn Positions	Female Sworn Positions
Using continuous examination announcements	_____	_____
Issuing examination announcements on a periodic basis with filing periods of more than four weeks	_____	_____
Placing want-ads in the local newspapers	_____	_____
Using special posters in public places such as libraries, buses, etc.	_____	_____
Placing spot announcements on radio and TV	_____	_____
Asking for referrals from public employment services	_____	_____
Asking for referrals from labor/union organizations	_____	_____
Asking for referrals from political organizations	_____	_____
Asking for referrals from police employees	_____	_____
Asking for referrals from community organizations	_____	_____
Recruiting at schools and other educational organizations	_____	_____
Recruiting at Army separation centers	_____	_____
Use of the Operation Police Manpower Transition Program	_____	_____
Using mobile vans or similar devices	_____	_____
Other (Describe). Male: _____		
Other (Describe). Female: _____		

VI. SELECTION REQUIREMENTS AT THE ENTRANCE LEVEL

12. What is the minimum educational requirement for employment of a) male correctional officer and for b) female correctional officer in your department? (Check only one in each column.)

	Male Sworn Personnel	Female Sworn Personnel
No formal educational requirements	_____	_____
Completion of 8th grade	_____	_____
Completion of 10th grade	_____	_____
High school diploma or equivalency certificate	_____	_____
High school diploma only	_____	_____
Some college up to one year	_____	_____
Associate Degree (two years college)	_____	_____
Bachelor's Degree (If a specific field, specify.) Male: _____ Female: _____	_____	_____
Graduate Degree (If a specific field, specify.) Male: _____ Female: _____	_____	_____

13. a) What are the physical requirements prior to employment of male correctional personnel? (Check all that apply.)

- \_\_\_\_\_ Age (Minimum \_\_\_\_\_ Maximum \_\_\_\_\_)
- \_\_\_\_\_ Height (Minimum \_\_\_\_\_ Maximum \_\_\_\_\_)
- \_\_\_\_\_ Weight (Minimum \_\_\_\_\_ Maximum \_\_\_\_\_)
- \_\_\_\_\_ Vision (color)
- \_\_\_\_\_ Vision (Acuity - Minimum corrected \_\_\_\_\_ Minimum uncorrected \_\_\_\_\_)
- \_\_\_\_\_ Ability to swim (Specify) \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_ Medical examination (If possible, please attach a description of the medical standards.)
- \_\_\_\_\_ Physical agility (If possible, please attach a description of the physical agility standards.)



\_\_\_\_\_ Other (Please describe) \_\_\_\_\_

b) What are the physical requirements prior to employment of female correctional personnel? (Check all that apply.)

\_\_\_\_\_ Age (Minimum \_\_\_\_\_ Maximum \_\_\_\_\_)

\_\_\_\_\_ Height (Minimum \_\_\_\_\_ Maximum \_\_\_\_\_)

\_\_\_\_\_ Weight (Minimum \_\_\_\_\_ Maximum \_\_\_\_\_)

\_\_\_\_\_ Vision (color)

\_\_\_\_\_ Vision (Acuity - Minimum corrected \_\_\_\_\_ Minimum uncorrected \_\_\_\_\_)

\_\_\_\_\_ Ability to swim (Specify) \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ Medical examination (If possible, please attach a description of the medical standards.)

\_\_\_\_\_ Physical agility (If possible, please attach a description of the physical agility standards.)

\_\_\_\_\_ Other (Please describe) \_\_\_\_\_

14. What are the aptitude and character requirements for employment of a) male personnel and for b) female personnel? (Check all that apply.)

	Male Sworn Personnel	Female Sworn Personnel
Written test	_____	_____
Title or name and publisher of test(s) _____		
(Examples: Public Personnel Assoc. Test, Civil Service, etc.)		
Polygraph examination	_____	_____
Clinical interview by psychologist or psychiatrist	_____	_____
Oral interview	_____	_____
Background investigation	_____	_____
Other (Specify). Male: _____	_____	_____
Other (Specify). Female: _____	_____	_____

15. What other requirements exist for employment of a) male personnel and for b) female personnel? (Check all that apply.)

	Male Sworn Personnel	Female Sworn Personnel
Pre-employment residence requirements for males	_____	_____
Local _____ State _____ Number of months _____		
Pre-employment residence requirements for females	_____	_____
Local _____ State _____ Number of months _____		
Post-employment residence requirements for males	_____	_____
Local _____ State _____ Number of months _____		
Post-employment residence requirements for females	_____	_____
Local _____ State _____ Number of months _____		
Voter registration requirement	_____	_____
U. S. Citizenship	_____	_____
Driver's license	_____	_____
Others (Please specify) _____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

16. a) Do your personnel policies, laws, or regulations provide for veteran's preference in initial appointments?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No (Skip to Question 17)

b) If "yes," is this preference absolute (i.e., placed at top of list)?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No

17. Do your personnel policies, laws, or regulations allow for some form of preference to applicants who have a special or critical skill (e.g., bilingualism)?

       Yes (Specify) \_\_\_\_\_  
       No

18. Please indicate which of the arrest and conviction conditions listed below for a) adults and b) juveniles are acceptable for applicants to correctional positions. (Check all that apply.)

	Adult	Juvenile
Moving traffic violation conviction	_____	_____
Arrest record for misdemeanor	_____	_____
Arrest record for felony	_____	_____
Conviction record for misdemeanor	_____	_____
Conviction record for felony	_____	_____

19. a) Which of the following statements best describes your state's method for making selections to entry positions from among qualified candidates for correctional personnel? (Check one only.)

- The highest ranking applicant who is available for appointment must be selected.
- Any applicant who is ranked among the top three of these available for appointment may be selected (i.e., rule of five).
- Any applicant in the highest category of a category rating system (e.g., best qualified, qualified, etc.) may be selected.
- Other (Please describe) \_\_\_\_\_

b) Which of the following factors are utilized in ranking qualified candidates for entrance eligibility? (Check all that apply.)

- Written tests
- Oral interview/exam
- Veteran's preference (No. of points or percentage: \_\_\_\_\_)
- Disabled \_\_\_\_\_
- Nondisabled \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ Date of application  
\_\_\_\_\_ Other (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

20. a) Is successful completion of recruit training required prior to being appointed to your department as a correctional officer?

       Yes  
       No

b) Is successful completion of the probationary period required prior to being appointed to your department as a correctional officer?

       Yes  
       No

c) How long is the probationary period for recruit or new correctional officers?

- No probationary period (Skip to Question 21.)
- 6 months
- 12 months
- 18 months
- Other (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

d) During the past 12 months, as of the end of last month, what was the number and percent of recruit officers who did not successfully complete their required probationary period?

Number of voluntary terminations \_\_\_\_\_ Percent of total recruits \_\_\_\_\_ %  
Number of involuntary terminations \_\_\_\_\_ Percent of total recruits \_\_\_\_\_ %  
Total number of terminations \_\_\_\_\_ Percent of total recruits \_\_\_\_\_ %

VII. LATERAL ENTRY/TRANSFER

21. a) Can your department accept people from other correctional departments or similar agencies with experience for same rank correctional positions?

Yes  
No (Skip to Question 22.)

b) If "yes" in a), have you accepted any within the past 12 months?

Yes (total number \_\_\_\_\_)  
No (Skip to Question 22.)

c) If "yes" in b), please indicate the number accepted at each rank listed below within the past 12 months. (Include both male and female.)

	Number		Number
Correctional Officer	_____	Lieutenant	_____
Corporal	_____	Captain	_____
Sergeant	_____	Major	_____
Social Worker	_____	Warden	_____
Counselor	_____	Psychologist	_____
Nurse	_____	Physician	_____
Dentist	_____	Teacher	_____
Principal	_____	Chaplain	_____
Librarian	_____		
Other	_____		

(Please specify.) \_\_\_\_\_

d) If "yes" in b), what number of these people were accepted under each of the following conditions?

Number

Accepted for ranks equal in responsibility to those they left \_\_\_\_\_

Accepted for ranks lower in responsibility than those they left \_\_\_\_\_

Accepted for ranks greater in responsibility than those they left \_\_\_\_\_

e) If "yes" in b), were these people accepted by meeting qualifications equal to those required of members of your department?

Yes  
No (Please specify how requirements differed.) \_\_\_\_\_

22. a) Can your department accept people from other departments or similar agencies without correctional experience for correctional positions?

Yes  
No (Skip to Question 23.)

b) If "yes" in a), have you accepted any within the past 12 months?

Yes (total number \_\_\_\_\_)  
No (Skip to Question 23.)

c) If "yes" in b), please indicate the number accepted at each rank listed below within the past 12 months. (Include both male and female.)

	Number		Number
Correctional Officer	_____	Social Worker	_____
Corporal	_____	Counselor	_____
Sergeant	_____	Psychologist	_____
Lieutenant	_____	Nurse	_____
Captain	_____	Physician	_____
Major	_____	Dentist	_____
Warden	_____	Teacher	_____
Chaplain	_____	Principal	_____
Librarian	_____		
Other	_____		

(Please specify.) \_\_\_\_\_

d) If "yes" in b), what number of these people were accepted under each of the following conditions?

Number

\_\_\_\_\_ Accepted for ranks equal in responsibility to these they left.

\_\_\_\_\_ Accepted for ranks lower in responsibility than those they left.

\_\_\_\_\_ Accepted for ranks greater in responsibility than those they left.

e) If "yes" in b), were these people accepted by meeting qualifications equal to those required of members of your department?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No. (Please specify how requirements differed.) \_\_\_\_\_

25. a) Can your department accept people without prior experience for correctional positions?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No (Skip to Question 26.)

b) If "yes" in a), have you accepted any within the past 12 months?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes (Total number \_\_\_\_\_)

\_\_\_\_\_ No (Skip to Question 26.)

c) If "yes" in b), please indicate the number accepted at each rank listed below within the past 12 months. (Include both male and female.)

	Number		Number
Correctional Officer	_____	Social worker	_____
Corporal	_____	Counselor	_____
Sergeant	_____	Psychologist	_____
Lieutenant	_____	Nurse	_____
Captain	_____	Physician	_____
Major	_____	Dentist	_____
Warden	_____	Teacher	_____
Chaplain	_____	Principal	_____
Librarian	_____		

25. c) continued...

Number

Other \_\_\_\_\_

(Please specify.) \_\_\_\_\_

d) If "yes" in b), what number of these people were accepted under each of the following conditions?

Number

\_\_\_\_\_ Accepted for ranks equal in responsibility to those they left.

\_\_\_\_\_ Accepted for ranks lower in responsibility than those they left.

\_\_\_\_\_ Accepted for ranks greater in responsibility than those they left.

e) If "yes" in b), were these people accepted by meeting qualifications equal to those required of members of your department?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No (Please specify how requirements differed.) \_\_\_\_\_



VIII. PROMOTION

32. Which of these statements best describes your department's promotion program as it relates to correctional personnel? (Check only one.)

- There is a uniform promotion program throughout the department.
- Each unit within the department has its own promotion program.
- The promotion program varies in accordance with rank.
- There are no established programs; each action is handled on the merits of the individual case.
- Other (Please describe.) \_\_\_\_\_

33. Which of the following factors are normally included in your promotion (qualification and fitness) standards for correctional personnel? (Please check the appropriate column for each factor as it is used.)

	To Meet Eligibility Requirements	To Receive Extra Points	Used for Ranking Purposes
Supervisory evaluation of performance in present position	_____	_____	_____
Veteran's preference	_____	_____	_____
Seniority within a given rank	_____	_____	_____
Written examination	_____	_____	_____
Oral examination	_____	_____	_____
Service requirements (experience) in your department	_____	_____	_____
Awards or commendations	_____	_____	_____
Evaluation by fellow employees	_____	_____	_____
Education (college credits, associate degree, or higher)	_____	_____	_____
Supervisory evaluation of promotion potential	_____	_____	_____
In-service training	_____	_____	_____
Other _____	_____	_____	_____

34. If your department employs a promotion list, how long is it used? (Check only one.)

- No promotion list is used.
- Until all employees on the list have been promoted.
- Three months.
- Six months.
- One year.
- Two years.
- Other (Please specify.) \_\_\_\_\_

35. a) "Tenure" refers to the permanent status granted to a promoted employee upon successful completion of a specified probationary period. Does your correctional department have a tenure system for correctional personnel?

- Yes
- No (Skip to Question 36.)

b) If "yes," how soon after promotion are correctional personnel granted tenure? (Check only one.)

- Immediately after appointment to the rank.
- After serving a satisfactory probationary period of 6 months.
- After serving a satisfactory probationary period of 12 months.
- After serving a satisfactory probationary period of 18 months.

IX. PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

36. a) Is there a formal performance appraisal program for correctional personnel? (Check one in each column.)

	Recruits	Correctional Officers	Ranking Officers
Yes	_____	_____	_____
No	_____	_____	_____

b) If "yes," how often is the employee's performance reviewed? (Check all that apply.)

	Recruits	Correctional Officers	Ranking Officers
Every 6 months	_____	_____	_____
Annually	_____	_____	_____
Every 2 years	_____	_____	_____
Other (Please specify.) _____	_____	_____	_____

c) Who conducts the performance appraisals? (Check all that apply.)

	Recruits	Correctional Officers	Ranking Officers
Immediate supervisor	_____	_____	_____
Next highest supervisor	_____	_____	_____
Fellow employees	_____	_____	_____
Supervisory panel	_____	_____	_____
Other (Please specify.) _____	_____	_____	_____

37. a) Are all appraisals discussed with the employee? (Check one in each column.)

	Recruits	Correctional Officers	Ranking Officers
Yes	_____	_____	_____
No	_____	_____	_____

b) If "yes" in a), who discusses the appraisals with the employee? (Check all that apply.)

	Recruits	Correctional Officers	Ranking Officers
Immediate supervisor	_____	_____	_____
Next highest supervisor	_____	_____	_____
Correctional personnel office staff	_____	_____	_____

c) If "yes" in a), must the appraisal form be signed by the employee? (Check all that apply.)

	Recruits	Correctional Officers	Ranking Officers
Yes	_____	_____	_____
No	_____	_____	_____

c) What are the uses or possible results of the formal performance appraisal of your correctional personnel? (Check all that apply.)

- \_\_\_\_\_ Salary increase
- \_\_\_\_\_ Promotion
- \_\_\_\_\_ Discipline
- \_\_\_\_\_ Assignment/Transfer
- \_\_\_\_\_ Dismissal
- \_\_\_\_\_ Counseling
- \_\_\_\_\_ Other (Please specify.) \_\_\_\_\_

X. APPEALS AND GRIEVANCES

38. a) Are there formal procedures in your department for a correctional employee to submit an appeal of a personnel decision?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No (Skip to Question 39.)

b) If "yes," does the employee have the right to:

	Yes	No
Appeal and hearing?	_____	_____
Have a representative at the hearing	_____	_____

39. To whom are appeals made? (Check all that apply.)

\_\_\_\_\_ Supervisor

\_\_\_\_\_ Institution Review Board

\_\_\_\_\_ Warden

\_\_\_\_\_ Department Review Board

\_\_\_\_\_ Civil Service Commission/Central Personnel Agency

\_\_\_\_\_ Governor

\_\_\_\_\_ Other (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

XII. FEMALE PERSONNEL

43. Are separate entrance lists maintained for female positions?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No

44. a) Are most female personnel used in the same capacity assignments as male personnel?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes (Skip to Question 45.)

\_\_\_\_\_ No

b) If "no," what are the major duty assignments for female sworn correctional personnel?

45. a) Are promotion procedures for female personnel the same as those for male personnel?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes (Skip to Question 46.)

\_\_\_\_\_ No

b) If "no," how are they different? \_\_\_\_\_

46. Are separate promotion lists maintained for female personnel?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No



47. a) Does your institution presently employ any sworn female supervisory positions?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes (total number \_\_\_\_\_)

\_\_\_\_\_ No (Skip to Question 48.)

b) If "yes" in a), please indicate the number of sworn female personnel in each of the following ranks.

	Number
Corporal	_____
Sergeant	_____
Lieutenant	_____
Captain	_____
Major	_____
Warden	_____

as a department head for:

Social Work	_____
Counseling	_____
Psychology	_____
Nursing	_____
Medical Services	_____
Dental Services	_____
Education	_____
Religion	_____
Library	_____
Other	_____

(Please specify.) \_\_\_\_\_

XIII. MINORITY PERSONNEL

48. How many minority group members (Blacks, Spanish-surnames, Orientals, Indians, etc.) are presently employed in your department/institution?

	Number	Percent of Total
Minority male personnel	_____	_____ % (Male personnel)
Minority female personnel	_____	_____ % (Female personnel)
Other (Specify.)	_____	

49. a) Does your department presently employ any minority personnel in command or supervisory positions?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes (Total number \_\_\_\_\_)

\_\_\_\_\_ No (Skip to Question 50.)

b) If "yes" in a), please indicate the number of sworn minority personnel in each of the following ranks. (Include both male and female.)

	Number		Number
Corporal	_____	Social Workers	_____
Sergeant	_____	Counselors	_____
Lieutenant	_____	Psychologist	_____
Captain	_____	Nurses	_____
Major	_____	Physicians	_____
Warden	_____	Dentists	_____
Principal	_____	Teachers	_____
Librarian	_____	Chaplains	_____
Other	_____		

(Please specify.) \_\_\_\_\_

50. a) Does your jurisdiction have any special programs for recruiting and hiring disadvantaged and/or minority groups for sworn correctional positions?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_\_ No

b) If "yes," please indicate which of the following are used. (Check all that apply.)

\_\_\_\_\_ Special recruitment teams (all minority \_\_\_\_\_; integrated \_\_\_\_\_; all white \_\_\_\_\_)

\_\_\_\_\_ Special school and/or college trips

\_\_\_\_\_ Visits to community centers, etc., on a regular scheduled basis

\_\_\_\_\_ Utilizing graduates of the Operation Police Manpower Transition Program

\_\_\_\_\_ Operating storefront (or similar) centers within the inner city for information and/or examination purposes

\_\_\_\_\_ Placing advertisements in minority news media

\_\_\_\_\_ Keeping information offices open after hours and on weekends

\_\_\_\_\_ Providing pre-examination counseling and training (Please describe.)

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ Employing different selection procedures and/or standards for minorities (Please specify.)

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ Other (Please specify.)

XIII. EMPLOYMENT FORECAST

51. How many new employees do you anticipate during the period January 1, 1975 through December 31, 1975?

Replacements \_\_\_\_\_

New Positions \_\_\_\_\_

52. Are there any new institutions to be opened in the next five years?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, How many? \_\_\_\_\_

Where? \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

How many employees per institution?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

53. Are there any new positions approved for the department/institution?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, How many? \_\_\_\_\_

Job Titles: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

54. Has there been a cutback on positions within the last eighteen months?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, How many? \_\_\_\_\_

55. Are any changes anticipated in the minimum entry educational requirements?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, explain: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

XIV. TRAINING

56. Is there a departmental training program?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ How long? \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

57. Are there training officers in each institution?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

58. Is there an educational leave policy?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ (Please attach)

No \_\_\_\_\_

59. Is there an in-service training policy?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ (Please attach)

No \_\_\_\_\_

60. Is there a special mid-management training program?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

61. Is there a special senior level training program?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

XV.

(Institution only.)

62. Inmate population \_\_\_\_\_ (total)

63. Minority Inmate population

Blacks \_\_\_\_\_

Spanish Americans \_\_\_\_\_

American Indians \_\_\_\_\_

Asian Americans \_\_\_\_\_

Others \_\_\_\_\_

64. Inmate Racial Climate

Peaceful \_\_\_\_\_

Hostile \_\_\_\_\_

Indifferent \_\_\_\_\_

65. Number of staff per shift

1st \_\_\_\_\_

2nd \_\_\_\_\_

3rd \_\_\_\_\_

66. Type of institution

Maximum Security \_\_\_\_\_

Medium Security \_\_\_\_\_

Minimum Security \_\_\_\_\_

67. Inmate age

18-22 \_\_\_\_\_

23-35 \_\_\_\_\_

36-40 \_\_\_\_\_

over 41 \_\_\_\_\_

XVI. POLITICAL CONCERNS

(Central Staff Only.)

68. Has there been a legislative mandate for Affirmative Action?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ When? \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

69. Has there been an executive mandate for Affirmative Action?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ When? \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

70. Has there been a judicial order on Affirmative Action?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ When? \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

71. Has there been public agitation for Affirmative Action?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ When? \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

Will you please estimate the number of hours required to complete this questionnaire: \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for completing this questionnaire!

FINAL REPORT

VOLUME I I

THE RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF MINORITY  
CORRECTIONAL EMPLOYEES RESEARCH PROJECT

BY

EUGENE BEARD

Institute for Urban Affairs and Research  
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243

PROJECTIONS ON THE SUPPLY OF  
MINORITIES IN CORRECTIONS-RELATED OCCUPATIONS:  
1975-1980

BY

EUGENE BEARD

*Prepared under Grant Number 75-NI-99-0023 from  
the National Institute of Law Enforcement and  
Criminal Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance  
Administration, U. S. Department of Justice.*

*Points of view or opinions in this document  
are those of the author and do not necessarily  
represent the official position or policies  
of the Department of Justice.*

## PREFACE

In the last quarter of 1974, the Institute for Urban Affairs and Research of Howard University was awarded a grant to identify and examine factors which attract and retain minority employees in the correctional component of the criminal justice system. The study concentrated on minorities in the following groups: current and former correctional employees, inmates, and professional occupations with an investment in corrections.

Minorities were chosen as the study's focus of concern because of their over-representation in the inmate population and under-representation in the employee population. Many theoreticians believe the racial imbalance between inmates and staff, and differences in value, life styles, expectation, etc. render inmate rehabilitation highly probabilistic.

This is the second of three reports on the recruitment and retention of minority correctional employees. The first report, Personnel Practices Relative to the Recruitment and Retention of Minority Correctional Personnel, examined the policies and practices of six state-operated prisons as they related to the recruitment, screening,

selection, promotion and retention of minorities. The second report, this volume, looked at the projected number of minorities expected to be in certain corrections-related occupations from 1975 to 1980. The third report analyzed minority employees' attitudes and perceptions as a means for designing and implementing recruitment and retention strategies.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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The professional skill and enthusiasm of Ms. Catherine Davis, project secretary, contributed significantly toward making the project a meaningful exercise. Moreover, typing and editorial assistance provided by Ms. Pamela Richards and Mr. Anthony Jasper respectively, were essential to the preparation of the manuscript.

Graduate assistants, Ms. Denise Goins and Mr. Norman James, participated in the collection and organization of large amounts of data received from numerous professional, public and private agencies and individuals.

A special note of thanks to Dr. Lawrence E. Gary, Institute for Urban Affairs and Research's principal-in-charge of the overall study.

The advice and counsel provided by the study's Advisory Committee was timely and helpful. The Advisory Committee included: Dr. Lee P. Brown, Director of Justice Services, Multnomah County Department of Justice, Portland, Oregon; Dr. Bennett Cooper, Deputy Director, Administration of Justice

and Community Development, Columbus, Ohio; Mr. John Flores, Director of Equal Opportunity Office, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah; Mr. Frank Jasmine, Assistant Director, Pretrial Intervention Center, Washington, D.C.; Dr. Ellis McDougall, Associate Dean of Criminal Justice, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina; and Mr. Eddie Harrison, Director, Baltimore Pretrial Intervention Project, Baltimore, Maryland.

In addition to the author and the project secretary, other project members for the overall study were: Dr. Elvalee Banks, Mr. B. Thomas Moses and Dr. Thomas Payne.

Special thanks go to Mr. Lawrence Greenfeld, LEAA's Project Officer, and Ms. Cindy Sulton, the original project officer, for their understanding and guidance.

As is customary, the above named persons are absolved from any responsibility for errors and omissions in the study. These are reserved for the author.

Eugene Beard, Ph.D.  
Project Director

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
PREFACE. . . . .	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS. . . . .	v
LISTING OF FIGURES . . . . .	viii
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY. . . . .	1
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	10
A. The Problem. . . . .	10
B. Purpose and Objective of the Study . . . . .	13
C. Methodological Issues. . . . .	14
D. Study Methodology. . . . .	17
II. FACTORS AFFECTING THE SUPPLY OF PROFESSIONAL MINORITY GROUP MEMBERS . . . . .	22
A. Potential Supply of Minority Manpower. . . . .	22
B. Projections of the Growth Rates of Corrections- Related Disciplines. . . . .	27
III. PHYSICIANS . . . . .	41
A. Current Supply of Minority Physicians. . . . .	41
B. Projected Supply of Minority Physicians. . . . .	42
IV. DENTISTS . . . . .	50
A. Current Supply . . . . .	50
B. Projected Supply of Black Dentists . . . . .	51
C. Projected Supply of Minority Dentists. . . . .	52
V. REGISTERED NURSES. . . . .	58
A. Current Supply . . . . .	58
B. Projected Supply of Minority Registered Nurses . . . . .	65
VI. LAWYERS. . . . .	72
A. Current Supply . . . . .	72
B. Projected Supply of Black and Other Minority Lawyers. . . . .	73

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

	Page
VII. SOCIAL WORKERS. . . . .	81
A. Current Supply. . . . .	81
B. Projections of the Supply of Black Social Workers . . . . .	83
VIII. PSYCHOLOGISTS . . . . .	89
A. Current Supply. . . . .	89
B. Projections of the Supply of Psychologists. . . . .	92
C. Employment Opportunities in Corrections for Doctorate Level Psychologists . . . . .	94
D. Projected Supply of Minority Psychologists. . . . .	96
IX. RECREATION SPECIALISTS. . . . .	102
A. Current Supply. . . . .	102
B. Projections of the Supply of Park and Recreation Specialists. . . . .	106
X. VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION COUNSELORS. . . . .	113
A. Current Supply. . . . .	113
B. Projections of the Supply of Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors . . . . .	116
XI. LIBRARIANS. . . . .	122
A. Current Supply. . . . .	122
B. Projections of Librarian Manpower Demand and Supply. . . . .	131
C. Projections of the Demand for and Supply of Minority Librarians . . . . .	135
XII. ACADEMIC INSTRUCTORS: ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY LEVELS. . . . .	139
A. Current Supply. . . . .	139
B. Projections on Supply of and Demand for Teachers. . . . .	141
XIII. EMPLOYMENT COUNSELORS . . . . .	147
A. Current Supply. . . . .	147
B. Projections on Supply of and Demand for Employment Counselors . . . . .	148



**CONTINUED**

**1 OF 6**

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

	Page
XIV. CHAPLAINS. . . . .	149
XV. UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG MINORITIES IN AREAS SURROUNDING PRISON SITES . . . . .	154
XVI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS. . . . .	159
A. Conclusions. . . . .	159
B. Recommendations. . . . .	165

LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
1 Projections of Total Population and Average Annual Percent Change in Total Population From Selected Years, 1975 to 1980. . . . .	23
2 Projections of Median Age by Race and Sex. . . . .	26
3 Projected Percent Growth in Selected Occupational Groups: 1970-1980. . . . .	29
4 Individual Fields of Study Related to Corrections. . . . .	30
5 Earned First Professional Degrees by Field of Study: 1975-1980. . . . .	32
6 Quartiles of Distribution of Educational Attainment by Race and Sex, for Persons 25 to 34 Years Old: 1940 to 1974 . . . . .	34
7 Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates, by Educational Attainment, Age, and Sex: March, 1974. . . . .	37
8 Physician-to-Population Ratios Among Blacks in Six States . . . . .	43
9 Projections of the Number of Black Physicians: 1975-80. . . . .	48
10 Actual and Projected Number of Minority Students Graduating from American Dental Schools: 1970-80. . . . .	53
11 Dentist-to-Population Ratio Among the Black Population . . . . .	55
12 Actual and Projected Total Number of Dentists in the U.S. from 1970-80 . . . . .	57
13 Registered Nurses Employed or Resident in Each of Six States by Employment Status, 1972 . . . . .	60
14 Percent Minorities Admitted to Schools of Nursing in Relation to Total Enrollment, 1971-72. . . . .	62

LIST OF FIGURES (CONT'D)

	<u>Page</u>
15 Percent of Blacks Admitted to RN and PN Nursing in Relation to Total Admissions 1971-72, Compared to the Percent of Blacks in Female Population, Ages 15-24 in 1970 in Six States. . . . .	64
16 Admissions and Graduates in Schools of Nursing Under Basic and Alternative Assumptions: Actual and Projected 1970-71 and 1971-72; Projected 1972-73 through 1989-90 . . . . .	67
17 Black and Spanish-Speaking Registered Nurses in States: 1970 . . . . .	68
18 Estimates of the Number of Black Registered Nursing Graduates 1974-80 . . . . .	70
19 Minority Students Enrolled in Approved Law Schools, 1975-76. . . . .	75
20 Black and Other Minority Lawyers and Graduates 1970-71 to 1979-80. . . . .	77
21 Estimates on the Population of Black Lawyers. . . . .	78
22 Distribution of Black Lawyers in Six States: 1970 . . . . .	80
23 Projections on Blacks Expected to Receive Master's Degrees of Social Work through 1979-80. . . . .	87
24 Doctorates Awarded in Psychology, 1940-1974 . . . . .	91
25 Estimating the 1974 Doctorate Psychology Labor Force . . . . .	93
26 Projections of Doctorates in Psychology to be Awarded to Minority Group Members 1975 through 1979-80 . . . . .	99
27 Estimating the 1974 Doctorate Psychologist Labor Force . . . . .	101
28 Number of Task & Recreation Curriculumms . . . . .	107
29 Black and Spanish Recreational Workers: 1970 . . . . .	111

LIST OF FIGURES (CONT'D)

	<u>Page</u>
30 Schools Offering Graduate Training Programs in Rehabilitation Counseling and Which Receive Rehabilitation Services Administration Training Grants in Rehabilitation Counseling. . . . .	117
31 The Number of Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors in the States of: New Jersey, Mississippi, Michigan, Ohio, Louisiana and California: 1970-1974. . . . .	119
32 Vocational and Educational Counselors by Race: 1970 . . . . .	121
33 Percentages of Minority Group Members on Library Staffs . . . . .	127
34 Projected Employment Requirements for Librarians, By Type of Library, 1970-80. . . . .	133
35 Projected Total Employed, Total Minority and Total Black Librarian Work Force: 1970-71 to 1979-80. . . . .	137
36 Supply of Minority Elementary and Secondary School Beginning Teachers 1974-80 (in thousands). . . . .	144
37 Projection of Number of Employed Minority Teachers in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools 1974-80 (in thousands) . . . . .	146
38 Black Students Enrolled in ATS Member Schools. . . . .	151
39 Changes in Hispanic/American Student Enrollment. . . . .	153
40 Minority Labor Force and Unemployment Rates For Seven Prison Sites . . . . .	157

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

### A. BACKGROUND

Minorities constitute approximately 16.8 percent of the United States population and make up about 49 percent of the quarter of a million inmates in state and federal prisons. Yet, only about eight percent of correctional employees are minority group members, and minorities are conspicuously absent or under-represented in the middle and top level administrative, professional, and supervisory ranks of correctional personnel. Many groups, including inmates, correctional officers, prison administrators, as well as the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower Training, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, the State Correctional Administrators, and the American Bar Association's Commission on Correctional Facilities have urged a variety of recruitment, training, and other efforts to increase the numbers of minority correctional employees in all job classification.

Any long-term effort to increase the number of minority correctional personnel requires some information concerning the present and future supply of minorities in occupations relating to corrections. This study was designed to provide a reasonable answer to the following question: What will be

the supply of minority group members from 1975 through 1980 who could possibly be recruited and employed in correctional institutions? This report provides information concerning the supply of minority group members expected to be available in specified professions related to corrections.

The major objective of this report is to provide estimates of the new supply of minorities expected to graduate between 1975 and 1980 from institutions of higher learning in disciplines having an investment in corrections. The following manpower groups were considered:

- Academic and Vocational Instructors,
- Chaplains,
- Dentists,
- Lawyers,
- Librarians,
- Nurses,
- Physicians,
- Psychologists,
- Recreational Specialists,
- Social Workers,
- Vocational Counselors, and
- Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors.

The study considered:

- Unemployed nonspecialized persons;
- The present supply of personnel in each occupational group;
- The present supply of minority personnel in each occupational group (where figures on all minorities were not available, statistics on all Blacks were used);
- The expected rate of growth for the occupation;

- The projected new supply of personnel in the occupational group between 1975 and 1980;
- The projected new supply of minority personnel in the occupational group between 1975 and 1980;
- Where feasible, the projected total supply of active personnel in the occupational group between 1975 and 1980;
- The projected total supply of active minority personnel in the occupational group between 1975 and 1980 where such projections are feasible.

In some occupational areas, limited data were available concerning minority representation in the profession and/or the student enrollment in institutions providing specialized occupational training. Thus the sophistication and specificity of the projections made vary by occupation.

In addition to making projections by occupation, the study also included consideration of the overall supply of minority personnel within the labor force at present and in the future. It was established that the minority population, particularly the Black population, is younger than the white population, and there will be an adequate supply of trainable minority personnel in the labor force between now and 1980. Moreover, better educated individuals are more likely to be a part of the labor force. In addition, Black women with academic degrees tend to be in the labor force -- probably for economic reasons. Thus provision of specialized training

will increase the supply of minority personnel available for recruitment into corrections jobs.

This study was particularly concerned with the following correctional institutions:

- Ohio State Reformatory at Mansfield;
- California Institution for Women at Frontera;
- California Institution for Men at Chino
- Louisiana State Penitentiary at Angola;
- Mississippi State Penitentiary at Parchman;
- Southern Michigan State Penitentiary at Jackson;
- New Jersey State Prison at Trenton.

These prisons were selected based on geographical location, racial composition, recommendations of the study's Advisory Committee, and the institution's willingness to participate in the study. The purpose and scope of the study prohibited including a correctional institution from each state.

The study considered unemployment rates in areas surrounding the above-named correctional facilities, data concerning the number of specialized personnel working in the six states, as well as the number of educational institutions providing training in corrections-related professions and their total and minority enrollments. It was found that:

- The areas around correctional institutions generally have relatively high unemployment rates, which suggests the availability of nonspecialized manpower;
- There were major regional and state differences in the supply of specialized personnel, including

minority personnel, and in the number and student enrollment of institutions providing specialized training in corrections-related occupations.

#### B. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study of the present and projected supply of minority personnel in particular corrections-related occupations generated the following major findings and conclusions.

- Minority groups are presently under-represented in most of the corrections-related occupations considered. While the supply of minority group members is expected to increase in most of the occupations considered in this study, those groups will still be under-represented in 1980. For example:
  - .. As of 1972, only 1.75 percent of active physicians were Black; by 1980, Blacks are expected to make up 4.5 percent of medical school graduates, while other minorities will make up another .93 percent of total graduates.
  - .. The proportion of Black dentists has been declining since the 1930's; at present, only about two percent of American dentists are Black. About 9.7 percent of present dental students are minorities, but an increase of only six percent is expected between 1975 and 1980 in the number of minorities graduating from dental school.
  - .. There is a tremendous shortage of lawyers who are members of various minority groups. As of 1976, less than two percent (1.3) of an estimated 425,039 lawyers in the U. S. were Black. The shortage of Black and other minority lawyers is likely to remain throughout the next decade.
  - .. Only 2.1 percent of the nation's doctoral level psychologists are Black; according to

a 1974 estimate, minorities considered eight percent of the Ph.D.'s in psychology awarded in 1973.

- .. As of 1975, 3.9 percent of undergraduate students in parks and recreation, 6.4 percent of Master's candidates, and 4.6 percent of Ph.D. candidates were Black.
  - .. Between four and eight percent of librarians are minority group members, and they constitute only three to five percent of library school enrollment.
  - .. As of 1975, in addition to 254 Hispanic Americans, only 3.3 percent of all students enrolled in theological schools were Black.
- The situation is significantly better only in nursing, social work, and teaching:
- .. While only about five percent of 1972 nursing school graduates were Black, and the proportion of minorities studying to be Registered Nurses varies greatly by region, Blacks are now entering nursing school in about the same proportions as their representation in the population.
  - .. There has been some decrease in enrollment in schools of social work in recent years, but as of 1973-74, Blacks were 15.5 percent of those receiving MSW's, 11.3 percent of those receiving DSW's, and 12.9 percent of those receiving undergraduate social work degrees.
  - .. There is a national over-supply of teachers. As of 1972, minorities constituted 12.4 percent of all undergraduate teacher training program enrollments. There is expected to be an over-abundance of teachers until at least 1980.
- The availability of minority group members in corrections-related occupations for recruitment into corrections jobs depends to a considerable extent on the overall demand for persons in that profession.

Where there is an under-supply of trained specialists in a given field, correctional facilities can expect to find recruitment of any personnel difficult, and of minority group members particularly so.

- The progress of affirmative action will have a major impact upon the availability of minorities with specialized training for recruitment into corrections jobs.

Given that minority group members are under-represented in most of the occupations studied in this research effort, and that under-representation will still exist in 1980, public and private employers are likely to be competing for a limited number of minorities who are available. As employment discrimination against minorities is being replaced by affirmative action, opportunities for minorities in many fields are increasing more rapidly than the supply of trained personnel. This will mean that correctional facilities must compete for trained personnel with many other employees.

- Most of the correctional facilities of particular interest in this study are in areas with relatively high unemployment rates. However, this situation in itself does not ensure an adequate supply of specialized personnel -- minority or white -- for recruitment into correctional jobs.

While high unemployment rates usually mean a considerable supply of non-specialized manpower, the supply of specialized personnel in the occupations having particular interest in corrections is affected by many factors other

than local unemployment rates, including (1) a tendency for specialized personnel to be concentrated in the larger cities and metropolitan areas, (2) occupational variations in unemployment rates (some skill shortage occupations continue to exist even in times of overall high unemployment), and (3) the already-mentioned under-representation of minorities in particular occupations, and strong competition for the services of those actively employed.

- There are large regional differences in the number of persons trained in particular occupations, and in the supply of minorities trained in these occupations.

National statistics concerning personnel supply and demand are of interest where recruitment for specialized personnel is done nationally rather than locally. However, some of the correctional facilities of particular interest in this study are located in or near small towns, and in states where there are few schools offering specialized training in the specified occupations. Thus a local supply of new graduates may be scarce or non-existent, and the "popularity" of an area as a place to live may affect the success of national recruitment efforts.

- Correctional facilities must compete with many other kinds of employers for specialized personnel, and may be at a disadvantage because relatively few schools provide training specifically related to corrections, and because job opportunity in corrections may not be broadly recognized;

- There exist -- and will continue to exist -- in this country an adequate supply of minority group members who could be trained for specialized jobs in corrections.

#### C. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made based on study results:

- Efforts should be made to make students in specialized occupations more aware of career opportunities in corrections, through information and awareness campaigns focused on institutions of higher education, particularly those with a significant minority enrollment in specialized training programs in corrections-related occupations.
- Consideration should be given to helping universities increase or develop corrections-related courses or sub-specialties.
- The most efficient way to assure a pool of specialized minority manpower for corrections-related agencies is to provide scholarship or fellowship assistance which is tied to post-graduation work in corrections.
- Educational institutions and professional associations should be encouraged to develop and maintain valid and reliable data concerning minority group representation in specialized occupations and in student enrollment in schools providing training for such professions. This would greatly facilitate making projections concerning the future supply and demand for such personnel.

## I. INTRODUCTION

### A. THE PROBLEM

This report focused on the supply of minorities (professional and non-professional) who could be recruited as corrections employees to assist in accomplishing the mission of correctional institutions. The lack of minority group members in corrections is believed to seriously impair achieving the goals of rehabilitation and the lowering of recidivism rates among minority inmates.

Primary emphasis was placed on the projected supply of minority professionals in corrections-related occupations because of the expected over-abundance of non-professional minorities who could be recruited for such occupational levels as guards, line supervisors, etc.

As of January 1, 1976, there were 249,716 inmates in state and federal prisons.<sup>1</sup> A disproportionately large percentage of the inmates (49 percent) are minorities, but the percentage of minority correctional employees (eight percent) is disproportionately small. Blacks represent the largest number of incarcerated minority group members, and constitute more than 11 percent of the U.S. population, but they are conspicuously absent or under-represented in the top and



middle level administrative and supervisory ranks in correctional personnel.

Recognizing the importance of minority representation in corrections, a number of committees have recommended aggressive, intensive recruitment of minority group members for employment in correctional institutions. In 1970, the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower Training<sup>2</sup> reported a need for greater minority representation in corrections jobs, and recommended an active recruitment effort. Also in 1970, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals<sup>3</sup> stated that correctional agencies should take immediate steps to recruit minorities. The State Correctional Administrators in 1972<sup>4</sup> observed that an increase was needed in minority correctional personnel at every level. In 1974, the American Bar Association's Commission on Correctional Facilities<sup>5</sup> urged correctional institutions to increase the numbers of minority employees.

In this project, a survey of 473 employees at seven state-operated prisons showed that a large majority of the respondents felt a very definite need for more minority correctional personnel (e.g., guards, line supervisors, wardens, superintendents, personnel employees, and parole officers, etc.). Respondents were of the opinion that hiring

more majority personnel would not only improve employee-employee working relationships but also employee-inmate relationships. Moreover, it was felt that an increase in the minority work force to the point where parity was reached between staff and inmates would greatly facilitate the goals of rehabilitation and also lower recidivism rates.

Perhaps the overall significance of hiring more minority correctional personnel was captured by one of 128 inmates who participated in the survey. He said, "a minority employee carries a special racial message for the minority inmate -- someone is trying to help you to help yourself."

Today, specialized minority manpower in corrections remains in short supply. Although the problem of recruiting Black and other minority members into corrections has been slighted, it has not been totally ignored. However, neither its present or potential dimensions -- and the many issues affecting the current and future supply of minority manpower in occupations related to corrections -- have been fully considered and identified.

Based on the above-mentioned survey findings and the recommendations of various committees concerning the recruitment of Black and other minority group members into all levels of correctional jobs, this study was designed to provide a

preliminary identification of the expected supply of minorities in professional fields having an investment in corrections. Specifically, this report was designed to provide a reasonable answer to the following question: What will be the supply of minority group members who could possibly be recruited and employed in correctional institutions from 1975 through 1980?

B. PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to determine the supply of minority group members expected to be available in specified professions related to corrections from 1975 through 1980.

The major objective of this report was to provide estimates of the new supply of minorities expected to graduate from institutions of higher learning in disciplines having an investment in corrections. While estimates were made primarily for the years 1975 through 1980, no effort was made to estimate the supply of minority group members from other sources because of the extreme paucity of data.

The supply estimates specify the number of workers expected to enter the professions if past and present trends of entry are continued. No attempt was made to forecast future supply-demand conditions.

A second objective of the report was to present unemployment rates in counties and/or states surrounding the following correctional institutions:

- Ohio State Reformatory at Mansfield,
- California Institution for Women at Frontera,
- California Institution for Men at Chino,
- Louisiana State Penitentiary at Angola,
- Mississippi State Penitentiary at Parchman,
- Southern Michigan State Penitentiary, and
- New Jersey State Prison.

These unemployment rates were studied because they provided an indication of the feasibility of recruiting local minority group members for correctional jobs.

C. METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

Background

The study of manpower supply, demand, and distribution has been "crisis type" research -- that is, it has often been conducted during and immediately after periods of serious national manpower problems. During the last quarter century, manpower studies have varied with the level of economic, political, and/or social activity in response to acute problems.

Past patterns in manpower research have been complicated by two underlying factors: (a) the shift in the economy from its production-orientation to a service-orientation over the last two decades; and (b) the increasing general public awareness of man's ability to change his physical environment.

### Study Definitions and Scope

This study focused on the supply of minorities for potential recruitment for and employment in federal, state and local correctional institutions in six specified states. However, inferences were made involving the nation as a whole. The following operational definitions and descriptions were developed for the study:

#### ● Manpower Groups

The study was concerned with the expected supply of both specialized and non-specialized correctional manpower. "Specialized" manpower for purposes of this study refers to the following manpower groups:

- .. Academic and Vocational Instructors
- .. Chaplains
- .. Dentists
- .. Lawyers
- .. Librarians
- .. Nurses
- .. Physicians
- .. Psychologists
- .. Recreation Specialists
- .. Social Workers
- .. Vocational Counselors
- .. Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors.

"Non-specialized" manpower is defined as minority group members who might qualify for employment in corrections but who do not currently hold a professional degree.

#### ● Manpower Shortages

Manpower studies are usually based on the assumptions of an actual or imminent shortage of the supply of a particular group at a specific salary level. It has been categorically stated that the supply of specialized

minority group members for possible employment in corrections is short and the demand is great.<sup>6</sup> Thus widespread minority manpower shortages in corrections are assumed to exist.

#### ● Data

Manpower data, especially for the professional fields, are collected by discipline or occupational categories. The number of degrees conferred in a given field can be determined and then projected over a given time period. The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) publishes a periodic report on earned degrees conferred in higher education. In addition, the U.S. Department of Labor (DOL) publishes periodic labor force projections. From these and other data, a determination can be made of the number of minority persons expected to hold particular occupations in the labor force at a given time. This study used HEW and DOL data and projections plus additional data concerning minority representation in particular fields.

National priorities have been identified by Blechman, Gramlich, and Hartman.<sup>7</sup> The six areas of highest priority are: (1) defense and international affairs; (2) general science, space and technology; (3) national resources, environment, and energy; (4) aid to businesses, agriculture and communities; (5) human resources, law enforcement, justice and general government; and (6) revenue sharing and general purpose fiscal assistance. As related to minority group manpower, the commonality of these areas was more important than their differences, because:

- They draw from the same general pool of minority professionals;

- They compete for the federal dollar; and
- Within a given priority area, there is often strong competition for the professional (specialized) minority group member.

D. STUDY METHODOLOGY

This study used a combination of primary and secondary data -- largely secondary data -- to provide:

- Information about the present and potential utilization of specified categories of specialized manpower in the corrections field;
- Data concerning the present overall supply and demand for personnel in their occupations;
- Data concerning the present supply of minority personnel in corrections-related occupations
- Projections of the supply and -- to a lesser extent -- demand for personnel in the specified occupations from 1975 through 1980.

The overall study methodology involved the following procedures:

Survey

The state department of corrections in the six specified states were surveyed to collect correctional manpower forecast data projected for 1975 through 1980. These data would have been used to determine the states' demand for correctional personnel. Of the seven target institutions, the only states responding to the survey were Mississippi and Ohio. The manpower forecast data provided by the state of Ohio was limited to FY75 and was therefore of limited value. The

state of Mississippi indicated it was impossible to project corrections manpower requirements for even a three year period. However, data on the number of correctional officers that would be needed for FY77 was provided. Again, it was of little value in constructing a five-year profile of demand for corrections personnel.

The supply projections made in this study consisted of four basic steps. Supply was defined as the number of persons (workers) expected to enter an occupation during a specific period of time if past trends continue. The first step was to determine the current supply (i.e., the total number of employed persons and unemployed persons seeking employment in a particular occupation). The current supply data served as a base for making the projections.

The second step was to determine the number of persons expected to enter an occupation as a result of having completed training. For the purposes of this study, these individuals are termed graduates.

The third step was to determine the number of persons expected to enter an occupation from sources other than training programs. For example, other sources might be retired persons re-entering the labor force, immigrants, persons entering from other fields, etc.

The fourth step was to determine a replacement rate.

A replacement rate is the total number of persons leaving an occupational area because of death, retirement, or transfer. After these four steps had been completed, the base current supply was added to the yearly estimate of new entrants and then the replacement rate was subtracted.

The following kinds of secondary data were used:

U.S. Department of Labor

- Manpower Reports to the President
- Manpower Needs Studies
- Labor Force Projections
- Area Trends in Employment and Unemployment
- Occupational Outlook Bulletins
- Projections on Professional Manpower

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare

- Projections on Educational Statistics
- Degrees Conferred
- School Enrollment
- Actuarial Data
- Health Resources
- Social and Rehabilitation Services

U.S. Department of Commerce

- 1970 Census Data on General Characteristics of the Population
- Current Population Reports
- County Business Patterns
- County and City Data.

Secondary data from a number of professional organizations were used. For example:

American Bar Association  
American Association of Theological Schools  
American Medical Association  
American Nurses Association  
American Psychological Association  
American Library Association  
Council on Social Work Education  
Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training  
National Bar Association  
National Education Association  
National Medical Association  
National Recreation and Park Association.

To a considerable extent the study depended upon secondary source data. The use of such data has certain limitations, however, which should be clearly stated. The most important of these limitations are as follows:

- In many instances, there is incomplete or inadequate data concerning the number of minority personnel within an occupation or the number of Blacks. In some occupations, even the total supply estimates are of uncertain validity. While the best which can be made with available information, the projections are uncertain when the data was inadequate. Each chapter of the report describes data sources and makes any serious data limitations clear to the reader.
- Some of the supply data pre-dates this study by up to six years which were used to make projections of present as well as future supplies of personnel in some occupations. It is recognized that such projections are likely to be less accurate than those based on more recent data.
- In a few instances, little or no information was available on the supply of Black or other personnel already working in the occupation, or their numbers among those enrolled in undergraduate or graduate schools pursuing

degrees germane to selected occupations. When such information was not available, projections were made of the overall supply rather than the number of Black or minority personnel expected to be available from 1975 through 1980.

## II. FACTORS AFFECTING THE SUPPLY OF PROFESSIONAL MINORITY GROUP MEMBERS

### A. POTENTIAL SUPPLY OF MINORITY MANPOWER

#### Projections of the Population and Labor Force

Employment of specialized workers increased more rapidly in the 1950's and 1960's than any other occupational group.<sup>8</sup> In the 1970's there was a turnaround in the job market due chiefly to an economic recession, changes in national priorities, and a resulting general slowdown in business activity and employment. Gains in employment of specialized workers will be heavily influenced by the extent to which an economic upturn occurs. Studies by the Department of Labor indicate employment of specialized workers as a group is expected to increase about twice as fast as total employment over the 1970's.<sup>9</sup>

Figure 1 shows that the projected population of the United States as of July 1, 1975, including the Armed Forces overseas, was 213.5 million -- a 0.7 percent increase from the previous year. Current population estimates and projections place the U.S. total population at 223 million by 1980.<sup>10</sup>

The total labor force of the United States is expected to rise by nearly 20 percent during the 1970's, from 85.9 million at the beginning of this decade to 101.8 million in

FIGURE 1

PROJECTIONS OF TOTAL POPULATION AND AVERAGE ANNUAL PERCENT CHANGE IN TOTAL POPULATION FOR SELECTED YEARS, 1975 to 1980

<u>Year</u>	<u>Annual Projections (in thousands)</u>	<u>Average Annual Percent of Change</u>
1975	213,450	0.7
1976	215,074	0.5
1977	216,814	0.8
1978	218,678	0.9
1979	220,663	0.9
1980	222,769	0.9

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Population Estimates and Projections, Series p-25, No. 601, October, 1975.

1980. For the duration of the current decade, the population of persons expected to participate in the labor force is approximately 43 percent of the total population.

The 1970 census data show 12 percent of the U.S. population reported themselves as being of non-European origin or descent: 11 percent were Negro and one percent were "other races". In this report, data for the grouping "other races" were used to represent data for Blacks, since Blacks constitute about 92 percent of all persons in that grouping. In addition to Blacks, the grouping includes American Indians, Filipinos, Chinese, and Japanese, among others.

At the beginning of 1975 the estimated population for Blacks and other races (including Armed Forces overseas) was about 28 million. By 1980, the population for these groups is expected to reach the 30 million mark. This represents an average annual growth rate of 1.9 percent for Blacks and "other races".

Because of its younger structure, the Black population is projected to grow at a faster rate than the white population. The 1975 estimated Black population was 24.5 million. At the beginning of the next decade this population is expected to be approximately 26 million, an increase of 7.4 percent over the 1975 Black population. The annual average

percent of change is projected to be 1.5 percent. For the remainder of this century, the Black population is projected to be younger than the white population. Figure 2 shows a projected increase in the median age of the total U.S. population. The general population is expected to grow older (as defined by median age) for the remainder of this decade and throughout the rest of the century. The median age is expected to increase from 28.8 years in 1975 to 29.5 years in 1980. Figure 2 also shows that from 1975 to 1980 the median age of the total Black population is expected to increase from 23.4 to 24.4 years. The median age for whites is now 6.1 years higher than that for Blacks; in 1980, the difference will be reduced only slightly to 6.0 years.

A total of 12.5 million Black men and women are expected to be in the labor force by 1980, three million more than in 1968. The projected labor force growth rate for Blacks (33 percent) is higher than that projected for whites (21 percent). The difference in growth rates is attributed to the increase in the Black population, especially the under-35 population. The expected patterns of change for Black and white workers are basically the same, according to DOL projections:

"Workers under 25 will account for a large proportion of the increase for both, but a larger proportion for the Negroes. For both, the most spectacular increase will take place in the 25-34 olds, where there will be 65 percent more Negro



FIGURE 2

PROJECTIONS OF MEDIAN AGE BY RACE AND SEX

Year	BLACK			BLACK AND OTHER RACES			WHITE			TOTAL		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1975	23.4	22.2	24.5	23.7	22.6	24.7	29.5	28.3	20.9	28.8	27.6	29.5
1976	23.6	22.4	24.7	23.9	22.8	25.0	29.6	28.4	31.0	28.9	27.7	30.0
1977	23.8	22.7	24.9	24.1	22.9	25.2	29.9	28.7	31.4	29.1	27.9	30.3
1978	24.0	22.8	25.1	24.3	23.1	25.4	30.1	28.9	31.5	29.3	28.1	30.5
1979	24.2	23.0	25.4	24.4	23.3	25.6	30.3	29.1	31.6	29.4	28.3	30.7
1980	24.4	23.2	25.6	24.6	23.4	25.8	30.4	29.2	31.7	29.5	28.4	30.8

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Population Estimates and Projections of the Population of the United States: 1975 to 2050, Series P-25, No. 601. U.S. Department of Commerce. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975.

men and women workers in these ages than in 1968, a slightly greater relative increase than among white workers. For both Negroes and whites, the labor force 35 years old and over will show only a small rate of growth, reflecting a combination of slow population growth through age 54 and earlier retirement in ages above that.<sup>11</sup>

The above data indicate that there will not be a shortage of Blacks in the labor force during the next half decade.

B. PROJECTIONS OF THE GROWTH RATES OF CORRECTIONS-RELATED DISCIPLINES

The supply of minority group members with training in professions having some significance for corrections can be understood only in the context of a variety of related factors including: the expected growth rates of specific disciplines; levels of minority enrollment in college at some previous time; minority educational attainment; the size of the civilian labor force; the total minority population; the age and sex of the minority population; the intellectual and socioeconomic attraction of occupations that require high levels of training; and the demand for highly trained minority group members in general.<sup>12</sup> Two principal factors limit the supply of highly-trained minority group members: the fertility rates of the general minority population and the processing capacity of the educational system. Subsumed under these two factors are other variables such as equal educational opportunity, financial aid, family support, achievement motivation, etc.

Projected Growth by Occupation

Figure 3 presents the percentage of growth for selected occupational groups for the present decade (1970-1980). These occupational groups supply employers in the corrections field with a significant proportion of their specialized manpower. All the groups are expected to grow, with the rate of growth ranging from about ten percent (for librarians) to 78 percent (for recreational workers). Thus the overall supply of personnel in corrections-related occupations is expected to increase significantly during this decade.

Earned Degrees

The U.S. Office of Education used the Taxonomy of Instructional Programs in Higher Education (TIPHE) to categorize earned degrees reported to the National Center for Educational Statistics and published in Projections of Educational Statistics to 1983-84. TIPHE categories containing the specialized manpower groups listed by the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower Training (1970) as having an investment in corrections are presented in Figure 4, along with the specialized corrections-related occupations included in each category.

An estimated 1.3 million degrees were earned in 1974-75. By 1980-81, this number is expected to have increased by 11 percent.

FIGURE 3

PROJECTED PERCENT GROWTH IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS: 1970-1980

Occupational Group:	PERCENT GROWTH*					
	0-20	20-40	40-60	60-80	80-100	100 or more
All Occupational Groups	20					
All Professional and Technical Occupational Groups	38					
Social Workers		58				
Recreational Workers			78			
Psychologists		65				
Physicians		45				
Registered Nurses		46				
Dentists	13					
Lawyers	14					
Public Affairs and Services	26					
Education	16					
Librarians	10					

\*In most cases, the percentages of growth for each occupation are independent estimates

Source: U. S. Office of Education. Manpower and Issues in Professions and Higher Education. 1972 Manpower Report for the President, U. S. Department of Labor, 1972, p. 112.

FIGURE 4

INDIVIDUAL FIELDS OF STUDY RELATED TO CORRECTIONS

TIPHE	JCCMT
I. Social Sciences: Psychology Public Affairs Library Science	Psychologists Social Workers Librarians
II. Natural Science and Miscellaneous Fields:  Health Professions Education  Law Theology	Physicians, Nurses, Dentists Academic Teachers, Vocational Counselors, Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors, Vocational Teachers, Recreation Counselors Lawyers Chaplains

Sources: National Center for Educational Statistics; Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1970

Educational Projections

Simons and Frankel<sup>13</sup> report that the number of earned bachelor's degrees in all major fields more than doubled during the ten year period from 1963-64 to 1973-74. However, only a six percent increase is projected from 1973-74 to 1980-81. It was estimated that 975,000 bachelor's degrees were conferred in 1974-75; slightly more than one million bachelor's degrees are expected to be conferred during 1980-81. Moreover, 316,000 master's, 42,000 doctor's, and 62,400 first-professional degrees are expected to be conferred between 1974-75 and 1980-81. Master's and doctor's degrees are expected to increase by 13 percent. Figure 5 shows first professional degrees expected to be earned by field for each year from 1975 through 1980; it shows the total number of first professional degrees awarded annually in medicine, law, dentistry, other health professions, and theology increasing 15 percent between 1975 and 1980.

College Enrollment

Colleges and universities in the United States had an enrollment in the fall of 1972 of 8.3 million students under 35 years old. Both the number of persons of the principal ages (16 to 35) for college attendance and the percent of these persons who are enrolled in college have increased tremendously in the past 20 years.<sup>14</sup>

FIGURE 5

EARNED FIRST PROFESSIONAL DEGREES BY FIELD OF STUDY: 1975-1980

Year	FIELD					Total
	Medicine	Dentistry	Other Health Professions	Law	Theology and Others	
1975	12,730	4,890	3,300	28,290	6,300	55,510
1976	13,810	5,400	3,400	29,910	6,400	58,920
1977	14,260	5,210	3,500	30,710	5,400	60,180
1978	14,710	5,150	3,600	31,410	6,600	61,470
1979	15,230	5,490	3,700	31,710	6,700	62,830
1980	15,490	5,540	3,800	32,190	6,800	63,820

Sources: Projections of Educational Statistics to 1980-84, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1974 Edition.

Projections of Educational Statistics to 1984-85. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Washington, D.C., 1976 (in print).

The college enrollment of the Black population 14 to 34 years old increased from 234,000 in 1964 to 814,000 in 1974. This represents a 248 percent increase over a ten-year period. However, it also represents only a one percent change in terms of the percent of Blacks among the total college student enrollment in the United States, from eight percent in 1964 to nine percent in 1974.<sup>15</sup>

Educational Attainment

The educational attainment levels of the American population have steadily risen over the last 35 years. In 1940, women were more likely to hold a high school diploma than men. By 1974, similar proportions of males and females held high school diplomas. Significant differences, however, still exist in the proportion of Blacks and whites between the ages 25 and 34 who have completed high school. According to the Bureau of the Census figures, in 1974, 82 percent of white males but only 67 percent of Black males of this age category held high school diplomas.<sup>16</sup> However, the difference in the proportion of Blacks and whites with high school diplomas decreased from 27 percentage points difference in 1940 to 15 percentage points difference in 1974.

Figure 6 shows educational attainment in quartiles of the population, by race and sex, from 1940 to 1974. One-fourth of all white males between the ages of 25 and 30 had

FIGURE 6

QUARTILES OF DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT BY RACE AND SEX, FOR PERSONS 25 TO 34 YEARS OLD: 1940 TO 1974

Sex and Year	WHITE			BLACK		
	1st quartile	2nd quartile (median)	3rd quartile	1st quartile	2nd quartile (median)	3rd quartile
MALE						
1974.....	12.2	12.8	16.0	11.1	12.4	13.0
1973.....	12.1	12.8	15.3	10.5	12.3	12.9
1970.....	12.0	12.7	14.9	9.6	11.9	12.7
1965.....	11.2	12.5	14.3	8.7	11.5	12.7
1960.....	9.8	12.3	13.7	7.3	9.8	12.3
1950.....	8.9	12.0	12.9	5.3	8.0	11.0
1940.....	8.3	10.1	12.5	3.6	6.3	8.6
FEMALE						
1974.....	12.1	12.7	14.3	10.8	12.3	12.9
1973.....	12.1	12.6	13.9	10.5	12.3	12.9
1970.....	12.0	12.5	13.1	10.4	12.2	12.8
1965.....	11.3	12.4	12.9	9.3	11.6	12.7
1960.....	10.4	12.3	12.9	8.3	10.6	12.4
1950.....	9.3	12.1	12.8	5.1	8.6	11.6
1940.....	8.5	10.6	12.6	5.1	7.3	9.5

FROM: Current Population Reports. Population Characteristics. Educational Attainment in the United States: March 1973 and 1974. Series P-20, No. 274, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D. C. (December, 1974), p.4.

completed four years or more of college education and one-fourth of all Black males of the same ages had completed at least one year of college. Thus, the disparity in educational attainment of the top quartiles was three years. The disparity for females was slightly smaller. One-fourth of white females had completed at least 2.3 years of college, while the top fourth of Black females had completed almost one year of college or more -- a difference of 1.4 years.

There are also large differences in the proportions of Black and white male high school graduates 20 to 21 years old who have completed some college. In 1970, 61 percent of all white males and 40 percent of all Black male high school graduates had completed some college. In the same year, the proportions for Black and white females were 44 percent and 32 percent respectively. By 1974, the gap between this age group of Black and white males had decreased to 14 points (51 percent for white versus 37 percent for Blacks), and only three percentage points separated Black and white females.

#### Size of the Civilian Minority Labor Force

In 1975 it was estimated that 17 million Black and other minorities were participating in the civilian labor force. At the beginning of the next decade (1980), this number is expected to have increased to 19.6 million.

Projection of labor force participation rates involves consideration of the educational attainment levels of the labor force. There is a positive relationship between educational attainment and labor force participation rates. For example, 1970 census data show that only two percent of male college graduates aged 45 to 54 were not in the labor force, as compared with 11 percent of males in the same age group who had less than a high school diploma; 33 percent of female college graduates of this age group were not in the labor force, as compared with 53 percent of females 45 to 54 without a high school diploma. Figure 7 shows the positive relationship between education and labor force participation. For male college graduates aged 25 to 54, only five percent of Blacks and two percent of whites were not in the labor force.

The labor force participation rates for Black women -- particularly married women -- are expected to be higher than for white women, partly due to income differentials. Black male college graduates earn only 64 percent as much as white male college graduates; thus there is often a need for a second income. However, while Black females are more likely to be in the labor force than white females, the labor participation rates for female college graduates of both races in 1970 were significantly lower than those for males. Twenty-six percent of Black and 37 percent of white female

FIGURE 7

CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, AGE, AND SEX: MARCH, 1974

YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED AND SEX	16 years and over		16 to 26 years		25 to 54 years		55 years and over	
	Black and other races	White	Black and other races	White	Black and other races	White	Black and other races	White
MEN								
Total.....	73.0	78.9	62.1	71.0	89.9	95.3	47.5	51.5
Elementary: 8 years or less..	54.7	57.6	50.8	61.9	82.3	88.5	40.1	37.5
High School: 1 to 3 years.....	68.4	70.7	48.5	58.9	92.1	94.6	65.8	54.3
4 years .....	88.0	87.8	84.4	85.9	92.1	96.7	69.3	62.7
College: 1 to 3 years.....	78.7	81.7	65.4	68.0	91.1	95.0	(B)	64.2
4 years or more..	91.3	90.9	(B)	83.4	95.1	97.6	(B)	65.5
WOMEN								
Total.....	48.2	44.8	43.4	56.0	59.4	52.8	27.4	23.3
Elementary: 8 years or less..	31.8	22.4	32.8	30.2	45.2	39.6	22.0	13.8
High School: 1 to 3 years.....	39.7	39.4	26.3	41.9	53.5	47.3	28.1	23.8
4 years.....	59.3	50.5	56.7	63.4	62.9	53.2	44.1	30.6
College: 1 to 3 years.....	63.6	52.5	55.4	62.7	72.6	55.0	(B)	30.5
4 years or more..	74.4	62.6	76.1	86.6	79.7	66.8	50.7	34.7

From: The Social and Economic Status of the Black Population in the United States, 1974. U.S. Department of Commerce, Social and Economic Statistics Administration, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975, P.62.

college graduates 16 years old and over were not in the labor force. The labor force participation rates for female college graduates between 25 and 54 years of age were 80 percent for Blacks and 67 percent for whites.<sup>17</sup>

The Department of Labor's 1972 Manpower Report to the President<sup>18</sup> used the U.S. Office of Education's projections of the number of degrees expected to be earned from 1970-1979 to estimate the supply of college-educated workers. The estimates were as follows:

	(Number in Millions)
Estimated number of earned degrees, 1970-79. . . . .	13.6
Deduct number delaying entry into civilian labor force beyond 1980. . . . .	4.4
Add number of new labor force entrants with degrees earned before 1970 or at foreign universities . . . . .	.6
Total. . . . .	9.8

These data show 9.8 million new college educated workers are expected to enter the labor force between 1970 and 1980.

Demand for College Educated Workers

Given estimates of the supply of new college educated workers, the question to be answered next is, how large a demand will there be for such workers? To answer this question the U.S. Department of Labor developed projections of demand from the following sources:

- The expansion in employment anticipated in the professions and other types of work already requiring college degrees;
- The need to replace workers who die, retire, or leave the labor force for other reasons; and
- The persistent trend toward requiring (or preferring) a college degree for jobs previously performed by workers with less education.

The demand for college educated workers -- allowing for educational upgrading, employment expansion in the profession anticipated under full employment in 1980, and replacement needs -- are presented below. The main conclusion drawn from these data was, "The general scarcity of professional personnel and the intense demand for college graduates which prevailed during most of the 60's have come to a temporary end."<sup>19</sup>

PROJECTED DEMAND FOR COLLEGE-EDUCATED WORKERS: 1970-1980	
Source of Demand	Number (in Millions)
Total. . . . .	9.6
Employment Expansion . . . . .	3.3
Professional and Technical Occupations . . . . .	2.6
Other Occupations. . . . .	0.7
Educational Upgrading. . . . .	2.6
Professional and Technical Occupations . . . . .	1.3
Other Occupations. . . . .	1.3
Replacement Needs. . . . .	3.7



### Conclusions

The foregoing data suggest that a high proportion of those Blacks and other minority group members who have specialized training are in the labor force, and that an increased supply of minorities with specialized training can be expected by 1980. However, this should not be interpreted to mean there are a large number of Blacks in fields related to corrections. Moreover, the foregoing data do not provide estimates of the numbers of Blacks in the individual fields of study relevant to corrections. The following chapters provide these estimates, by occupation.

### III. PHYSICIANS

#### A. CURRENT SUPPLY OF MINORITY PHYSICIANS

Regardless of projections used, corrections will be in need of more physicians in the years to come.<sup>20</sup> The shortage of minority physicians is acute and the demand great. In 1942 there were only 4,000 Black physicians in the United States, a physician-to-population ratio of 1:3,377. (The generally accepted minimal standard was then 1:1,500.) Thirty years later the number of Black physicians had risen to 6,049.

Although the number of Black physicians increased by approximately 50 percent from 1942 to 1972, they represent only 1.75 percent of the total number of physicians in this country. The total physician population, according to the American Medical Association<sup>1/</sup> in 1973 was 366,379. About 6 percent of this population was listed in AMA files as inactive, 1,488 (6.5 percent) were retired, and 3,148 (or 13.9 percent) were semi-retired.

Black physicians are not equally distributed through the country. Thompson<sup>21</sup> found that 62 percent of a sample of 3,405 Black physicians were located in the Middle Atlantic

<sup>1/</sup>Personal communication from American Medical Association, February 19, 1976.

South Atlantic, and Pacific regions, with New York, the District of Columbia, and California being the three leading states in which Black physicians had established practices.

The 1970 census count and Thompson's survey data on Black physicians are compared in Figure 8 for the states of particular interest to this study. The similarity of the percentages supports claims of reliability and representativeness of the data. The census data were used to calculate the physician-to-population ratios.

Until very recently, most Black physicians in the United States were educated at either Howard University Medical School or Meharry Medical College. In 1969, slightly more than 80 percent of practicing Black physicians were graduates of one of these two schools.<sup>22</sup> While the number of Black medical students showed some increases in the 1950's and 1960's (for example, the number of Black medical students in American medical schools increased from 588 in 1948 to 761 in 1956, a 29 percent increase, but was only 783 in 1968), the numbers involved have been very small until the past decade.

**B. PROJECTED SUPPLY OF MINORITY PHYSICIANS**

If the services of minority physicians are to be obtained for the corrections field, this probably will be accomplished primarily through the recruitment of newly

FIGURE 8

PHYSICIAN-TO-POPULATION RATIOS AMONG BLACKS IN SIX STATES<sup>1</sup>

States	Census Data (1970) <sup>2</sup>		Thompson's Survey (1972) <sup>3</sup>		Total Black Population	Ratio
	Percent	Number	Number	Percent		
California	12.5	763	488	14.0	1,545,000 <sup>4</sup>	1:3,165
Michigan	4.9	303	198	6.0	1,063,000	1:5,369
Ohio	4.6	282	173	5.0	1,013,000	1:5,855
New Jersey	4.2	262	130	3.8	770,000	1:5,923
Louisiana	1.1	72	41	1.2	1,112,000	1:27,121
Mississippi	1.4	89	31	0.9	835,000	1:26,935

<sup>1</sup>Only data pertaining to the several specified states were used. Therefore, percentages do not add to 100, nor does the sum equal N.

<sup>2</sup>Number (6,102) includes physicians and medical osteopaths.

<sup>3</sup>Sample size: 3,405

<sup>4</sup>Population estimates as of July 1, 1973. New Jersey estimate based on 1970 census.

graduated physicians. The data show a short but increasing supply of Black and other minority medical students. In 1962 the National Medical Fellowship<sup>23</sup> estimated "the total number of Negro students [was] less than 3 percent of all medical students." Nine years later (1971) Curtis<sup>24</sup> said Black medical students were only 2.5 percent of the total medical student population. Most recently Evans<sup>25</sup> reported the percentage of Black medical students had increased from 2.2 percent in 1968-69 to 6.3 percent in 1974-75. In short, the number of Blacks enrolled in American medical schools increased by more than 400 percent over a seven-year period. The specific number of students enrolled for each year was as follows:

Year	Total Black Enrollment
1968-69	783
1969-70	1,042
1970-71	1,509
1971-72	2,055
1972-73	2,582
1973-74	3,048
1974-75	3,555

A more detailed examination of the numbers and percentage of minority group enrollment in American medical schools revealed a slight increase in first year enrollment for Blacks but their proportion of the total medical student population remained the same over a two-academic-year period. Likewise, there were slight increases in the first-year enrollments for

Mexican-Americans and Puerto Ricans. Only the enrollment of American Indians remained the same. None of the percentages for minorities changed significantly.

The proportion of minority group members graduating from American medical schools increased from 3.9 percent in 1972-73 to 6.3 percent in 1974-75, a 61.5 percent increase. However, the total medical school enrollment for these two academic years increased from 47,546 to 54,014, a 14 percent increase.

The 1973-74 estimates of minority medical school graduates were used to develop projections of the number of minorities expected to graduate from 1975 to 1980. The number of graduating Blacks and Mexican-Americans is expected to increase annually during this period; the number of American-Indians and Puerto Rican graduates is expected to rise only slightly.

Additional projections were required to estimate the total number of Black physicians in practice from 1975 to 1980.

The National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS)<sup>26</sup> reported a standardized mortality ratio of 160 for Black physicians and surgeons, based on vital health statistics and 1950 census data. A standardized mortality ratio compares the tabulated number of deaths in an occupation with the number

to be expected had the death rate for the total population with work experience prevailed in that occupation.

Since the NCHS publication in 1962 there has been only one report (Goodman<sup>27</sup>) of physicians' mortality which utilized a population-based approach. Unfortunately, the standardized mortality ratios (SMR) were based only on whites and therefore could not be used in this report. Moreover, Goodman's suggestion of inaccuracies in content and coverage of the NCHS 1962 report precluded using the SMR for Black physicians for purposes of this study. Instead, the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare<sup>28</sup> death rate of 11.1 per thousand population for non-white males was used to develop an annual death rate for Black physicians. However, the HEW rate of 11.1 per thousand non-white male population may be somewhat conservative; Goodman reported the total death rate per thousand white physicians was 11.07.

The AMA Center for Health Statistics,<sup>29</sup> utilizing 1973 data, has done some work on retirement for physicians. Of the 22,624 physicians listed as inactive in AMA files, 1,488 (6.5 percent) were retired; and 3,148 (or 13.9 percent) were semi-retired. These data show that 1.3 percent of all physicians listed by AMA were either retired or semi-retired. The data were not broken down by race.

The National Medical Association had no retirement data on Black physicians, nor did any other organization. Because

a retirement rate for Black doctors could not be found, the AMA retirement rate of 1.3 percent per year was used to develop a replacement figure.

Estimates of the number of Black physicians in this country vary. The 1970 census count reported 6,106; Thompson<sup>30</sup> estimated 6,049; and Evans<sup>31</sup> reported 6,048. A base number of 6,213 (1.75 percent of the currently estimated 335,000 active physicians) was used to formulate projections because for the past 25 years Black physicians have been approximately 1.75 percent of the total physician population.

Projections of the total number of practicing Black physicians from 1975 to 1980 can be seen in Figure 9. A 36 percent increase is projected, from 6,637 in 1975 to 9,042 in 1980. The physician-to-population ratio would be one Black physician for every 2,909 Blacks, about twice as large as the recommended minimal standard ratio of 1:1,500. Currently there is one white doctor per 602 whites in the general population.

It should be noted that the 1980 projected number of physicians does not mean that all the 9,042 doctors will be involved in direct patient care. Some will be involved in research, administration, etc. However, Figure 9 shows the projected total supply of Black physicians practicing in the United States from 1975 to 1980.

FIGURE 9.

PROJECTIONS OF THE NUMBER OF BLACK PHYSICIANS: 1975-80

Year	1976 Black M.D. Graduates <sup>1</sup>	Total Number of Black Physicians
1975	573	6,637
1976	621	7,099
1977	641	7,580
1978	661	8,059
1979	685	8,550
1980	697	9,042

<sup>1</sup>It was assumed that Blacks will remain 4.5 percent of the medical graduate population from 1975-80.

The critical shortage of Black physicians projected from 1975 through 1980 portends difficulty for any recruitment efforts by corrections.

#### IV. DENTISTS

##### A. CURRENT SUPPLY

There is currently an extremely limited supply of Black dentists. Moreover, in 1970 Thompson noted a steady decline in the proportion of American dentists who are Black, from three percent in 1930 to two percent in the 1960's. The American Dental Association estimated the 1974 supply of dentists to be 128,711, an overall dentist-to-population ratio of 1:1, 635. The dentist-to-population ratio among Blacks is six times as high as the ratio among whites.

There were 2,000 Black dentists in the U.S. in 1970, according to 1970 census data. More recently, Sinkford<sup>32</sup> estimated "there were roughly 2,000 Black dentists." The Black dentist-to-population ratio is about 1:12,500, a slight increase over Thompson's 1970 estimated ratio of 1:12,000.

The general shortage of dentists precludes services above maintenance levels at federal and state correctional institutions. In 1968, 427 additional dentists were needed in order to provide quality dental health services to inmates of federal correctional institutions alone.<sup>33</sup> No estimate of the number of dentists currently needed in state correctional institutions was available. It was assumed that correction's current need for dental health manpower will remain at least at the 1970 level.

##### B. PROJECTED SUPPLY OF BLACK DENTISTS

In 1975-76, 20,767 students were enrolled in 58 American dental schools; 2,020 of these were classified as ethnic minorities. Of the 2,020 minority students, 945 (47 percent) are Black.

The 1975 enrollment in dental schools represented a 16 percent increase from 1971. During this five-year period, the proportion of minority students increased from 6.2 percent to 9.7 percent of the total enrollment, as indicated by the following:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total Enrollment</u>	<u>Total Minority Enrollment</u>	<u>Percent Minority Enrollment</u>
1971	17,305	1,081	6.2
1972	18,376	1,371	7.5
1973	19,369	1,656	8.5
1974	20,146	1,823	7.0
1975	20,767	2,020	9.7

A summary of the enrollment statistics for minority students at the first, second, third and fourth year levels of study during academic years 1973-74 through 1975-76 showed the minority proportion of the total enrollment did not change significantly. The average Black student enrollment over the four classes changed from 4.5 to 4.7 percent; the percentage for Puerto Rican students remained the same at 0.1 percent; Mexican-American student enrollment increased from 0.9 percent

to 1.1 percent; the enrollment of American Indians increased from 2.6 to 2.8 percent; and minorities in the "other" category increased from 0.4 to 0.6 percent.

In 1966-67, according to Henry,<sup>34</sup> 89 percent of all Black dental students in this country were enrolled at Howard University and Meharry dental schools. By 1969-70, that percentage had decreased to 78 percent and to 47 percent by 1974-75. Henry attributed the "precipitous drop" to successful recruitment of Black dental students by other medical colleges.

C. PROJECTED SUPPLY OF MINORITY DENTISTS

The potential supply of minority dental manpower for services in correctional facilities is largely a function of the production of minority graduates by dental schools. From 1971-74 American dental schools graduated a total of 1,031 minority students. Although the proportion of graduating minority students increased from three percent in 1973 to seven percent in 1975, the percentage remains small in comparison with the total number of dental school graduates. Figure 10 contrasts the actual and projected number of minority dental school graduates with the total number of students expected to graduate from 1976 through 1980. If the percentage of dental degrees conferred on minority students follows the 1974-75 trend (i.e., minorities continue to

FIGURE 10  
ACTUAL AND PROJECTED NUMBER OF MINORITY STUDENTS GRADUATING  
FROM AMERICAN DENTAL SCHOOLS: 1970-80

Year	Total Number of Graduates	Minority Graduates	Percent of Increase of Minority Graduates
1970	3,749	---	---
1971	3,775	137	---
1972	3,961	167	21.9
1973	4,230	241	44.3
1974	4,515	355	39.0
1975	4,969	368	10.0
Projections			
1976	5,060	374	6.1
1977	5,140	380	1.4
1978	5,210	385	1.2
1979	5,290	391	1.5
1980	5,390	399	2.0

Source: Bureau of Health Manpower, Division of Dental Health

It was assumed that the proportion of minority graduates would remain at the 1974 percentage (7.4) from 1975 through 1980.

represent 7.4 percent of total graduates) through 1980, only a six percent increase in the number of minority graduates is expected.

The National Center for Health Statistics<sup>35</sup> reported a standardized mortality ratio of 125 per thousand for Black dentists. This ratio was based on vital health statistics and 1950 census data. However, it was not used in this study because it contains certain deficiencies. Instead, the death rate (11.1) per thousand non-whites published in HEW's Facts of Life and Death<sup>36</sup> was used in the development of replacement figures.

Rhodes<sup>37</sup> reported 18 deaths and four retirements among Black dentists for the year 1951, a replacement rate of 22.

It was assumed that the current death rate for Black dentists is no greater than that for the U.S. Black population of the same age and sex. Therefore, 23 deaths per 2,098 Black dentists were expected for the year 1970. A replacement rate of 31 was obtained when the 1951 retirement was doubled and added to the death rate. It was assumed that the retirement rate has at least doubled since 1951.

The replacement rate for white dentists, according to the Bureau of Health Manpower, will increase by seven percent from 1970-1980. Figure 11 shows that the replacement rate for Black dentists is expected to increase by the same 11.4 percent

FIGURE 11

DENTIST-TO-POPULATION RATIO AMONG THE BLACK POPULATION

State	Dentists <sup>1</sup> 1970	Black <sup>2</sup> Population	Dentist/ Population Ratio
California	175	1,545,000	1:8,829
Louisiana	37	1,112,000	1:30,054
Michigan	122	1,963,000	1:8,491
Mississippi	26	835,000	1:32,115
New Jersey	101	770,000	1:7,623
Ohio	197	1,013,000	1:9,467

<sup>1</sup>Lord Cecil Rhodes' Directory of Black Dentists Registered in the United States: 1972-73. Medical Dynamics, Norfolk, Virginia, 1973.

<sup>2</sup>Population estimates as of July 1, 1973. New Jersey's Population estimate based on the 1970 census.



from the beginning to the end of the present decade. Projections of the total number of dentists and the total number of Black dentists expected by 1980 are also included in Figure 11.

Figure 12 compares the number of registered Black dentists with the Black population in each state of special interest to this study. The ratios are extremely large. In no state does the dentist-to-population ratio for Black compare favorably with the ratio for whites.

The ratios range from 1:7,623 in New Jersey to 1:30,054 in Louisiana. It does not appear likely that a significant number of Black dentists can be recruited for professional services in corrections, at least in the six specified states.

FIGURE 12

ACTUAL AND PROJECTED TOTAL NUMBER OF DENTISTS IN THE U.S. FROM 1970-80

Year	ALL DENTISTS			BLACK DENTISTS		
	Total Number of Dentists	Total Number <sup>2</sup> of Graduates	Replacement <sup>3</sup>	Graduates	Replacement	Total Number Black Dentists
1970	110,916	3,749		55		2,098
1971		3,775	2,230	74	22	2,131
1972	123,349	3,961	2,280	74	22	2,183
1973	--	4,230	2,300	110	22	2,271
1974	128,711	4,515	2,320	154	23	2,402
Independent Projections <sup>1</sup>						
1975	130,906	4,969	2,320	187	24	2,565
1976	133,626	5,060	2,340	237	24	2,778
Independent Projections <sup>4</sup>						
1977	136,396	5,140	2,370	241	217	3,043
1978	139,226	5,210	2,380	245	221	3,264
1979	142,116	5,290	2,400	249	225	3,537
1980	145,106	5,390	2,400	253	228	3,765

<sup>1</sup>Independent Projections

<sup>2,3</sup>Projections of the Division of Dental Health, Bureau of Health Manpower, DHEW

<sup>4</sup>Independent Projections

57

## V. REGISTERED NURSES

### A. CURRENT SUPPLY

The role of a nurse in correctional settings is equivalent to the role of a nurse in any public or private hospital. Nursing services in corrections typically include general duty nursing, surgical nursing, psychiatric nursing, and sometimes geriatric care. In addition, nursing can make important contributions in teaching principles of health and hygiene and toward meeting the educational, cultural and social needs of the offenders.<sup>38</sup>

The American Nurses Association conducts periodic surveys of registered nurse manpower. The latest survey, the 1972 Inventory of Registered Nurses, showed there were 1,127,657 licensed Registered Nurses. Approximately 69 percent (778,470) were employed in nursing. When adjustments were made for non-responses, the count was 794,979 employed RN's in 1972. In 1973, there were an estimated 815,000 employed RN's -- an increase of five percent over the previous year. There has been a steady rise in the number of RN's per 100,000 population from 1958-1973. According to projections of the Bureau of Human Resources Development, there are currently (1976) 932,800 registered nurses employed in the U.S.

New York has the largest number of active RN's in the country (68,118). As seen in Figure 13, which shows the supply of nurses in the six states of particular interest for this study, Ohio, New Jersey, and Michigan have a larger ratio of nurses per 100,000 population than does California, although a smaller total number of employed RNs. The nurse-population ratios are based on the adjusted totals for registered nurses per 100,000 population. Of the six states, New Jersey has the highest nurse-population ratio and Mississippi has the lowest. These data indicate it would be easier for correctional institutions in New Jersey, Ohio, Michigan and California to recruit Registered Nurses than in Louisiana and Mississippi.

Determining the proportion of RN's who are minority group members is a more difficult task than determining the total supply of RN's. The National League of Nurses began collecting data on Black student nurses in 1953-55. This three-year effort met with only modest success. Then in 1965 the first careful study of Black student nurses was conducted by Tate and Carnegie.<sup>39</sup> That study established a pattern which has since been repeated at three-year intervals.<sup>40</sup>

According to the 1960 Census, less than six percent of employed professional nurses were Blacks. More than a decade later, Blacks accounted for only 7.5 percent of the admission

FIGURE 13

REGISTERED NURSES EMPLOYED OR RESIDENT IN EACH OF SIX STATES  
BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS, 1972

	Total Resident RN's	Employed in Nursing		Not Employed in Nursing		Employment Status not Reported		Nurses Per 100,000 Population
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
California	103,385	64,118	65.9	33,733	21.6	1,534	1.5	334
Louisiana	11,524	9,070	78.7	2,351	20.4	103	0.9	245
Michigan	46,681	29,923	64.1	13,998	30.0	2,760	5.9	335
Mississippi	6,288	5,101	81.1	1,140	18.1	47	0.8	226
New Jersey	51,061	30,973	60.7	17,902	35.0	2,186	4.3	432
Ohio	57,052	40,308	70.7	14,396	25.2	2,348	4.1	389

Sources: Bureau of Health Resources Development, 1974. American Nurses' Association Statistics, Department of the Nation's Nurses: 1972 Inventory of Registered Nurses.

in initial programs of nursing in 1971-72 and slightly more than 5 percent of nursing graduates.<sup>41</sup>

The admission of men as well as minorities to schools of nursing was surveyed in 1972. The data revealed a significant change in the proportion of men recruited into nursing for the first time since 1969. Despite an increase in the percentage of employed male Registered Nurses from 1.1 percent in 1966 to 1.4 percent in 1969, the nursing population is still overwhelmingly female.

In 1971-1972, the largest concentration of Black and Spanish-speaking nursing students was in practical nursing programs (PN). Fifty-eight percent more Spanish-speaking students and 50 percent more Black students were in these as opposed to RN programs. The largest concentration of American Indian and Oriental students was in the baccalaureate programs.

If nursing school admissions of 1971-72 are an accurate indicator, then there are significant regional differences in the availability of minority nurses. Figure 14 shows the percentage of minorities entering nursing schools in 1971-72 in the six states of special interest to this study. The table shows that Blacks constituted 16.2 percent of entering students in RN programs in Mississippi, but only 7.5 percent of RN program admissions in Ohio. Spanish-speaking persons make up 5.4 percent of admissions to RN programs in California,

TABLE 14

PERCENT MINORITIES ADMITTED TO SCHOOLS OF NURSING  
IN RELATION TO TOTAL ENROLLMENT, 1971-72<sup>1</sup>

	RN			PN			TOTAL		
	Black	Spanish-Speaking	American Indian Oriental	Black	Spanish-Speaking	American Indian Oriental	Black	Spanish-Speaking	American Indian Oriental
California	8.9	5.4	4.1	15.4	9.7	3.3	11.8	7.3	2.7
Louisiana	9.8	0.1	0.2	31.1	0.7	0.5	20.1	0.3	0.3
Michigan	8.8	0.5	0.6	13.8	0.7	0.8	10.7	0.6	0.6
Mississippi	16.2	0.4	0.6	26.1	0.2	0.2	20.4	0.3	0.4
New Jersey	14.1	1.4	0.5	16.7	0.2	0.2	15.0	1.8	0.4
Ohio	7.5	0.2	0.1	9.1	1.5	1.5	8.1	0.3	0.5

Source: Walter Johnson, op cit. p.47.

1.4 percent in New Jersey, and less than one percent in the other four states. In general, the regional differences shown in the table can be explained by the size of the specific ethnic minority population.

More than 93,000 students were enrolled in schools of nursing in 1971-72. An analysis of the distribution of Black students in nursing in comparison to the base population is presented in Figure 15. A similar comparison for Hispanic students was not presented because the data were not available. For each of the six states, the major potential student population (i.e., women 15-24 years of age) was broken down to provide the number of young Black women 15-24 and their percent of the total 15-24 female population. Then the percent of Blacks in RN and PN school admissions was determined, and the two proportions were compared. Figure 15 shows a positive difference for the percentage of Black students admitted to RN schools in California (+1.4) and New Jersey (+1.5). The remaining four states (i.e., Louisiana, -22.6; Michigan, -3.5; Mississippi, -23.2; and Ohio, -2.3) had negative differences. The number of Black students admitted to schools of nursing in California and New Jersey was thus larger than their proportion in the population, while the opposite was true of the other states. Only Mississippi admitted a disproportionately smaller number of Black students

FIGURE 15

PERCENT OF BLACKS ADMITTED TO RN AND PN NURSING IN RELATION TO TOTAL ADMISSIONS  
1971-72, COMPARED TO THE PERCENT OF BLACKS IN FEMALE POPULATION  
AGES 15-24 IN 1970 IN SIX STATES

	Blacks in Female Population Ages 15-24	RN Schools Blacks		PN Schools Blacks		All Schools Blacks	
		Admitted	Differences	Admitted	Differences	Admitted	Differences
California	7.5	8.9	+1.4	15.4	+7.9	11.8	+4.3
Louisiana	32.4	9.8	-22.6	31.1	-1.3	20.1	-12.3
Michigan	12.3	8.8	-3.5	13.8	+1.5	10.7	-1.6
Mississippi	39.4	16.2	-23.2	26.1	-13.3	20.4	-19.0
New Jersey	12.6	14.1	+1.5	16.7	+4.1	15.0	+2.4
Ohio	9.8	7.5	-2.3	9.1	-0.7	8.1	-1.7

Source: Walter L. Johnson, *op cit.* p.48.



to PN programs than their proportion in the general population. It appears that states with larger proportions of Black populations have greater negative deviations from expectations.<sup>42</sup> Nevertheless, on a national basis the proportion of ethnic minorities admitted to nursing is roughly equal to their representation in the general population.

Another supply issue is the type of employment selected by working nurses. About three-fourths (74 percent) of all active Registered Nurses in 1972 were employed by hospitals, nursing homes and related institutions. Hospitals employ more Registered Nurses than any other type of institution; nursing homes are the second largest employer of Registered Nurses. The proportion of RN's employed by hospitals, nursing homes, and related institutions has increased in recent years; 64 percent of RN's were so employed in 1960, and 72 percent in 1970.

B. PROJECTED SUPPLY OF MINORITY REGISTERED NURSES

The supply of active full- and part-time Registered Nurses is expected to increase by 15 percent between 1976 and 1980. In 1970 there were 723,000 active registered nurses. By 1980, the projected number of active Registered Nurses is expected to have increased to 1,099,600, 70 percent of which will be employed on a full-time basis.

Using a basic methodology whereby projections are developed on different sets of assumptions concerning population growth rates, the Bureau of Health Resources Development<sup>43</sup> calculated two sets of figures for admissions and graduates in schools of nursing. Projections based on these alternative assumptions are contained in Figure 16. The difference between the low and high admissions numbers is approximately 3,500 for the 1975-76 academic year. Likewise, there is a 1,500 difference in the anticipated number of graduates for the same academic year. However, by 1979-80, the difference between the alternative assumptions for admissions and graduates becomes much larger.

Projection of the supply of minority RN's requires use of baseline supply data on minority professional nurses. An examination of the 1970 Census data by state showed California having a larger number of Black and Spanish-speaking Registered Nurses than any of the other five states. These data are displayed in Figure 17. It should be noted that the American Nurses Association does not consider the 1970 Census estimates of Registered Nurses to be reliable because a large number of persons included in the Census count of Registered Nurses were believed not to be Registered Nurses. Consequently, reliable estimates of the number of Black Registered Nurses are not available.

FIGURE 16

ADMISSIONS AND GRADUATES IN SCHOOLS OF NURSING UNDER BASIC AND ALTERNATIVE ASSUMPTIONS:  
ACTUAL AND PROJECTED 1970-71 AND 1971-72; PROJECTED 1972-73 THROUGH 1989-90

Academic Year	Admissions <sup>1</sup>			Graduates <sup>1</sup>		
	Basic Methodology	Alternative Assumptions		Basic Methodology	Alternative Assumptions	
		Low	High		Low	High <sup>2</sup>
1970-71	78,524	78,524	78,524	46,500	46,500	46,500
1971-72	93,344	93,344	93,344	51,304	51,304	51,304
1972-73	103,100	103,100	97,428	56,929	54,452	56,929
1973-74	104,100	104,100	101,388	61,951	59,186	60,476
1974-75	105,200	105,200	105,504	66,864	63,895	64,916
1975-76	106,200	106,200	109,764	70,077	66,348	67,789
1976-77	106,300	197,300	113,484	70,671	66,813	70,344
1977-78	108,400	108,400	116,520	71,293	67,320	72,819
1978-79	109,400	109,400	119,160	71,909	68,818	76,104
1979-80	110,500	110,500	121,500	72,518	69,453	78,156

<sup>1</sup>Includes baccalaureate, diploma, and associate degree programs in 50 States and District of Columbia.

<sup>2</sup>Admissions in the "high" series are related to total college enrollments. The numbers of admissions and graduates are not always the highest projections for a given year.

Source: 1971-71, 1971-72; National League for Nursing, State-Approved Schools of Nursing-R.N. 1973. New York, The League, 1973. Also 1972 edition.

FIGURE 17

BLACK AND SPANISH-SPEAKING REGISTERED NURSES IN STATES: 1970

	BLACK		SPANISH	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
California	379	5,635	401	6,192
Louisiana	50	1,292	7	194
Michigan	158	2,377	6	241
Mississippi	35	778	---	22
New Jersey	172	2,669	---	94
Ohio	81	2,319	13	243

Source: 1970 Census of General Population.

The alternative to using the 1970 Census count of Black Registered Nurses was to develop estimates of Black RN's expected to graduate from schools of nursing. The Bureau of Health Resources<sup>44</sup> estimated that five percent of RN graduates nationally are Black. To estimate the available number of Black RN's from which correctional institutions could recruit, five percent of the projected number of graduates for each year between 1974-75 and 1979-80 were assumed to be Black. Calculations for both "high" and "low" projections are presented in Figure 18.

According to the estimates derived from the low calculations, an eight percent increase is expected in the number of Black RN's graduating between 1974-75 to 1979-80. A 16 percent increase is expected using the calculations derived from the high projections over the same time period.

The total number of employed Black RN's as presented in Figure 18 is reliable only if an underlying assumption is accurate. These calculations (i.e., total employed Black RN's) are based on the assumption that in 1974-75 Blacks comprised at least five percent of the estimated 857,000 employed RN's. If this assumption is accurate, then the projections are accurate. With this consideration in mind, the low projections indicate the total number of Black RN's is expected to increase from 43,000 in 1974-75 to 49,330 in

FIGURE 18

ESTIMATES OF THE NUMBER OF BLACK REGISTERED NURSING GRADUATES 1974-80

	Total Number of Employed Black RN's Low Projections <sup>1</sup>	Estimated Number of Black Graduates Low Projections <sup>2</sup>	Total Graduates Low Projections	Total Number of Employed Black RN's High Projections	Black Graduates High Projections	Total Graduates High Projections
1974-75	42,850	3,195 <sup>3</sup>	63,895	42,850	64,916	3,246
1975-76	44,198 <sup>4</sup>	3,319	66,348	44,268	67,789	3,389
1976-77	45,506	3,341	66,813	45,749	70,344	3,517
1977-78	46,779	3,366	67,320	47,286	72,819	3,641
1978-79	48,068	3,441	68,818	48,916	76,104	3,805
1979-80	49,330	3,473	69,453	50,547	78,156	3,908

<sup>1</sup>American Nurses' Association estimated 857,000 active nurses in 1974-75. The number 42,850 is 5 percent of that estimate.

<sup>2</sup>Low and high projection explained in narrative.

<sup>3</sup>It was assumed that the percentage of RN graduates who are Black would remain at the estimated 1971-74 proportion of 5 percent through 1979-80.

<sup>4</sup>The U.S. Department of Labor (1970) estimate of the annual death and retirement rates for registered nurses of 4.6 percent of the total number of employed nurses was used as a replacement rate.

1970-80. On the other hand, the high projections indicate the number of Black RN's will have increased by an additional thousand at the beginning of the next decade. If other minority RN's are considered -- although supply data on which to base projections are largely lacking for these groups -- then the increase will be somewhat larger.

It will be easier for corrections to recruit minority nurses than minority physicians or dentists.

## VI. LAWYERS

### A. CURRENT SUPPLY

In general, there is not a shortage of lawyers. However, there is a tremendous shortage of lawyers who are members of the various minority groups.<sup>45</sup> The shortage is likely to remain throughout the next decade. Current reliable estimates of the number of minority lawyers in each of the major minority groups (i.e., Black, Mexican-American, Puerto Rican, American Indian, Asian American, other Hispano groups) do not exist.

The absence of reliable estimates, however, does not reduce the severity of the shortage or need for minority lawyers. Corrections, for example, has a need for minority lawyers to represent minority client/offenders in the correctional process. Minority lawyers are needed to:

- Represent minority clients in the correctional process with respect to civil legal problems.
- Represent convicted offenders in judicial sentencing and probation revocation proceedings.
- Formulate policy to guide and control administrative procedures which the law permits correctional agencies to exercise over offenders.<sup>46</sup>

The American Bar Association<sup>47</sup> reported there were 425,039 lawyers in the U.S. in 1976. Of these, approximately 1.3 percent (5,614) were believed to be Black. Tollett<sup>48</sup> estimated there were 2,000 Black lawyers in America in 1960.

and 4,200 in 1970. The National Bar Association\* estimates there were 4,500 Black lawyers in 1974, excluding the 1,114 Black law students who received J.D. or LL.B degrees in 1974-75.

**B. PROJECTED SUPPLY OF BLACK AND OTHER MINORITY LAWYERS**

The need for minority lawyers can be met only by efforts of the organized bar and law schools to provide legal education opportunities to members of minority groups. There are some indications that American law schools have taken steps to increase the number of minority law students.

The total enrollment in law schools has more than doubled in this decade, with two-thirds of the increase occurring after 1969.<sup>49</sup> However, law school enrollment increases have slowed appreciably since 1973. An average yearly enrollment increase of 14.2 percent occurred from 1970-72, but the enrollment increased by only 4.3 percent between 1973 and 1974.

The proportion of minorities in the law student population has increased 197 percent since 1969-70 as is shown by the following tabulations:

Year	Total Minority Enrollment	Percent of Total Enrollment
1975-76	8,703	7.4
1974-75	8,333	7.5
1973-74	7,601	7.1
1972-73	6,730	6.6
1971-72	5,728	5.9
1969-70	2,933	4.2

The academic year 1970-71 was not included in the Section on Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar of the American Bar Association 1975 Survey.

\*Personal Communication, March 1976.

The foregoing data show, however, that the increase in minority enrollment has substantially slowed since 1973.

The availability of minority lawyers for possible recruitment into corrections is dependent primarily on the number of minority law students graduating from American law schools. If large numbers of students are graduated, the possibility of corrections obtaining the needed legal services is enhanced. Figure 19 presents enrollment data on minority students enrolled in law schools approved by the American Bar Association for the 1975-76 academic year.

Since 1969-70, the number of Black law students has increased each year, but their proportion of total minority student population has decreased as the number of other minority law students has increased. In 1969-70, Blacks were 73 percent of the minority student population; for each succeeding academic year the proportions were 68 percent, 66 percent, 60 percent, and 59 percent, respectively.

Blacks were 3.1 percent of all students enrolled in American law schools in 1969-70. In 1971-72, the proportion had increased to 3.9 percent. Since then their proportion has remained at about 4.5 percent.

The number of Mexican-American students enrolled in approved law schools has more than tripled during the last five years. There were 412 Mexican-American students enrolled in approved law schools in 1969-70; by 1974-75 the number had increased to 1,357. In 1975-76, however, the number decreased

FIGURE 19

MINORITY STUDENTS ENROLLED IN APPROVED LAW SCHOOLS, 1975-76

	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year	Group Not Stated	Percent of Total Enrollment	Percent of Minority Enrollment	Total Minority Enrollment
Black	2,045	1,511	1,452	119	---	4.4	58.9	5,127
Mexican-American	484	421	381	11	---	1.1	14.9	1,297
Puerto Rican	113	121	96	3	---	0.3	3.8	333
Other Hispanic Americans	217	164	146	16	---	0.5	6.3	543
American Indian	118	88	84	5	---	0.3	3.3	295
Asian American	436	343	287	33	---	.9	12.6	1,099
Group Not Stated					9			
Total	3,413	2,648	2,446	187	9	7.4	100.0	8,703

Source: Memorandum on 1975 Survey of Minority Group Students in Legal Education. Section on Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar. American Bar Association, Chicago, Illinois February, 1976.

to 1,297. The proportion of Mexican-American students in the minority law student population increased from 14 percent in 1969-70 to 17 percent in 1973-74, but dropped to 16 percent in 1974-75 and 14.9 percent in 1975-76.

Asian-Americans are the third largest group of minority law students. The first time statistics were kept on Asian-American law students as a group was in 1971-72. The number of Asian-American law students increased from 681 in 1971-72 to 1,099 in 1975-76; their proportion of the minority law student population has remained around 12 percent for the last five years.

The proportions of the other minority groups (i.e., Puerto Ricans, American Indians, and other Hispano Americans) in the minority law student population have ranged from 1.69 to 6.0 percent over the last half decade.

More than 30,000 students are expected to graduate from approved law schools on an annual basis from 1976-77 to 1979-80. Minorities are expected to comprise about 7.8 percent of these graduates. Approximately five percent of all students graduating with a J.D. or LL.B. degree will be Black (see Figure 20).

At the beginning of the next decade, the number of lawyers in this country is expected to have increased by 135,168 (26 percent). Of the expected more than one-half million lawyers, 11,082 (2 percent) are expected to be Black (see Figure 21). Black lawyers are projected to increase in number from approxi-

FIGURE 20

BLACK AND OTHER MINORITY LAWYERS AND GRADUATES  
1970-71 TO 1979-80

Year	JD or LL.B Graduates	Minority Graduates	Black Graduates
1970-71	17,183	--	--
1971-72	17,006	--	--
1972-73	22,342	--	--
1973-74	27,756	1,600	830
1974-75	28,739	2,157	1,114
	Projection Office of Education	Projection <sup>1</sup>	Projection <sup>2</sup> Independent
1975-76	29,900	2,243	1,166
1976-77	30,700	2,303	1,197
1977-78	31,400	2,355	1,225
1978-79	31,700	2,377	1,236
1979-80	32,100	2,405	1,251

<sup>1</sup>It was assumed the 1974-75 proportion (7.5 percent) which minorities were of the total receiving JD or LL.B degrees would remain the same until 1979-80.

<sup>2</sup>It was assumed that Blacks would remain 52 percent of the minority graduates through 1979-80.



FIGURE 21.

ESTIMATES ON THE POPULATION OF BLACK LAWYERS

Year	1st Year Enrollment for Blacks	Minority Graduates	Black <sup>1</sup> Graduates	Replacement	Total Number of Black Lawyers
1968-69	684 <sup>5</sup>	--	--	--	--
1969-70	1,115 <sup>7</sup>	--	300	173	Independent Proj. 4,200
1970-71	--	--	350	177	4,327
1971-72	--	--	400	182	4,450
1972-73	--	--	558 <sup>2</sup>	191	4,667
1973-74	--	1,660 <sup>3</sup>	830 <sup>4</sup>	207	5,034
1974-75	--	--	1,114 <sup>5</sup>	232	6,539
1975-76	--	2,243	1,166	276	7,429
1976-77	--	2,303	1,197	306	8,310
1977-78	--	2,355	1,225	342	9,293
1978-79	--	2,377	1,236	381	10,148
1979-80	--	2,405	1,251	417	11,082

<sup>1</sup>It was assumed that the 1968; 1969; and 1970 trend (i.e., 200; 250; and 300) of Black graduating law students continued through 1972.

<sup>2</sup>Black law graduates for 1972-73 were taken to be one-fourth of the 1969-70 1st year enrollment.

<sup>3</sup>The total number of minorities receiving a first law degree in 1973-74 was 1660.

<sup>4</sup>From 1971-72 to 1975-76, Blacks comprised at least 59 percent of all minorities enrolled in approved law schools. It was assumed that Blacks were at least 50 percent of the 1,660 minority graduates.

<sup>5</sup>American Bar Association figure.

<sup>6</sup>Toledo Law Review, 1970, p.984.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid.

Standardized mortality ratios do not exist for Black lawyers. To calculate a replacement ratio, it was assumed that the death rate among Black lawyers is the same as it is among Blacks in the general population of the same age and sex. A ratio of 11.1 deaths per 1,000 lawyers was used. Retirement was set at 3 percent, the same as it is among white lawyers.

mately 5,614 in 1974-75 to 11,082 in 1979-80, a 49 percent increase.

The distribution of lawyers in the six states related to this report shows the national population per lawyer ratio in 1971 was "... about one white lawyer per 631 white population... (and) ... approximately one Black lawyer per 5,736 Black population (National Bar Foundation Project, 1971)."<sup>50</sup> Of the six states, the population per lawyer ratios for Michigan and Mississippi were significantly less than the national ratio.

Figure 22 looks at the 1970 distribution of Black lawyers in the six states. More recent data on the distribution of Black lawyers was not available, but it is doubtful whether more current data would significantly change the lawyer per population ratios. California has the most favorable Black lawyer population ratio. However, the ratio is more than nine and one-half times greater than the national ratio.

Figure 21 also provides projections of the total number of practicing Black lawyers through 1979-80. Although significant increases are projected in the number of Black lawyers, the data in Figure 21 indicate that it will be very difficult for correctional facilities in the six states to recruit a significant number of Black lawyers. While projections were not made for other minority lawyers, there will be about the same number of non-Black minority law graduates annually as Black graduates -- a little more than 1,000 a year for the rest of the decade.

**CONTINUED**

**2 OF 6**

FIGURE 22

DISTRIBUTION OF BLACK LAWYERS IN SIX STATES: 1970

State	Number of Lawyers	Black Population	Lawyer Per Ratio Population
California	406	1,400,143	3,449
Louisiana	26	1,086,000	41,769
Michigan	193	991,006	5,135
Mississippi	55	815,770	14,832
New Jersey	81	770,292	9,510
Ohio	232	970,477	4,183

VII. SOCIAL WORKERS

A. CURRENT SUPPLY

Any current analysis of the supply of minority social workers for possible employment in corrections is severely limited by the absence of definitive data. Therefore, the analysis and projections provided herein should be reviewed with this deficiency in mind.

According to Seigel,<sup>51</sup>

The current rise in unemployment will ... lead to an increased demand for social services. Through the 1974-1975 academic year, applications and enrollment in graduate and undergraduate social work programs continued to grow despite the curtailment of federal funds in support of social work education.

Corrections needs the skills of trained social workers in the following areas: Parole and probation pre-release investigation, post-release supervision, group work methods, group counseling, and individual counseling.<sup>52</sup> Moreover, the demand for probation and parole officers, the relatively low incidence of Master's of Social Work degrees among probation and parole officers (estimated at four percent), and the low level of recruitment of workers with MSW's into corrections should greatly enhance employment opportunities in corrections for social workers.<sup>53</sup>

Less than two percent of trained social workers<sup>54</sup> are currently employed in corrections.

A membership survey conducted by the National Association of Social Workers<sup>55</sup> in 1975 reported that only 7.6 percent of 35,630 respondents were Black. However, this represented a significant change in the proportion of minorities responding. In a 1968 membership survey, 9.5 percent of the respondents were minorities and in 1974, 14.5 percent were minorities.

A variety of persons performing social service tasks and responsibilities are often categorized as social workers. In this report, the term is reserved for persons enrolled in or graduates of accredited graduate programs in social work. Consequently, analyses and projections performed in this report are based mainly on data relating to graduate social work programs accredited by the Council on Social Work Education. The rationale for adopting this approach was: (a) very little data on baccalaureate programs were available; and (b) in general, the master's degree is required for employment at the professional level. It was only recently (1974) that the Council on Social Work gave accreditation to and collected data on undergraduate social work programs.

In the development of tentative estimates and projections concerning Black social workers, data from the following major sources were used: U.S. Public Health Service, Bureau of the Census, the Council on Social Work Education, National Association of Black Social Workers, National Association of Social Workers, U.S. Department of Labor, and the Office of Education.

The 1970 Census provides an estimate of the number of Black employed social workers. According to Census data, 16 percent (33,869) of all social workers (216,623) reported by the 1970 Census were Black. Although the 1960 Census contains data on Black social workers, these data are combined with statistics on recreational workers. The 1960 Census contained data only on the occupational category of "Professional, Technical and Kindred Workers."

#### B. Projections of the Supply of Black Social Workers

The systematic collection of ethnicity data on social workers was begun in 1969 by the Graduate Council on Social Work Education, but covered only the programs of accredited graduate schools. Data for 1971 could not be obtained.

Seigel provided three estimates of the number of employed social workers in 1980. One estimate applied the Labor Department's projections to the 1970 Census count. The second estimate assumed the proportion of social service workers would remain at the 1974 proportion. The third estimate used 1974 data as a base and projected a constant rate of increase to 1980.

Seigel used three different data bases to provide 1980 projections of the number of social workers (i.e. "all personnel who work in the social service field.") The three bases were: (1) Tomorrow's Manpower Needs, (2) The 1974 proportion of social service employment in professional and technical

occupations, and (3) a constant rate of increase applied to 1974 data.

In Tomorrow's Manpower Needs, social service workers were estimated at 170,000 in 1970 and projected to 253,000 in 1980, or approximately a 46 percent increase. When this percentage was applied to the 1970 Census figure of 216,623 social workers, the number of social workers was projected to 322,768 in 1980. If the 1972 Manpower Report to the President projection is applied to the 1970 Census count, 342,264 social workers are projected for 1980.

Seigel<sup>56</sup> casts considerable doubt on these projections. He reported there were already 300,000 social service workers in 1974; thus requiring only "eight percent overall growth rate in social services workers between 1974-80, or an average increase of 1.3 percent per year."

In the second projection, Seigel assumed that social service workers in 1980 would be in the same proportion to professional, technical and kindred workers as they were in 1974, i.e., 2.4 percent (372,000 social workers in 1980).

The third projection (402,000) was based on the 1974 figure of 300,000 social service workers and a "very conservative" five percent annual increase to 1980. The figure of 402,000 represents 0.3 percent of the projected 1980 labor force (102 million) and 2.6 percent of professional, technical, and kindred workers.

Using the U.S. Public Health Services 1972 estimate of 190,000 social workers as a basis, and assuming a constant annual growth rate of five percent, a projected figure of 280,713 employed social workers is obtained for the year 1980.

To document these projections, social work school enrollments were considered. The number of full-time students enrolled in social work master's programs increased from 7,196 in 1964 to 16,590 in 1974; the post-master's program increased from 70 in 1964 to 648 in 1974. Approximately 8,000 students received master's of social work in 1973-74, and 159 received doctoral degrees in 1973-74, a 25 percent increase from 1964-65.

The number of full-time students enrolled in graduate schools of social work has had an eight percent annual growth rate over the last ten years. The percentage change in total enrollment from 1973-74 was only 2.4 percent, the lowest percent change during the current decade.

The 1972 enrollment figures for Blacks as full-time first-year master's degree students in accredited graduate schools of social work show that Blacks comprised 15.8 percent of the total enrollment; in 1973, that percentage had decreased to 14.4 percent of the total enrollment, and in 1974, it had dropped to 12.7 percent. Of the minority social work graduates who received degrees in 1973-74, 15.5 percent of the master's degree recipients and 11.3 percent of the doctoral degree reci-

pients were Black. Blacks were also 12.9 percent of those students receiving undergraduate social work degrees in 1973-74.

In the development of supply projections for 1975-1980, it was assumed that the trend developed from 1963-64 to 1972-73 would not remain the same from 1973-74 through 1979-80. Therefore, the 1973-74 change of seven percent from the previous academic year was used as the base for calculations.

The proportions of Blacks enrolled in first and second year master's of social work programs are approximately 12.6. To estimate proportions of Black students who are expected to receive master's degrees through 1979-80, 12.6 percent of each projected total was calculated with the resulting number used to represent the projected number of Blacks expected to earn master's degrees of social work from 1973-74 through 1979-80. These projections are shown in Figure 23. It can be seen that an average of 2,000 minority students will receive master's degrees of social work annually from 1974-74 through 1979-80.

Full-time students enrolled in master's degree programs of social work vary by state. For example, more than one thousand full-time master's degree students were enrolled in accredited graduate schools in California in 1973, while there were less than three hundred in Louisiana; Mississippi had less than one hundred. This indicates that corrections, in some instances, will have to recruit on a national as opposed to a local level.

Figure 23

Projections on Blacks Expected to Receive Master's Degrees of Social Work Through 1979-80<sup>1</sup>

	Total Number of Graduates	Black Graduates	Other Minorities	Total Minorities
1974-75	8,669	1,092	815	1,907
1975-76	9,389	1,183	883	2,066
1976-77	10,168	1,281	956	2,237
1977-78	11,012	1,388	1,035	2,423
1978-79	11,926	1,503	1,121	2,624
1979-80	12,916	1,627	1,214	2,841

<sup>1</sup>It was assumed that the average percent of increase (8.3) in the number of students receiving master's degrees from 1969-70 to 1973-74 would remain constant through 1979-80.

<sup>2</sup>It was assumed that Blacks would remain 12.6 percent of all students awarded master's degrees through 1979-80.

Since there has been a cutback on some social service programs which required the skills of social workers, corrections should have little difficulty in recruiting minorities with training in social work.

## VIII. PSYCHOLOGISTS

### A. CURRENT SUPPLY

Will the current popularity of psychology lead to an overproduction of Ph.D.'s? According to Wood<sup>57</sup> there are now more people in graduate school studying to become psychologists than there are psychologists who are members of the American Psychological Association.

The current consensus is that the Ph.D. labor market in the 1980's will experience a substantial excess supply of doctoral psychologists. Albee<sup>58</sup> warns that the traditional market, academia, is not going to be hiring many Ph.D. psychologists for quite some time, and that most departments of psychology will give preference to minorities for the small number of faculty job openings. But graduate enrollment in psychology continued to climb between 1968 and 1973.<sup>59</sup>

Contrary to the above pessimistic views, the U.S. Department of Labor (DOL)<sup>60</sup> believes employment opportunities for psychologists will be good through the mid-1980's. Specifically, DOL expects opportunities to be very good for Ph.D.'s and some M.A.'s with specialties in clinical or counseling psychology. In addition, employment of clinical counselors and social psychologists in correctional institutions is expected to expand rapidly.

Clinical psychologists, long-time members of the correc-

tional classification and treatment team, have expertise in offender behavior and make meaningful contributions to corrections in the area of psychotherapy. Clinical psychologists also make strong contributions in the areas of personality theory and motivation.<sup>61</sup>

The supply of clinical psychologists is directly related to the production of persons with graduate degrees in psychology. This report focused primarily on doctorate psychologists.

Figure 24 presents data on doctorates awarded in psychology from 1940 to 1970. Data used to prepare this figure come from two sources: the National Research Council and the U.S. Office of Education. The National Research Council (NRC) data which specify 29,935 doctoral degrees awarded<sup>62</sup> between 1940 and 1970 -- are used in this report because of the tendency of the U.S. Office of Education to underestimate the actual number of degrees awarded.

A more sophisticated estimate of the total active labor force of doctorate psychologists was developed by Cuca.<sup>63</sup> Cuca "examined the manpower flow from field of degree to field of employment for persons receiving the doctorate from 1930 to 1972." She concluded that 11 percent of those persons who received Ph.D.'s in psychology were no longer in the field; 19 percent of the labor supply consisted of new entrants; and 1.5 percent of the supply consisted of persons holding foreign doctorates. Moreover, an adjustment was required for a small

FIGURE 24

DOCTORATES AWARDED IN PSYCHOLOGY, 1940-1974

Years	NRC <sup>1</sup>	OE <sup>2</sup>
1974-44	530	
1945-49	719	
1950-54	2,753	2,450
1955-59	3,672	3,079
1960-64	4,408	3,908
1965-69	6,561	5,806
1970-74	11,292	9,113
Total	29,935	24,356

<sup>1</sup>National Research Council, Doctorate Records File.

<sup>2</sup>U.S. Office of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

From: Janet Cuca, Ph.D.'s in Psychology: Supply and Demand Paper presented at the American Psychological Association Convention, Chicago, Illinois, 1975.



number of voluntarily unemployed doctorate level psychologists.

Figure 25 shows estimates by Cuca<sup>64</sup> of the total doctorate level psychologist labor force in 1974, including adjustments from the NRC degree total of 29,935, for death (-2,385), loss to other fields (-3030), gains from other fields (+5,234), foreign doctorates (+446) and voluntary unemployment (-151). The total 1974 supply was 30,049.

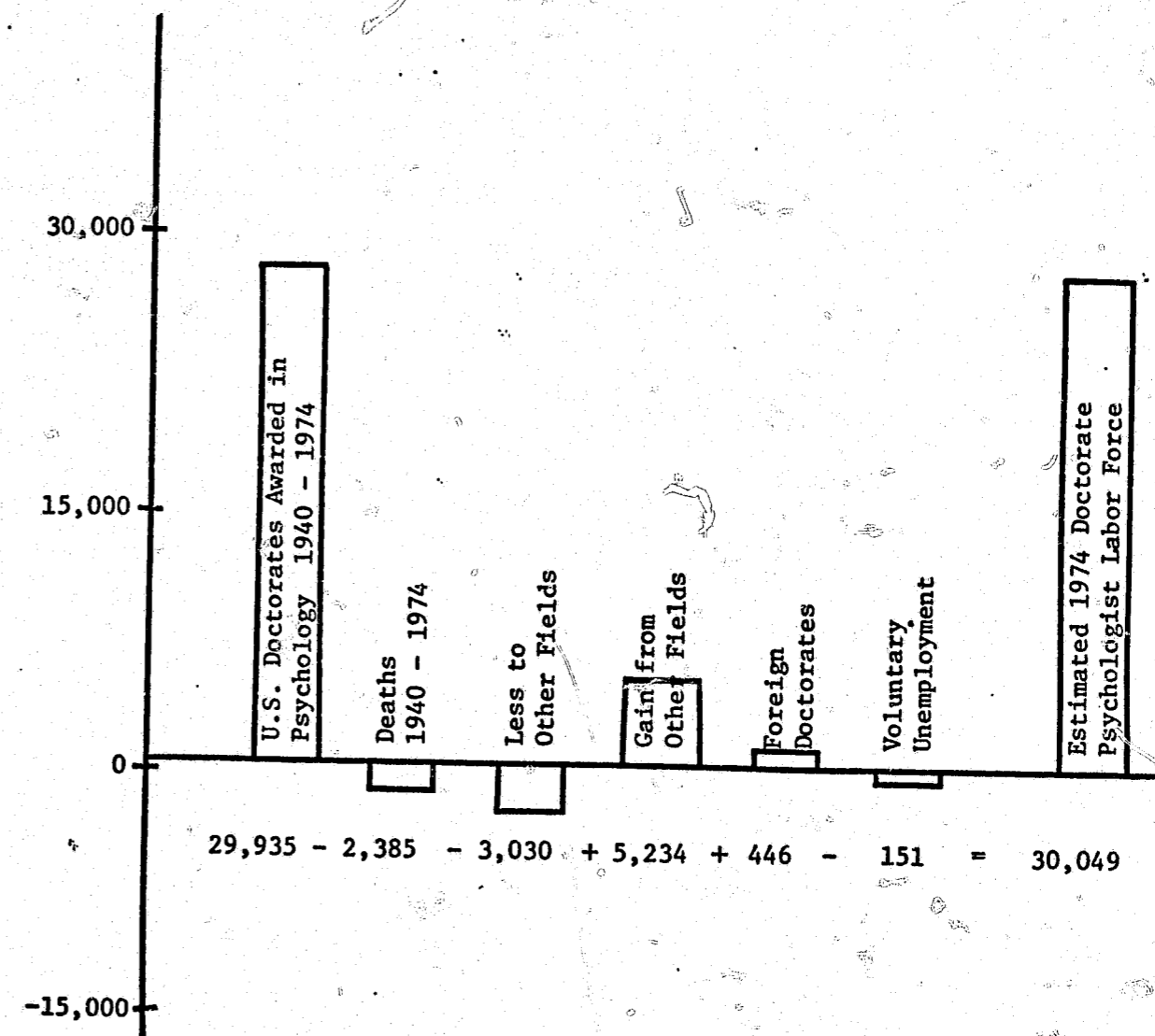
#### B. PROJECTIONS OF THE SUPPLY OF PSYCHOLOGISTS

The size of the 1980 psychologist labor force has been projected to be 42,658, using Cuca's procedure. Projections developed by the U.S. Office of Education reflect an expected 71 percent increase in doctorate degrees to be awarded between 1974-75 and 1979-80. The doctorate psychologist labor force is expected to increase by 26 percent during this same period.

The data in APA Members at a Glance<sup>65</sup> shows 58 percent of the membership were in the human service psychology. The single largest sub-field was clinical psychology, consisting of 36 percent of the 27,371 respondents. It is estimated<sup>66</sup> that about one percent of all doctorate psychologists who want to work are unemployed. Unemployment among new doctorate level psychologists receiving their degrees between 1971 and 1975 was 3 percent. The employment status of new doctorate level psychologists showed a slight increase in the percentage of persons with no position in 1975 as compared with 1974. Overall, the 1975 employment status of new doctorate level

FIGURE 25

ESTIMATING THE 1974 DOCTORATE PSYCHOLOGY LABOR FORCE



From: Janet Cuca. Ph.D.'s in Psychology: Supply and Demand. A Paper presented at the American Psychological Assn. Convention, Chicago, Illinois, 1975.

psychologists was slightly worse than for the 1974 graduates. The trend indicates decreasing opportunities for psychologists in academia. As would be expected, employment opportunities in non-academic settings have increased since 1971. However, there was a slight decrease in 1975.

A survey conducted in 1975<sup>67</sup> on the employment status of 1974 doctorates in psychology revealed 36 percent of the unemployment was in the areas of clinical and counseling psychology. Note that services in these two areas are utilized by corrections. The survey also indicated that 42 percent of the degrees awarded were in clinical and counseling psychology. In 1975, these two areas alone accounted for 30 percent of the persons having "no position" at the time the survey was conducted.

C. EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN CORRECTIONS FOR DOCTORATE LEVEL PSYCHOLOGISTS

A review of social science literature produced data on only one department of psychology in the U.S. -- the University of Alabama -- which offers training in correctional psychology. Approximately 13 Master's level correctional psychologists have been graduated from this program since its inception.<sup>1/</sup> (The Master's degree program has been discontinued.) This translates into five males and eight females, -- i.e. two Blacks, one other minority group member, and ten whites.) The program expects to graduate one Ph.D. in correctional

<sup>1/</sup>Personal communications, February 5, 1976.

psychology in 1976 and about two Ph.D.'s every year thereafter. Presently a Black female in this program is completing her Ph.D. requirements. The admission rate is approximately two Ph.D. candidates per year.

The Center for Correctional Psychology at the University of Alabama felt that "the demand for Ph.D.'s in correctional psychology will be high for at least the next ten years." This feeling is documented by a report on employment opportunities in criminal justice and correctional psychology conducted by Center members Bjorklund and Brodsky.<sup>68</sup>

The two authors requested information on job descriptions, salaries, minimum requirements, and availability of job openings from penal institutions, juvenile institutions, private agencies, and probation and parole boards in all 50 states, Canada, and Guam. No job openings in corrections for psychologists with B.A., M.A., or Ph.D. degrees were reported by 12 states: Arkansas, Delaware, Hawaii, Illinois, Massachusetts, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New York, South Dakota, Tennessee, and Texas. These states indicated that "no openings" were due to small populations, overflow of trained personnel, or limited state funds. Another seven states had job openings but also had a one-year residency requirement: Alaska, Arizona, Colorado, Maine, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, and Washington. Nine other states either failed to respond to the study questionnaire or reported having no interest in survey subject matter. States

in these categories were: Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Utah, and Wyoming. Canada has one-year residency and fluency in spoken French requirements.

Eight states (California, Florida, Kentucky, Idaho, Maryland, Michigan, North Carolina, and Oregon) reported a favorable outlook for the employment of persons trained in correctional psychology. All eight states expressed an interest in doctorate level correctional psychologists. The survey also showed possible job openings for correctional psychologists at the Master's levels in eight states: California, Kentucky, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Maryland, Michigan, and North Carolina.

Most of the job openings for correctional psychologists reported at the bachelor's degree level were in the following eight states: Alabama, California, Connecticut, Florida, Kentucky, Indiana, Iowa, and Maryland.

#### D. PROJECTED SUPPLY OF MINORITY PSYCHOLOGISTS

Minority correctional psychologists are needed to provide service to law offenders and to research problems in corrections. Without an adequate labor force of minority correctional psychologists, it will be difficult to: achieve many of the anticipated breakthroughs in penal reform; deliver psychological services to minority law offenders; develop more effective rehabilitation strategies; etc. Padilla, Ruiz, and Alvarez<sup>69</sup> after examining the unique role of minority psychologists,

concluded that the under-utilization of psychological services by minority group members was related to the absence of minority psychologists in service delivery positions.

The magnitude of the problem is highlighted by other studies and reports, including the 1972 APA Manpower Data Survey, the 1973 National Research Council's Commission on Human Resources Survey, and the 1974 APA Manpower Survey.

More than 20,000 APA members responded to the Association's 1972 Manpower Data Survey questionnaire. The number and percentage of minority group members who identified themselves were as follows:

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent*</u>
Black	287	1.40
Oriental	152	0.74
American Indian	22	0.11
Middle Eastern	19	0.09
East Indian	39	0.19
Hawaiian-Polynesian	23	0.11
Other	<u>758</u>	<u>3.71</u>
	<u>1,300</u>	<u>6.35</u>

\*Of total of 20,443 APA Survey respondents

These data show that slightly more than six percent of the respondents were minority group members.

Cuca<sup>70</sup> reported that the 1973 National Research Council's Commission on Human Resources data showed that 2,444 doctorate of psychology degrees were awarded in 1973. She estimated that

eight percent of the degrees were awarded to minority group members. The estimate was made by applying the percentage of social science doctorates awarded in psychology to minority group data and then correcting for the response rate.

Projections on doctorates in psychology expected to be awarded to minority group members are presented in Figure 26. The number of doctorates awarded to minority group members is expected to increase from 174 in 1974-75 to 245 in 1979-80.

The American Psychological Association 1974 Doctorate Psychologist Survey by race and major field provides the latest data for estimating the minority doctorate psychologist labor force. The data show that 461 minority group members hold doctoral degrees in psychology and are mostly represented in clinical psychology, followed by counseling psychology and educational psychology.

The 1970 Census counted 1,062 Black psychologists. The APA 1974 Manpower Survey counted 313 at the B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. levels. The Census figure indicates that Black psychologists represent 3.7 percent of all resident U.S. psychologists, and the APA number represents 2.1 percent of all U.S. resident psychologists.

An estimate of the total doctorate level psychologist work force was developed by Cuca using the basic procedures previously discussed in the Current Supply section. Her estimated total labor force for 1980 -- 42,658 doctorate psychologists -- is

FIGURE 26

PROJECTIONS OF DOCTORATES IN PSYCHOLOGY TO BE AWARDED TO MINORITY GROUP MEMBERS 1975 THROUGH 1979-80

Year	Projections of Total Psychology Doctorates to be Awarded	Psychology Doctorates to be Awarded to Minority Group Members*
1974-75	2,150	174
1975-76	2,560	207
1976-77	2,830	229
1977-78	2,940	238
1978-79	2,950	239
1979-80	3,030	245

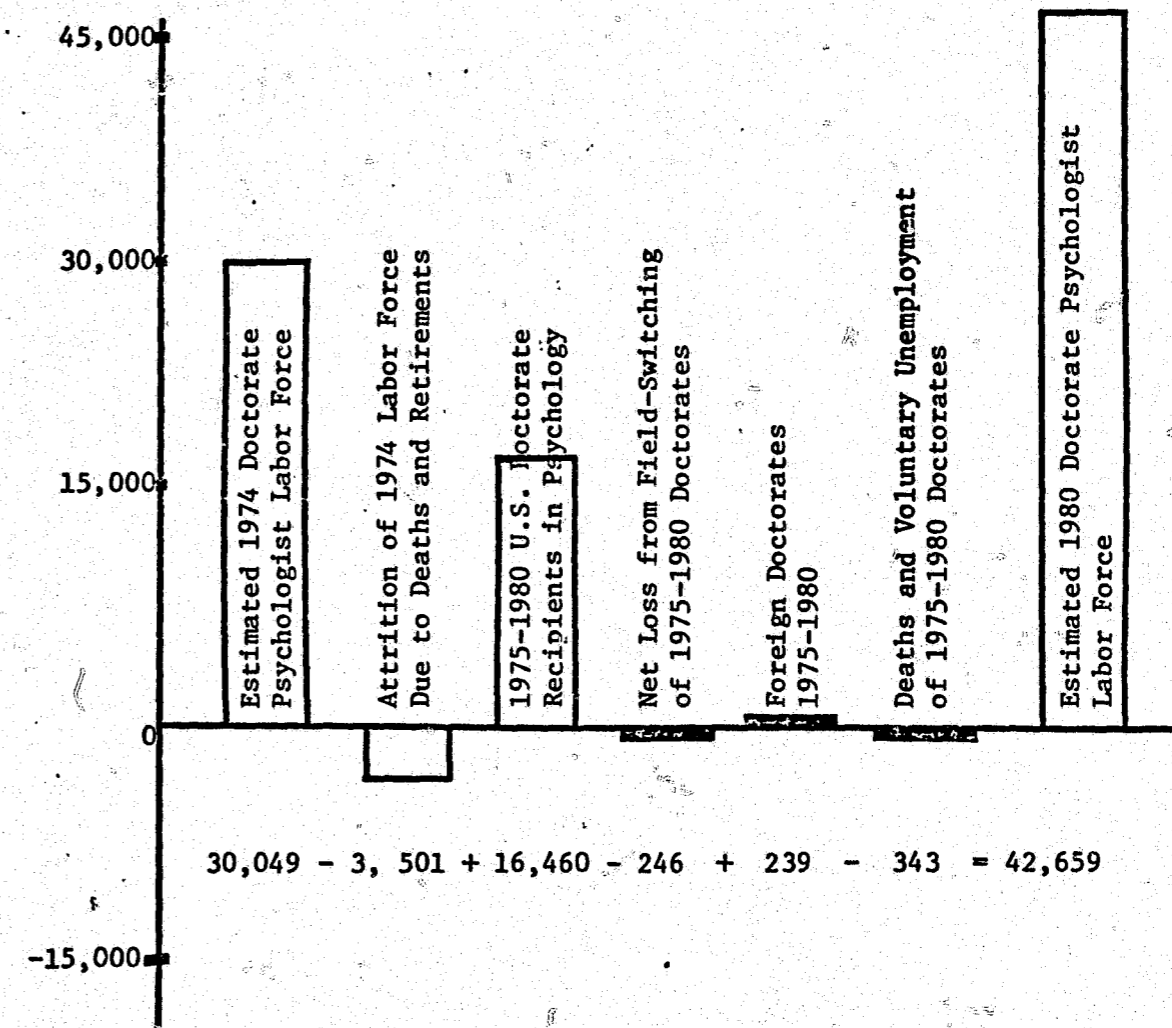
Source: Kenneth A. Simon and Martin M. Frankel Projections of Educational Statistics to 1983-84. U.S. Department of Health Education and Welfare. National Center for Educational Statistics, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975.

\*Independent Projections.

shown in Figure 27. If minorities represent 2.1 percent of doctorate level psychologists in 1980 as they did in 1974 (as suggested in the APA survey), then there will be 896 doctorate level minority psychologists in the labor force in 1980. However, this proportion cannot be verified, and there is expected to be an increase in new minority doctorate psychologists, as suggested by degree projections. Thus, the figure of 896 is probably somewhat low; however, it does suggest a relatively small number of minority doctorate psychologists who will be available for possible recruitment into corrections.

FIGURE 27

ESTIMATING THE 1974 DOCTORATE PSYCHOLOGIST LABOR FORCE



From: Janet Cuca. Ph.D.'s in Psychology: Supply and Demand. A Paper presented at the American Psychological Assn. Convention, Chicago, Illinois, 1975.

## IX. RECREATION SPECIALISTS

### A. CURRENT SUPPLY

The recreation profession has an unfilled opportunity and an unfilled responsibility in penal reform. Moreover, "the recreation profession has the opportunity and the responsibility to help people find themselves and that sense of personal dignity by which they preserve their respect for each other."<sup>71</sup> Perhaps one of the many reasons why recreation has not played a major part in corrections is because of its past "low priority status in corrections."<sup>72</sup> However, there is a critical role for recreation specialists in the preparation of offenders for productive lives in society. Politicians and criminologists have talked about the role of recreation in correctional settings. Some of their comments follow:

Vance Hartke,<sup>73</sup> of the U.S. Senate, from the State of Illinois:

"Recreation can facilitate the inmate's ability to cope with his tensions, fears, and anxieties."

Carrol R. Hormackea,<sup>74</sup> Criminologist:

"Through recreation...the inmate will learn to play and make good use of his leisure hours.... Many of those incarcerated got into trouble because of crimes committed during leisure time hours as a result of not knowing what to do."

"Recreation behind institution walls becomes a real 'must' if the inmate is to maintain any relationship with the reality of life."<sup>75</sup>

Dan Walker,<sup>76</sup> Governor of the State of Illinois:

Recreation in a prison "is not a privilege, not a luxury, not a treatment, but a basic right."

Charles H. Percy, U.S. Senator from the State of Illinois:

"Recreation is vital to the rehabilitation process, not only for personal health reasons but also for satisfying fellowship that comes from planned recreation activities."<sup>77</sup>

Edmund H. Muth, Correctional Manpower Services, Illinois:

"It would appear that three trends -- involvement of families, increased community emphasis, and a more holistic view of offenders -- will encourage an enhanced role for recreation in correctional programming during the 1980's and 1990's."<sup>78</sup>

The Joint Commission on Corrections and Manpower Training:<sup>79</sup>

"The trained recreational specialist brings to the correctional setting a broad range of therapeutic and rehabilitative recreational activities designed to develop vocational skills, physical competence, and self-confidence."

"Recreation as a therapeutic means through the physical has the potential of reducing the abnormal aspects of institutional life and confinement tension experienced by many inmates. The trained recreation specialist may reach latent and unrecognized talents which heretofore have been developed through vocational or educational means. The skilled recreation specialist (or counselor) may reach deep-seated interpersonal problems of law offenders."

#### (1) Manpower Needs

There is little documentation available of the need for recreation manpower in correctional institutions.

"The current state of (recreation) manpower supply and demand in corrections has been described as in extended

infancy."<sup>80</sup> Park believes an increase in correctional recreation manpower will not take place until:

- A functional job analysis at each level has been conducted.
- Competencies for personnel have been developed.
- Training guidelines have been formulated and implemented.
- Teaching and resource aids have been prepared for the profession.
- Training programs have been designed and implemented for such personnel.
- The employment of minorities has been accomplished.

In reference to the last point, it was noted that minorities have not been actively recruited for jobs in correctional recreation, and a concerted effort must be made to employ them in the heretofore "closed shop."<sup>81</sup>

With the above listed considerations in mind, a summary of a National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA) 1968 study is presented. "The purpose of the study was to define the current status of manpower supply in the recreation and park field and to project the field's anticipated manpower demand through 1980."<sup>82</sup> The study found an ever-increasing manpower deficit in the years ahead. The 1967, 215,000 supply of recreation and park professionals personnel was expected to decrease to about 195,000 in 1974. From 1974 to 1980 the supply of personnel was expected to exceed 220,000. However, it was projected that the 1980 supply would not meet the demand.

These 1968 projections were "grossly" inaccurate, according to a NRPA official. The NRPA official stated there are currently 50 applicants for every recreation and park job opening.

Before the role and value of recreation programs in the correctional process can be fully substantiated, information is needed concerning the number of correctional institutions, population figures by type of institutions, number of professional correctional staff, and number of persons assigned recreation supervisor/leader responsibilities.

There is a noticeable lack of data on the number of recreation specialists employed in correctional settings. Without sufficient baseline data, "it is virtually impossible to project manpower trends in correctional recreation."<sup>83</sup> The alternative approach used in this report, which emphasizes supply rather than demand, was to use recreation curricula, enrollment, and graduation data as the basis for determining the availability of minority recreation specialists for possible recruitment and employment in correctional settings.

The Joint NRPA/AASPER Directory of Professional Preparation Programs in Recreation, Parks and Related Areas<sup>84</sup> reported that of 254 institutions of higher education which replied to a survey questionnaire indicated they offered recreation and park programs with corrections as an optional area of specialization. Neal<sup>85</sup> reported 33 schools which identified correc-

corrections as an area of specialization in the 1972 update of the Directory. Only 29 of the 33 identified schools were listed by Neal. When these 29 identified schools were compared with the data in the 1974-75 Biennial Directory, SPRE Recreation and Park Education Curriculum Catalog, only five (California State University, San Jose; California State University, Long Beach; Florida State University, Tallahassee; Eastern Kentucky State University, Richmond; and the University of Massachusetts, Amherst) specifically identified corrections as an optional area of specialization.

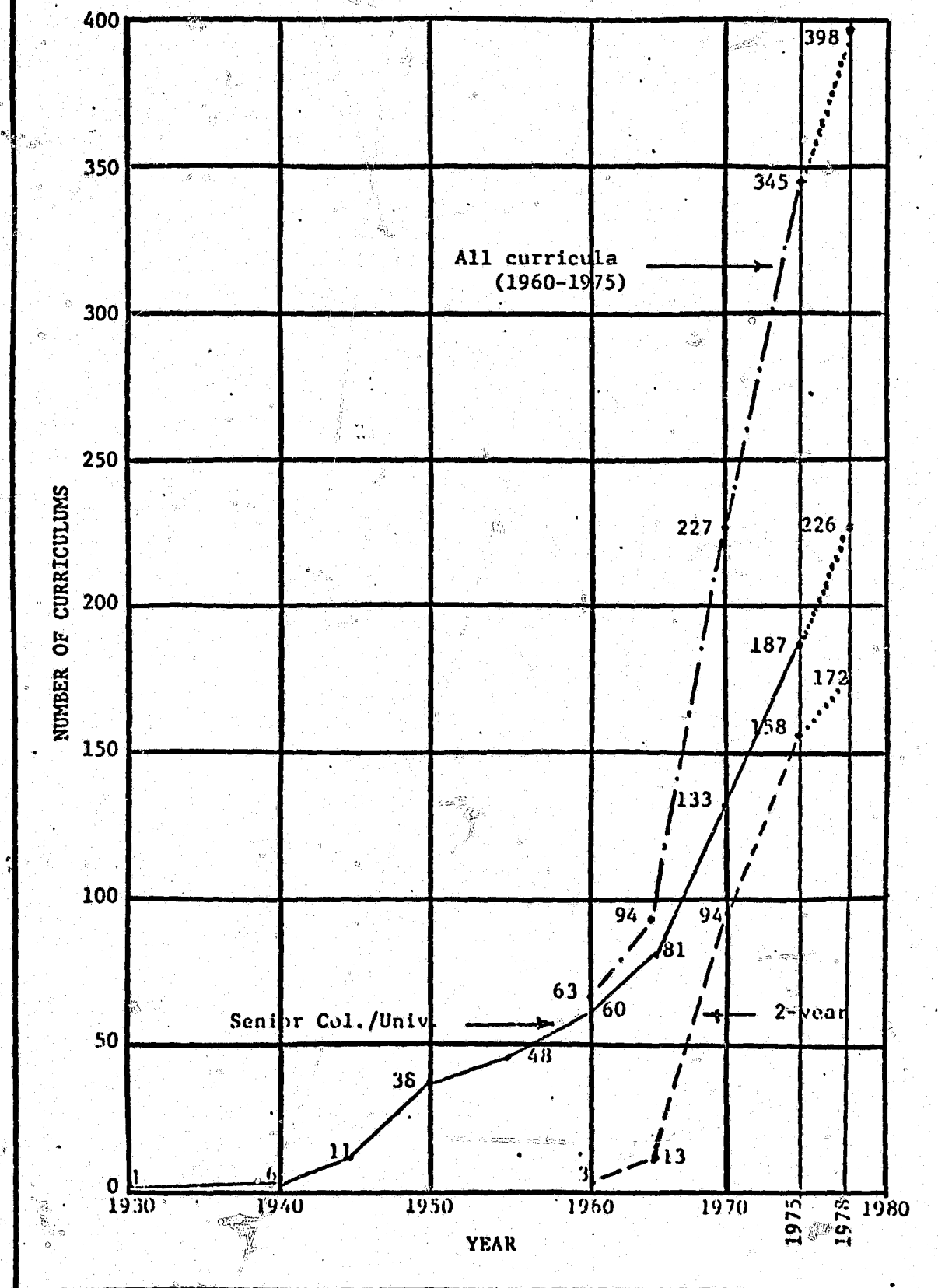
**B. PROJECTIONS OF THE SUPPLY OF PARK AND RECREATION SPECIALISTS**

The supply of manpower in recreation can be derived from an analysis of curriculum growth. Figure 28 looks at the growth of park and recreation curricula from 1930 to 1975, with projections to 1978. As the data shows, the number of senior and two-year college programs in park and recreation education has grown continually since 1930. If senior and two-year colleges are combined, park and recreation curricula will have experienced a 52 percent rate of growth between 1960 and 1970 -- from 227 in 1960 to 345 in 1970.

The 1973 projections of 147 two-year curricular for the year 1975 were exceeded; currently there are 158 such programs. It was noted that some programs -- particularly at two-year institutions -- "are being phased out for lack of employment opportunities for graduates."

An overwhelming majority of the 183 college/university

FIGURE 28  
NUMBER OF PARK & RECREATION CURRICULUMS  
1930 to 1975





program responding to a 1975 NRPA questionnaire had either curriculum or departmental status.<sup>86</sup> Approximately 45 percent of park and recreation curricula were found in the Southern and Great Lakes regions. The next largest number was found in the Middle Atlantic and Mid-West regions.

The number of four-year institutions of higher learning offering programs in park and recreation continues to grow. However, the rate of growth from 1973 to 1975 was not equivalent to the rate from 1969 to 1973. A comparison between the number of schools offering park and recreation degrees in 1973 and 1975 indicated that bachelor degree programs increased from 156 to 180; directorate degree programs increased from 3 to 4; and doctorate degree programs decreased from 30 to 25. The directorate degree (post-master's) was offered at the following four institutions: University of Georgia, Indiana University, New York University, and Connecticut State College.

Student enrollment in park and recreation programs has increased from 9,199 in 1969 to 13,329 in 1971, to 21,914 in 1973, and to 26,041 in 1975, representing 45 percent, 57 percent, and 19 percent increases respectively. The largest part of the 1973 to 1975 increase was at the baccalaureate level. Master's and Directorate degree enrollment increased slightly from 1973 to 1975 while doctoral enrollment decreased.

Identification of the undergraduate enrollment by sex in 1975 shows 9,431 (45 percent) of the 20,815 students were women, while in 1973 women were 39.5 percent of the total undergraduate enrollment.

Options available to students in recreation and park programs were compared for 1971, 1973, and 1975. In 1973, 18 schools offered recreation programs for students with an interest in corrections. The number increased to 19 in 1975. The only area of specialization smaller than "corrections" was college union management. Only a small number of senior colleges are specifically training students enrolled in recreation and park programs, at undergraduate and graduate levels, for possible careers in corrections. Five such colleges/universities were previously identified.

An analysis of the 1975 park and recreation senior college student enrollment data by race and degree program showed that of 15,276 undergraduate students indicating their race, 14,411 (94 percent) were white, 602 (3.9 percent) were Black, and 263 (1.7 percent) were of other races. Stein noted that 48 respondents reporting 7,990 students did not answer the question concerning race. Of Master's degree students who indicated their race, 8.2 percent were minority group members and 6.5 percent of these were Black; 4.6 percent of doctoral students were members of minority groups.

The percentage of minorities enrolled in two-year programs is significantly higher than the percentage enrolled in senior college/university programs. In 1971, minorities comprised 16 percent of the two-year program enrollment. Two years later the proportion had dropped to about 13 percent; and by 1975 it had risen to approximately 14 percent.

According to the 1970 Census, of the six states of interest to this study, California had the largest number of Black and Spanish-origin recreation workers. It is not known whether all persons counted by the Census held college/university degrees in recreation and its related areas. Consequently, the data presented in Figure 29 may or may not represent recreation personnel whose background would permit them to be considered for recreation-related job opportunities in corrections.

As previously stated, the largest number of recreation and park programs was found in the Southern and Great Lakes regions; the states of Mississippi and Michigan are within these regions. The Middle Atlantic and the Mid-West had the second largest number of recreation and park programs; New Jersey is located in the Middle Atlantic region. Only 6.5 percent of the programs are in the Southwest region, which includes the state of Louisiana, and 10.5 percent are in the Pacific Southwest region, which includes the state of California.

Considering that NRPA has estimated that there are 50 applicants for every job opening, job opportunities appear to be limited. However, the U.S. Department of Labor is more optimistic. It states that employment opportunities for persons with B.S. degrees in recreation are expected to be excellent in the near future, especially for those with training in the social sciences and health education. Consequently, the difficulty faced by corrections in recruiting Blacks depends to

FIGURE 29

BLACK AND SPANISH RECREATIONAL WORKERS: 1970

State	Black	Spanish Surname
California	1,009	970
Louisiana	106	8
Michigan	263	21
Mississippi	51	--
New Jersey	131	--
Ohio	474	13

Source: 1970 Census of Characteristics of Population, Volume I, Part I, United States Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

some extent on which outlook is accurate. The situation for other minorities is even less certain, since less information is available; however, student enrollment data suggest that in the near future there will be few "other minorities" with recreation training. If job openings are limited for recreation specialists, however, correctional facilities should have a good opportunity to recruit minorities for recreation jobs as the jobs develop.

## X. VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION COUNSELORS

### A. CURRENT SUPPLY

The role of the vocational rehabilitation (VR) counselor in a correctional setting is similar to that of his counterpart in other vocational rehabilitation settings. After medical rehabilitation has reduced the offender's disability to the greatest possible extent, the vocational rehabilitation counselor has the task of assisting the offender to attain his maximum potential,<sup>7</sup> including preparation for a meaningful job following release as well as making available possible meaningful activities while the offender is incarcerated.

The Chicago Federal Offenders Rehabilitation Project<sup>8</sup> recommended that:

"Vocational rehabilitation services should be included in correctional armamentariums as a regular, on-going part of the rehabilitative process."

That Project clearly documented the need for vocational rehabilitation counseling for offenders. Although the subjects of the Chicago Project were female, the need for vocational rehabilitation counseling for offenders of both sexes was evident.

The offender/clients selected for the intensive services provided by the above named Project presented a variety of needs. Problem/need areas were grouped into the six categories listed below with the percentage of participants having each category of needs:

Counseling	86%
Tangible Needs	75%
Education and Training	70%
Medical attention	48%
Help to other family members	29%
Increased socialization	19%

Of the 148 Chicago Project participants, 70 percent of those within the counseling category had a need for vocational rehabilitation counseling and 67 percent needed employment help. Offender/clients having education and training needs could be subdivided into two subgroups: "those needing to develop marketable job skills, and those needing to develop new skills for job upgrading."<sup>89</sup>

It was estimated in 1967 that as many as 90 percent of the almost 5,000 persons on parole in Ohio needed vocational rehabilitation services.<sup>90</sup> Parolees were reported to be seriously lacking in vocational and educational skills. These inadequacies were further complicated by physical, mental and social problems.

Vocational rehabilitation counselors are also employed in many non-correctional settings. Major employment settings include: state agencies, mental hospitals, rehabilitation centers, rehabilitation workshops, public schools, correctional institutions and other special settings such as Veteran's Administration hospitals, special schools, and voluntary health agencies. All 50 states have rehabilitation programs financed jointly by federal and state funds.

The U. S. National Center for Health Statistics<sup>91</sup> has estimated that about 12,000 vocational rehabilitation counselors, including placement specialists, were employed in state programs at the end of 1973. An additional 5,000 rehabilitation counselors were believed to be employed in Veteran's Administration hospitals during the same year, for a total of 17,000 identified VR counselors.

The estimated number of vocational rehabilitation counselors in 1973 was 17,000, a 15,500 increase since 1965. Furthermore, in 1973 twice as many counselors were employed in state programs as in hospitals, schools, and other settings as there were in 1965.

The minimum educational requirements for employment as a vocational rehabilitation counselor generally center around a bachelor's degree, preferably with a major in the behavioral or social sciences. Probably most of the 17,000 employed VR counselors have some graduate training. The graduate program generally requires two years for a master's degree and an additional two to three years for a doctorate. Approximately 1,000 persons were awarded graduate degrees in rehabilitation counseling during 1973, and some 72 schools offered graduate programs in rehabilitation counseling in 1973-74.

Schools within the six states of interest to this study which offer graduate training programs in rehabilitation

counseling and which receive Rehabilitation Service Administration training grants in rehabilitation counseling are listed in Figure 30. The State of California has five such schools, Michigan has two, and Louisiana, Mississippi, New Jersey, and Ohio have one each.

As the table shows, California offers more college based programs in vocational rehabilitation counseling than any of the other five states. When this fact is combined with the state's large population, the expected result would be a relatively large number of counselors employed in California in state and other program settings.

**B. PROJECTIONS OF THE SUPPLY OF VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION COUNSELORS**

Current supply and demand data and projections suggest an adequate supply of VR counselors for the remainder of this decade. The Department of Labor<sup>92</sup> has estimated a 4.7 percent annual growth rate and 1,050 job openings per year for VR counselors until 1980. Growth in VR counselor demand was projected to be low in spite of population growth, the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973, increasing social welfare, and the awareness that VR expenditures are often returned as long-term savings on the appropriations for custodial care of health and social welfare programs. The major limiting factor is an economic one; VR counselors work primarily in federal and

FIGURE 30

**SCHOOLS OFFERING GRADUATE TRAINING PROGRAMS IN REHABILITATION COUNSELING AND WHICH RECEIVE REHABILITATION SERVICES ADMINISTRATION TRAINING GRANTS IN REHABILITATION COUNSELING**

State	School
California	California State College at Los Angeles California State University, Fresno Sacramento State College, Sacramento San Diego State College, San Diego San Francisco State College, San Francisco
Louisiana	University of Southwestern Louisiana Lafayette
Michigan	Michigan State University, East Lansing Wayne State University, Detroit
Mississippi	Mississippi State University
New Jersey	Seton Hall University, South Orange
Ohio	Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green

Source: U.S. National Center for Health Statistics, Health Resources Statistics, 1974, p.317.

state supported programs, so demand depends on public expenditures for rehabilitation-related services.

The number of schools offering graduate training programs in rehabilitation counseling has increased almost two and one-half times since 1959-60. Also, student enrollment stabilized around the 2,000 mark from 1968-69 to 1972-73. However, the 1973-74 enrollment was 47 percent lower than the previous year. For the ten-year period from 1963-64 to 1973-74, the graduates were about one-half the total enrollment, suggesting an average of two years in the graduate programs. The lowered enrollment in 1973-74 may reflect low demand for graduates in the job market.

Data on minorities in graduate VR programs were not available. The U. S. Department of Labor<sup>93</sup> has estimated that there will be approximately 21,000 VR counselors at the beginning of the next decade. In view of the estimated 17,000 VR counselors employed in 1973, DOL's estimate appears low. If the trend which has held since 1965 of an increase of 3,000 in the VR counselor work force every two years were to continue until 1980, we would have reached 21,000 in 1975, and will reach 28,500 by 1980.

Given the dependence of VR counseling upon federal and state programs, the statistics on the number of VR counselors in the six states of interest, as shown in Figure 31 are

FIGURE 31

THE NUMBER OF VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION COUNSELORS IN THE STATES OF:  
NEW JERSEY, MISSISSIPPI, MICHIGAN, OHIO, LOUISIANA AND CALIFORNIA: 1970-1974

State	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
New Jersey	210.2	179.0	180.5	189.7	214.0
Mississippi	145.2	119.7	128.6	139.3	137.0
Michigan	540.5	292.0	378.4	355.0	317.5
Ohio	220.1	276.7	286.5	366.6	447.8
Louisiana	153.1	406.3	215.6	169.6	185.5
California	404.6	404.4	437.4	628.0	805.5

Source: State Vocational Rehabilitation Agency. Program Data.  
U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.  
Social and Rehabilitation Services. Rehabilitation  
Services Administration, Washington, D. C. 1970-74.

not surprising. In a four-year period from 1970 through 1974, the number of VR counselors in California and Ohio doubled. None of the remaining states experienced an equivalent increase; in fact, Mississippi and Michigan experienced a decrease during the same four-year period.

A geographical distribution of VR counselors by race and state was not available. The 1970 Census was the only available source that contained data on counselors broken down by race, but all counselors were categorized as "vocational and educational." Consequently, accurate counts on the number of VR counselors by race in each state could not be determined. The Census figures for the six selected states are shown in Figure 32. The wide range of proportions of Black counselors may be a result of the inclusion of educational counselors in the category.

Given the lack of data by race, it is possible to conclude only that there is likely to be an adequate supply of VR counselors overall for corrections recruitment. However, there may not be an adequate supply of minority rehabilitation counselors.

FIGURE 32

VOCATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL COUNSELORS BY RACE: 1970

State	Blacks	Whites	Percent Blacks
New Jersey	328	3,510	8.5
Mississippi	255	781	24.6
Michigan	402	5,457	6.9
Ohio	80	419	16.0
Louisiana	227	1,156	16.4
California	912	10,953	7.7

Source: 1970 Bureau of the Census.



## XI. LIBRARIANS

### A. CURRENT SUPPLY

The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training<sup>94</sup> believes the role of a librarian in a correctional setting is much the same as it would be elsewhere -- contributing to the educational and recreational needs of individuals through identifying appropriate printed materials. However, McCleod<sup>95</sup> calls for a new specialty in librarianship -- prison law librarianship -- which might require a change in the traditional role of librarians in correctional settings. With or without such a role change, however, correctional facilities must employ librarians. The U.S. Supreme Court ruled on November 8, 1971, that prisoners have a right to adequate law librarians. This issue is important since many prisoners are involved in doing their own legal research in order to attempt to obtain new trials, etc.

Unless the special role of librarians in correctional facilities leads to major new educational requirements for correctional librarians, the corrections field, according to the projections of the U.S. Department of Labor,<sup>96</sup> should have no difficulty in recruiting non-minority librarians for at least the next decade: "Libraries are swamped with job applications."<sup>97</sup>

Approximately 235,000 persons were employed in the library occupation in 1970. This figure included both full-time and part-time personnel. About half of the total number were professional librarians, and the other half were library attendants and assistants. The following tabulation shows the percent distribution of library personnel by type of library:

<u>Type of Library</u>	<u>Librarian</u>	<u>Library Attendants and Assistants</u>
Public	23	38
School (elementary and secondary)	45	16
Academic (colleges, universities, etc.)	17	33
Special	15	13
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>

As shown, elementary and secondary schools dominated the employment of librarians, whereas 38 percent of the library assistants and attendants were employed in public libraries. In 1970, approximately one of every four librarians were employed in a public library; one of every six was employed in an academic library; and slightly less than one of every seven was employed in a special library.

The numbers for each type of library listed in the above tabulations grew during the 1960 to 1970 decade, as shown the following chart:

Type of Employment	Number Employed		Annual Rate of Increase (Percent)
	1960	1970	
School	30,900	52,000	5.3
Public	17,700	26,500	4.1
Academic	10,400	19,500	6.5
Special	10,000	16,000	5.5

Females constituted approximately 87 percent of all employed librarians, and males 13 percent. The proportion, however, varies by type of employment, ranging from 60 percent female in academic libraries to 93 percent female in school libraries.

On the average, women librarians tended to be older than men and a significantly higher percentage of librarians are older than workers in any other profession.<sup>98</sup>

Many studies and reports point to the past failure of the library system to recruit Blacks, Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans and American Indians.<sup>99</sup> Savage<sup>100</sup> believes racial discrimination has become a prime target for an increasingly large number of library schools and libraries. He also sees an attempt to provide impetus to the librarianship career aspirations of minority group members through the implementation of forward-looking internship programs and affirmative action plans.

Josey<sup>101</sup> disagreed with Savage's contention and supported his disbelief with survey data collected by the Black Caucus of the American Library Association in the spring of 1974. He concluded that there is a great reservoir of potential Black and other minority librarians if employment officers would only try to locate them.

Several surveys have been conducted to determine the current supply of minority librarians. Following the recommendation of the American Library Association Special Council + Committee on Freedom of Access to Librarians, the Library Administration Division of ALA (1969) conducted an employment survey by sending a short questionnaire to the largest public library in each state, to state library agencies, and to one public library system in each state. Sixty-five percent of all questionnaires were returned.

An analysis of the returns provide the following profile of the libraries:

- From 4 to 16 percent of all librarians, including 4 to 8 percent of professionals and 5 to 23 percent of non-professionals, were minority group members.
- Minority group members were employed (full time or part time) by 84 percent of the libraries.
- Slightly more than 7 percent of the libraries had job openings in established professional positions.

- Less than 4 percent of established non-professional positions were vacant.
- Approximately 7 percent of all professional employees worked on a part-time basis.
- One-third of the non-professional employees worked on a part-time basis.
- Slightly more than 7 percent of the minority group employees worked on a part-time basis.
- Slightly more than one-fifth (22 percent) of the minority group non-professional employees worked on a part-time basis.

The percentage of each racial/ethnic group in the total minority sample was as follows:

Group	Percent of Minority Sample
Black	73
Spanish-American	15
Oriental	11
American Indian	1
	<u>100</u>

Figure 33 shows the percent of minority group members for the total library staff, professional employees, and non-professional employees. The data show that minorities are disproportionately under-represented in the professional category, according to their percentage distribution in the general population. Moreover, minorities are also under

FIGURE 33

PERCENTAGES OF MINORITY GROUP MEMBERS ON LIBRARY STAFFS

Type of Library	Percent of Total Library Staff	Percent of Professional Employees	Percent of Non-Professional Employees
State	9	4	11
Public	16	8	23
Public Systems	8	8	8
Academic	4	4	5

From: "Library Employment of Minority Group Personnel".  
American Library Association Bulletin, Volume 67,  
No. 7 (1969), pp. 985-988.

represented in the non-professional category except in public library systems.

The Library Administration Division summarized the survey by saying no conclusions could be drawn about employment practices of libraries as related to minorities nor could any forecasts of future employment be made.

More recently, the ALA Office of Library Personnel Resources (1973) sent questionnaires to a sample of 2,775 libraries requesting information on the racial/ethnic and sexual composition of professional employees. The sample was drawn from NCES Education Directory: Higher Education 1970-1971, NCES Statistics of Public Libraries Serving Areas with at least 25,000 Inhabitants, 1968, and from a directory of school library system supervisors compiled by the American Association of School Librarians. The sample did not include private schools, government agencies or special institutional libraries. Only 782 institutions returned useable questionnaires; this was a 28 percent response rate representing 16 percent of the population from which the sample was drawn.

The survey collected data primarily on professional employees, including their race/ethnicity, sex, and levels of educational attainment. The level of professional education was broken down into "some library science education, master's degree in library science, or Ph.D. in library

science." Of the total number of library employees with some education, 14.3 percent were identified as minority group members. The largest proportion (20.7 percent) of minorities with "some education" were employed as school librarians; and the smallest proportion (6.4 percent) were employed as public and college/university librarians.

Minorities comprised 9.3 percent of all employees having master's degrees. Minority group members with master's degrees were more likely to be employed in two-year colleges (11.2 percent) than in any of the three remaining areas (i.e., public, college/university, and school librarians).

A total of 13.5 percent of all library employees with doctoral degrees were minority group members, according to the survey. Minorities with doctoral degrees in library science were heavily concentrated in public libraries. Twenty percent of the Blacks and 20 percent of the Orientals who worked in public libraries had Ph.D.'s or the equivalent.

However, because of the small sample size and the high concentration of minority group members in public libraries, these data could be misleading. Wedgeworth,<sup>102</sup> providing a caution on this point, reported that between 1960 and 1970 only 19 minority group librarians received supervisory appointments in public libraries in cities having a population of more than 200,000.

Josey felt that ALA Office of Library Personnel Resources survey represented library administration and did not reflect the status of all minorities working in libraries. Consequently, the Black Caucus of the American Library Association conducted a survey in the spring of 1974. Twenty-four questionnaires were sent to 12 public library systems and 12 university library systems. Twenty-two questionnaires were returned: ten from public library systems and 12 from the university library systems. Thus, data were collected specifically on Black professionals employed in a limited sample of public and university library systems.

The data were analyzed to determine the number of Black and other minority professionals in middle management and top management positions. Black professionals employed in the sample of public library systems comprised nine percent of non-managerial professional employees. Of the 492 middle-management positions reported in the ten public library systems, 108 (22 percent) were held by Blacks. These data show that Blacks are under-represented (according to their proportion of the general population) in the category of professional librarians and over-represented in middle-management positions. Josey's data revealed that only three

Blacks in the ten public library systems held top-management positions.

The employment status of Blacks was worse in the sample of university library systems. Only two percent of professional employees were Black. Eight percent of the middle-management positions were held by Blacks, and no Black had a top-management position in university library systems included in the survey.

While the results of surveys vary, all show an under-representation of Black professional librarians, except in certain middle-management positions in large-city public library systems. According to Department of Labor 1975 statistics,<sup>103</sup> seven percent of all librarians are Blacks and eight percent are other minorities. Blacks were also seven percent of all librarians in 1970.

#### B. PROJECTIONS OF LIBRARIAN MANPOWER DEMAND AND SUPPLY

##### Demand

The requirements for library manpower are affected by population trends, school enrollment trends, the development of new and improved library technology and services, government spending, and changes in staffing patterns. The demand for librarians over the decade from 1970 to 1980 is projected to be affected by the state of the economy and the educational service industry. The U.S. Department of Labor<sup>104</sup> analysis

of a combination of growth factors indicates a significant slowdown in the employment growth of the library occupation as a whole. However, employment growth rates will vary by type of library.

The U.S. Department of Labor<sup>105</sup> developed projections on the employment requirements for librarians by type of library, 1970-1980. The projected requirements in Figure 34 show both a basic and an alternative low set of projections. Under the basic projection model, there would be an expected 22.6 percent increase in the employment of librarians from 1970 to 1980. The largest projected numerical growth is expected to occur in school librarians, from 52,000 in 1970 to 64,500 in 1980. Under the alternative low projections, the increase in employment over the entire decade would be 14.8 percent.

The projected annual rates of change in employment of librarians, by type of library, between 1970 and 1980 are as follows -- using the basic projection model:

Type of Library	Projected Annual Rate of Change (Percent)
School	2.4
Public	1.3
Academic	3.6
Special	1.8
All Libraries	2.3

FIGURE 34

PROJECTED EMPLOYMENT REQUIREMENTS FOR LIBRARIANS,  
BY TYPE OF LIBRARY, 1970-80

Type of Library	Estimated 1970 Employment	Projected Requirements for Librarians	
		Basic 1980	Alternative Low 1980
All Libraries...	115,000	141,000	132,000
School.....	52,000	64,500	59,000
Public.....	26,500	30,000	30,000
Academic.....	19,500	26,500	22,500
Special.....	17,000	20,000	20,000
Rate of Increase (Percent)		22.6	14.8

From: Library Manpower: A Study of Demand and Supply. Bulletin 1852, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975.

The number of librarians needed to replace those who die, retire, transfer, or leave the librarian labor force for other reasons is expected to exceed the number of new job openings during this decade. Of the approximately 100,000 job openings projected, between 1970 and 1980, 74 percent reflect replacement needs and 26 percent reflect employment growth under the basic projection model.

#### Supply

New college graduates, labor force re-entrants and delayed entrants, and occupational transfers will be the primary sources of the supply of librarians in this decade. The U.S. Office of Education has estimated that 10,251 bachelor's and master's degrees in library science would be awarded annually from 1970-71 to 1979-80.

Librarians in the U.S. are overwhelmingly white. Between 1960 and 1970, however, the number of Black librarians rose from 4,000 to 8,000, and the proportion of minorities employed in library occupations increased from six percent to eight percent.

DOL's<sup>106</sup> library manpower survey cited respondents as repeatedly saying the shortage of qualified minority applicants was the chief constraint on recruiting minorities for professional positions. Other libraries reported difficulty in recruiting minorities because very few lived in areas

where the job opportunities were or they did not want to relocate where the jobs were.

Recommendations for action to eliminate the shortage of minority librarians were made by the ALA Preconference on the Recruitment of Minorities, held in Dallas, 1971. The Preconference recommended "that all library schools admit qualified minority applicants on a preferential basis and seek to provide financial aid for those who are economically handicapped."<sup>107</sup> It was noted that Title II-B of the Higher Education Act provides funds for the training of disadvantaged persons as library personnel.

Such efforts and recommendations have not resulted in a significant increase in the enrollment of minority persons in library schools. Now minorities comprise, on the average, about four percent of the total enrollment in accredited library schools. A 1972 survey by the Library Education Division and Office for Recruitment of ALA showed only 310 Blacks, 197 Mexican-Americans, and one Puerto Rican enrolled in library schools in the spring of 1972.

#### C. PROJECTIONS OF THE DEMAND FOR AND SUPPLY OF MINORITY LIBRARIANS

##### Demand for Minority Librarians

According to the U.S. Department of Labor,<sup>108</sup> there is a shortage of minority librarians; this implies there is a demand. Black and other minority librarians are needed for

positions as catalogers, library administrators, public librarians, to work with the disadvantaged, etc. The demand for Black and other minority librarians is expected to remain strong throughout the 1970 to 1980 period.

Supply of Minority Librarians

The best available data indicated that minorities comprise no more than three to five percent of the enrollment in accredited library schools. Based on this data and the projected annual average number of bachelor's and master's degrees to be awarded (10,251) from 1970-71 to 1979-80, it is estimated that from 307 to 513 of this number of graduates will be minority group members.

The number of employed non-white librarians is expected to increase from 9,200 to 11,280 between 1970 and 1980, and in 1980, the number of Black librarians is expected to have risen from 8,000 to 9,870 (See Figure 35).

Demand for Librarians in Corrections

Data on the demand for librarians in correctional settings were not available. However, a 1974 survey conducted by the Institute of Library Research at the University of California at Berkeley provided data on whether major adult correctional institutions had or did not have full-time professional librarians or a coordinator of library services.

Unfortunately a demand for professional librarians to serve in correctional settings could not be inferred from

FIGURE 35

PROJECTED TOTAL EMPLOYED, TOTAL MINORITY AND TOTAL BLACK LIBRARIAN WORK FORCE: 1970-71 TO 1979-80

Year	Total Employed Librarian Work Force	Minority Librarian <sup>1</sup> Work Force	Black Librarian <sup>2</sup> Work Force
1969-70	115,000	9,200	8,000
1970-71	117,600	9,360	8,100
1971-72	120,200	9,616	8,414
1972-73	122,800	9,824	8,596
1973-74	125,400	10,032	8,778
1974-75	128,000	10,246	8,960
1975-76	130,600	10,448	9,100
1976-77	133,200	10,656	9,324
1977-78	135,800	11,704	9,506
1978-79	138,400	11,072	9,688
1979-80	141,000	11,280	9,870

<sup>1</sup>It was assumed that minorities would remain 8 percent of the total number of employed librarians from 1970 through 1980. This assumption was based on DOL distribution of librarians by race (i.e., 92% of librarians are white; 8% other).

<sup>2</sup>It was assumed Blacks would remain 7 percent of the total number of employed librarians from 1970 through 1980. This assumption was based on the DOL estimate of 8,000 Black librarians in 1970.



the data. The ideal, however, would be for every institution to have one or more professional libraries, depending on size and facility and library.

Summary

A number of constraints exist on the recruitment of minority group librarians. Most could be overcome over a period of years. Moreover, if a special kind of training is needed for correctional librarians, new curricula may have to be developed before the need can be met. Corrections may experience difficulty in recruiting minority librarians.

XII. ACADEMIC INSTRUCTORS: ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY LEVELS

A. CURRENT SALARY

Law offenders are, in general, poorly educated. By acquiring at least minimal academic skills and knowledge, the offender can facilitate his adjustment to incarceration and later re-entry into a legally non-restricted society. Academic teachers can therefore make highly important contributions to the remediation of educational handicaps which are believed to be widespread among the law offender population.<sup>109</sup>

There is currently a surplus of academic teachers.<sup>110, 111, 112</sup> However, this is a new situation; during the '50's and '60's the supply of elementary and secondary school teachers did not meet the demand. In 1968, only 53 percent of the 150,000 new teachers needed were available. From 1963 to 1968, the demand for new teachers continued to exceed the supply.<sup>113</sup> This trend was reversed in 1969, when the number of new college graduates entering teacher education increased significantly and demand began to diminish.

Estimates of the total supply of elementary and secondary school teachers in 1972-73 ranged from 2,100,200 to 2,356,000. The National Education Association<sup>114</sup> estimated that 1,122,000 of the total supply of full-time employed

teachers in 1973-74 were in public elementary schools and 978,200 were in public secondary schools. The National Center for Educational Statistics<sup>115</sup> reported "there were 2.6 million professional persons employed in public and private elementary and secondary day schools in fall 1973." Of this number, 2,356,000 were classroom teachers in elementary and secondary schools. The number of classroom teachers employed in regular public and non-public elementary and secondary schools was estimated by NCES to have increased from 2.36 million in 1974 to 2.37 million in 1975.<sup>116</sup>

The attraction of teacher preparation for college and university students did not taper off until 1966; then the proportion held near the 1966 level through 1972 and decreased in 1973.<sup>117</sup>

Many persons completing teacher training programs seek employment in other areas. Students whose preparation is in special education, elementary-school foreign languages, mathematics, elementary school music, natural science, physical science, music and regular elementary instruction are particularly likely to enter teaching immediately upon graduation. Over the last ten years, less than 75 percent of prospective teachers entered teaching immediately after graduation.

#### Supply of Qualified Former Teachers

The rate of re-entry of former teachers into the teaching profession has been estimated to be 2.5 percent per year for elementary teachers and 3.4 percent per year for secondary teachers. Based on these rates, the number of experienced teachers available for re-entry in the fall of 1973 was 86,400. It has been projected that the supply of former teachers will increase by 2,000 annually through 1980.

#### B. PROJECTIONS ON SUPPLY OF AND DEMAND FOR TEACHERS

##### The Demand for New Teachers

The supply of new teachers is defined as the number of new college graduates qualified to teach and who seek teaching positions<sup>118</sup> in the year after graduation.

The 1975 demand estimate for new hires derived from the Commission on Human Resources and Higher Education (211,000) is somewhat higher than the estimates of DOL and NCES. However, the 1980 demand estimates of the Commission, DOL, and NCES are quite similar; DOL and NCES have identical estimates. DOL's 1975 estimate of the new supply of elementary and secondary school teachers and NCES estimate for the same year are similar. NCES's estimate on the supply of new teachers for the year 1980 (391,000) is the largest of the three. The main conclusion drawn from these data is that the supply of new teachers has greatly exceeded the demand since 1972.

The National Education Association<sup>119</sup> surveyed persons in 50 states responsible for teacher education and certification, asking the respondents for their general impressions on the supply and demand for teachers in their state. The results of the survey were:

- 24 states reported a shortage of applicants in some areas and an excess in others;
- One state reported having sufficient applicants to fill all positions;
- Six states reported some excess of applicants; and
- 10 states reported a substantial excess of applicants.
- 48 states reported the supply of applicants in central cities of large urban centers, in suburban cities, small cities, towns, and in rural areas was not extremely low;
- One state reported having a low supply in small cities and towns;
- 16 states reported having a low supply in rural areas.
- 31 states reported having an over-supply in central cities. Similarly, over-supplies were reported in suburban areas by 40 states, in small cities by 16 states, and in rural areas by seven states.

The United States General Accounting Office<sup>120</sup> also conducted a survey and found a general surplus of qualified elementary and secondary school classroom teachers.

Carroll and Ryder,<sup>121</sup> using data from several sources, developed estimates of the excess teacher supply for 1972,

1975, and 1980. The over-supply estimates ranged from 54,000 to 185,000 in 1975-76. The range of the projections for 1980 was almost as great, from 73,000 to 191,000.

#### Supply of Minority Teachers

Beginning teachers will constitute the major pool for purposes of recruitment and new hires. Carroll and Ryder<sup>122</sup> constructed seven alternative sets of projections of annual supplies, each based on different assumptions. Using the third set of projections, these authors developed estimates of the supply of beginning minority teachers from 1974 through 1980. This set of projections was based on the assumption that there would be a continued decline in teacher production rates through 1981.

The supplies of minority public elementary and secondary school beginning teachers were estimated by applying HEW's Office of Civil Rights 1972 Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data from institutions of higher education to Carroll and Ryder's third set of new teacher projections. As of 1972, minority group percentages of the total undergraduate enrollment were as follows: Blacks, 8.3 percent; Spanish-surnamed, 2.3 percent; Orientals, 1.0 percent; and American Indian, 0.5 percent. On the whole, minorities were 12.4 percent of all undergraduate programs in the U.S. Figure 36 shows projections of the annual production (1974-80) of

FIGURE 36

SUPPLY OF MINORITY ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL  
BEGINNING TEACHERS 1974-80 (in thousands)

Year	Total Supply	Blacks	Spanish-Surnamed	Orientals	American Indian	Total Minority
1973	201	16.68	4.62	2.00	1.00	24.30
1974	205	17.02	4.72	2.05	1.03	24.82
1975	199	16.52	4.58	1.99	1.00	24.09
1976	207	17.18	4.76	2.07	1.04	25.05
1977	213	17.68	4.90	2.13	1.07	25.78
1978	218	18.09	5.01	2.18	1.09	26.37
1979	224	18.59	5.15	2.24	1.12	27.10
1980	225	18.68	5.18	2.25	1.13	27.24
Average Annual Production:		17.55	4.87	2.11	1.06	25.59

beginning minority teachers in elementary and secondary education.

Figure 37 shows the estimated number of Blacks employed as public elementary and secondary school teachers from 1974 to 1980. The data show minority teacher employment decreasing from 226,000 in 1976 to 220,000 in 1980. The number of minority classroom teachers, other than Blacks is expected to remain constant through 1980.

Recruitment Outlook

No data could be found on the needs for elementary and secondary teachers in corrections. However, since the currently estimated supply of teachers, including minority teachers is significantly above requirements, any demand for minority academic instructors by corrections should be easily met.

FIGURE 37

PROJECTION OF NUMBER OF EMPLOYED MINORITY TEACHERS IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS 1974-80 (in thousands)

Year	Total Number	Blacks	Spanish-Surnamed	Oriental	American Indian	Total Minority	Other
1974	2362	224	28	9	5	266	2906
1975	2370	225	28	9	5	267	2103
1976	2775	226	29	10	5	270	2105
1977	2364	225	28	9	5	267	2097
1978	2348	223	28	9	5	265	2083
1979	2321	221	28	9	5	263	2058
1980	2316	220	28	9	5	262	2054

X<sup>II</sup>. EMPLOYMENT COUNSELORS

A. CURRENT SUPPLY

Employment Counselors (sometimes called vocational counselors) help job seekers evaluate their abilities and vocational interests so they can choose, prepare for, and adjust to a satisfactory field of work.<sup>123</sup> Some job seekers are skilled and ready for job placement; others lack marketable skills and need intensive training.

DOL estimated approximately 6,000 persons were employed by state employment service offices as employment counselors in 1972. An additional 2,500 were believed to work for private organizations or community agencies. Most of these were located in large cities. Still other employment counselors worked in institutions such as prisons.

Counseling in Correctional Settings

Very few data are available on the number of counselors employed to provide services to law offenders.<sup>124</sup> Hecker and Field<sup>125</sup> reported some 5,000 persons were employed in 34 states as correctional counselors or probation-parole supervisors responsible for counseling law offenders. The 34 states also reported some 2,000 job openings for employment counselors in 1975. These data should be viewed as minimal estimates because they represent only about two-thirds of the states.

B. PROJECTIONS ON SUPPLY OF AND DEMAND FOR EMPLOYMENT COUNSELORS

Reliable data on the demand for employment counselors were not available. However, the Division of Counseling and Testing, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor has recently completed a study of employment counselors employed by the states. (It should be noted that states are the prime employer of employment counselors.) The study showed a one-half reduction in the total estimated employment counselor labor force. This was interpreted to mean there is very little, if any, demand for employment counselors.

No data were available on ethnicity of employment counselors.

XIV. CHAPLAINS

The role of the Chaplain in a correctional setting is essentially one of a spiritual leader, religious teacher, and counselor.<sup>126</sup> Moreover, the chaplain ministers to the inmates' families when requested, and offers personal counseling for inmates plagued with fear, guilt, or grief.

The Occupational Handbook (1974-75) contains data on only two religious dominations: Protestants and Catholics. The Handbook states that if current trends continue, Protestant graduates of theological schools may find increasing competition for positions. The inference is that there are more graduates available than positions; that is, the supply exceeds the demand.

Conversely, the Handbook reports an insufficient supply of ordained priests to fill the needs of newly established parishes and other Catholic priests in the U.S. The average number of annual openings from 1970 through 1980 has been estimated to be 2,800.

The Association of Theological Schools<sup>127</sup> has enrollment data on Black students for 1970-75. Figure 38 looks at the total enrollment in the Association of Theological Schools (ATS) member schools and the enrollment of Black students in those schools over the last five years. Since 1972, more

than 1,000 Black students have been enrolled in schools with membership in ATS.

Currently approximately 200 schools have membership in ATS. Only ten of those schools prepare students for jobs as chaplains in institutions such as prisons. Students interested in positions as chaplains generally enrolled in three year professional programs which grant the Master's of Divinity and the Doctor of Ministry degrees.

Since the 1971-72 academic year, an average of 175 Blacks have been graduated annually. According to Dr. Marshall Grisby of the Howard School of Religion and formerly with ATS, only 50 of the 175 would be available for positions as chaplains in correctional institutions.<sup>1/</sup>

Figure 38 also shows a 14.4 percent average rate of increase in the enrollment of Black students in ATS member institutions from 1971 to 1973. In contrast, the average rate of increase for 1975 was 6.3 percent, less than half of the previous three year period. The rate of increase in Black student enrollment in 1971 through 1973 was considerably higher than the rate of increase for the total enrollment. However, it has dropped considerably below the total enrollment rate of increase for 1974 and 1975 which was 8.1 and 11.0 respectively.

<sup>1/</sup>Personal Communication from Dr. Marshall Grisby, School of Religion, Howard University.

FIGURE 38

BLACK STUDENTS ENROLLED IN ATS MEMBER SCHOOLS

Year	Total Enrollment	Percent Change
1970	808	12.4
1971	908	12.4
1972	1,061	16.9
1973	1,210	14.0
1974	1,246	3
1975	1,365	9.6

From: Marvin J. Taylor (ed.) Factbook on Theological Education. Vandalia, Ohio: Association of Theological Schools in Canada and the United States, 1976.

The percentage of Black students enrolled in ATS member schools is 3.3 percent, "far below the percentage of Blacks in the general population."<sup>128</sup>

The Association of Theological Schools has collected data on Hispanic Americans for the past four years. These data are presented in Figure 39. In the past three years, the Hispanic/American student enrollment has increased by 98.5 percent from 264 in 1972 to 524 in the fall of 1975.

- Hispanic/American enrollees in nonordination two-year Master's degree programs rose sharply (+119.2%); slightly in the three/four year programs (+7.3%); post-M-Div. graduate Master's (+50.0%); with the academic doctoral enrollment remaining constant at thirteen persons.<sup>129</sup>

The data indicate that corrections will experience difficulty in recruiting minority chaplains. The number of minority chaplains being graduated from ATS member schools is far less than the apparent need and demand.

FIGURE 39

CHANGES IN HISPANIC/AMERICAN STUDENT ENROLLMENT

Year	Number	Percent Change
1972	264	
1973	387	47
1974	448	16
1975	524	17

Source: Marvin J. Taylor (Ed.) Factbook on Theological Education. Vandalia, Ohio: Association of Theological Schools in Canada and the United States, 1976.



XV. UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG MINORITIES IN  
AREAS SURROUNDING SEVEN PRISON SITES

The purpose of this section is to examine data on unemployment rates in areas surrounding the seven prison sites of special interest to this study. It is expected that these data will provide additional indications -- to supplement occupational data -- concerning the feasibility of recruiting local minority group members for job opportunities in the correctional institutions. Unemployment data are presented on the state, county, and/or city level.

Employment and unemployment in the United States have shown significant regional differences over the past 15 years.<sup>130</sup> It is believed much of the difference can be explained by the types of industries, occupations, and the ethnic composition of the labor force. However, unemployment among Blacks has remained approximately twice as high as among whites, in good and bad times. The employment situation for Blacks deteriorated in all sections of the country during the recent recession. Although some improvement occurred in 1972 and 1973, the situation deteriorated in 1974 and 1975 for both Blacks and whites. By March of 1976, some improvements were evident, however.

The National Manpower Policy Task Force<sup>131</sup> reported the national unemployment rate among Blacks in 1975 rose from

9.0 percent during the second quarter to 10.5 percent in the third quarter as compared with an increase from 4.7 percent to 5.0 percent for whites. During the same quarter, the unemployment rate for Black teenagers was 33.3 percent, more than twice the rate (14.1 percent) for white teenagers. Black unemployment had peaked at 14.4 percent in September 1975.

As of March 1976, the Bureau of Labor Statistics reported the national unemployment rates -- by race, sex (males only) and age -- to be as follows:

<u>Group</u>	<u>Unemployment Rate</u>
Blacks	12.5
Whites	6.8
Black males 20 years and over	10.1
White males 20 years and over	6.8
Black teenagers	39.5
White teenagers	17.2

Unemployment rates for Blacks and other minorities remain nearly twice as large as the rates for whites, as they have since the end of World War II.

Unemployment rates (1974) for the six states containing the correctional facilities included in this study are higher

among Black and other minorities (19.4 percent) in Michigan than in the other states. California had the lowest unemployment rate for Blacks and other races (10.1 percent). Only in Ohio was the minority unemployment rate less than ten percent. (In Ohio, the rate was 8.5 percent.) Minority females had higher unemployment rates than minority males in five of the six states, California being the exception.

The county unemployment rates for correctional facility locations were also reviewed. (See Figure 40.) Excluding Angola, Louisiana, all the counties and/or cities in which the study sites were located are listed by the U.S. Department of Labor as areas of "substantial", "persistent", or "concentrated" unemployment. The California Institute for Men and the California Institute for Women are located in San Bernardino and Riverside counties, respectively. Both areas were categorized as recently as September 1975, as having "substantial" unemployment -- from five to more than twelve percent. The New Jersey State Prison in Trenton, is located in Mercer County; Mississippi State Penitentiary at Parchman is in Sunflower County. Both counties are classified as having "substantial" unemployment. Ohio State Reformatory at Mansfield is located in Richland County and South Michigan State Prison in Jackson is located in Jackson County. Both are listed as areas of "concentrated" employment.

FIGURE 40

MINORITY LABOR FORCE AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATES  
FOR SEVEN PRISON SITES<sup>1</sup>

PRISON SITE	COUNTY	MINORITY LABOR FORCE		PERCENT MINORITY UNEMPLOYMENT
California Institution for Men, Chino, California	San Bernardino	Black	7,435	10.6
		Spanish	32,878	6.6
California Institution for Women, Frontera, California	Riverside	Black	6,344	9.0
		Spanish	25,955	6.8
Louisiana State Prison, Angola, Louisiana	West Selina	Black	942	15.9
		Spanish	---	---
Mississippi State Penitentiary, Parchman, Mississippi	Sunflower	Black	5,109	12.6
		Spanish	---	---
New Jersey State Prison, Trenton, New Jersey	Mercer	Black	19,989	6.4
		Spanish	1,092	6.8
Ohio State Reformatory Mansfield	Richland	Black	3,033	10.5
		Spanish	231	3.0
South Michigan, Jackson, Michigan	Jackson	Black	2,159	10.2
		Spanish	536	7.3

<sup>1</sup>1970 Census. Area Trends in Employment and Unemployment. Employment and Training Administration. U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. August-September, 1975.

Source: Geographic Profile of Employment and Unemployment, 1974. Bureau of Labor Statistics Report 452. U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 1976.

Considering the 1974 rates of reported unemployment in areas surrounding the study sites and the ratio of unemployment among minorities as compared to whites, the potential for recruiting minorities for non-specialized jobs as correctional officers is very good.

Unemployment today is higher than in 1970 in most of the counties surrounding the specified correctional facilities, and is generally about twice as high for minorities as for whites. Moreover, these areas typically have substantially higher unemployment rates than the nation as a whole. These figures suggest that minority manpower is available for possible recruitment with corrections.

## XVI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### A. CONCLUSIONS

This study of the projected supply of minority group members available from 1975 through 1980 in specified professions related to corrections generated both specific conclusions related to individual occupations and some general conclusions which transcend individual occupational supply and demand data. The specific conclusions were reported in the appropriate sections; more general conclusions are summarized below.

(1) Minority groups are presently under-represented in most of the corrections-related occupations considered in this study, and while the supply of minority group members is expected to increase in most of these professions between 1975 and 1980 they will still be under-represented in 1980.

While reliable information is not available for all the professions considered, Blacks and other minority groups appear to be seriously under-represented in medicine, dentistry, law, psychology, and library science. This situation will not soon be fully remedied.

In several corrections-related occupations (i.e., nursing, social work, education), minorities are either

already well represented or will be by 1980. Except in these occupations, however, where data by race are available, minority groups are seen to be seriously under-represented in the professions studied in this project.

(2) The availability of minority group members in corrections-related occupations for recruitment into corrections jobs depends to a considerable extent upon the overall demand for persons in that profession.

Where there is an under-supply of trained specialists in a given field, correctional facilities can expect to find recruitment of any personnel -- minority or otherwise -- relatively difficult. Where demand is high, and minority group members are under-represented, the available supply of minority group members will be particularly low. Specialized employment is expected to grow twice as fast as total employment in the decade of the '70's, but the state of the economy will have a major effect on the demand for specialized personnel.

(3) The progress of affirmative action may have a significant impact upon the availability of minorities in corrections-related specialized occupations. Given that minority group members are under-represented in most of the occupations studied in this research effort, public and private employers are likely to be competing for

the limited number of minorities who are available. However, this situation is based upon an assumption that affirmative action efforts will be an important factor in recruitment and hiring policies of many employers, public and private, between now and 1980. One of the reasons minorities have been under-represented in most of the specialized professions being studied is that for many years, employment discrimination denied them equal opportunity to practice such professions once they were trained; given limited job opportunities, minorities tended not to choose to train for such occupations. Today, as opportunities for employment in these occupations have improved minority enrollment in specialized educational programs has increased greatly. All projections for 1980 assume that current equal employment opportunity laws will remain in effect -- and that other employers, like corrections officials, realize that minority employees are needed at all levels in all job classifications.

(4) Most of the correctional facilities of particular interest to this study are in areas with relatively high unemployment rates. However, this situation in itself does not insure an adequate supply of specialized personnel -- minority or white -- for recruitment into correctional jobs.

High areas of unemployment rates suggest a supply of personnel who could be trained for specialized jobs or hired for non-specialized jobs. Since most of the facilities are in areas with significant minority populations, it seems likely that there is an available pool of non-specialized minority personnel who could be hired for non-specialized jobs or trained for specialized positions. However, the supply of specialized personnel in the occupations of particular interest to corrections is affected by many factors other than local unemployment rates. For example:

- Specialized personnel in many of the occupations considered tend to be concentrated in the larger cities. For example, librarians and physicians are concentrated in metropolitan areas, and particularly in the larger cities. This is true of minority group members in such occupations.
- Even where local unemployment rates are high, unemployment rates vary considerably by occupation. For example, there is a national shortage of physicians, particularly in rural areas, and this situation is little affected by short-term changes in the economic situation. Thus an area of high unemployment may still have unfilled vacancies for certain kinds of specialized personnel.
- Regardless of local unemployment rates, there are very few minorities in some professions, and those who are available will be sought by organizations with a need to obtain a minority representation in their staffs.

(5) There are large regional differences in the number of persons trained in particular occupations, and in the supply of minorities trained in these occupations.

National statistics concerning supply and demand are of interest because recruitment for many specialized jobs is done nationally rather than locally. However, some of the correctional facilities included in this study are located in or near small towns, and in states where there may be few schools offering specialized training in corrections-related occupations. This situation is likely to complicate recruitment, particularly if the area is not a particularly "popular" one to a professional, since this will limit the success of national recruitment efforts.

(6) Correctional facilities must compete with many other kinds of employers for specialized personnel, and may be at a disadvantage because of low salaries, relatively few schools providing training specifically related to corrections, and because job opportunities in corrections may not be broadly recognized.

Physicians, nurses, and dentists in correctional facilities may carry out many of the same functions as physicians, nurses and dentists in other employment situations. However, working in a correctional facility

may mean special applications and tasks for vocational rehabilitation counselors, employment counselors, librarians, and other professionals. The University of Alabama is the only school offering a specialized program in correctional psychology; only five schools offer specialized training within park and recreation curricula which relates to recreational jobs in corrections. It has been suggested that librarians in correctional facilities require specialized training given the requirement (based on a Supreme Court ruling) that correctional facilities provide adequate law libraries for inmate use.

Many minorities in the specialized occupations may never have considered a career -- or a job -- in corrections. They may not even have considered how their job could be performed within a correctional institution. Unless they have a means of obtaining such information, they are likely to consider corrections seriously, particularly in situations where salaries are low and many employers are competing for a limited number of minority personnel.

(7) There exists -- and will continue to exist -- in this country an adequate supply of minority group members who could be trained for specialized jobs in corrections.

Approximately 16.8 percent of the U.S. population are minority group members, including more than 11 percent Blacks and about five percent Spanish-origin individuals. The Black population, particularly, is somewhat younger than the white population. There exists an adequate pool of trainable persons.

College-educated Black women are more likely than college-educated white women to be in the labor force. In general terms, the better educated an individual, the more likely he or she is to be in the labor force. Thus efforts to encourage minorities to obtain specialized training in corrections-related occupations should have a high potential for success in increasing the availability of trained personnel for corrections jobs.

#### B. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, it appears that correctional facilities are likely to be able to recruit an adequate number of minorities with specialized training in corrections-related occupations only if special efforts are undertaken to identify, recruit, and train minority group members. Except for a small number of occupations in which there are (1) an over-supply of overall personnel, and (2) a high proportion of trained minority group members at present, corrections-related professions typically

include a relatively small number of minorities who are in great demand by public and private employers. The problem is even greater for skill-shortage occupations like medicine.

The following approaches are suggested as means of increasing the capability of correctional facilities to recruit specialized minority personnel:

- Efforts should be made to make students in specialized occupations more aware of career opportunities in corrections.

Many students in specialized occupations are unaware of career opportunities in the corrections field, and thus are unlikely to consider such jobs. Public information campaigns, directed at schools which train specialized personnel, and particularly at schools with a high proportion of minority students, could help familiarize minority students with corrections opportunities.

- Consideration should be given to helping universities increase or develop corrections-related courses or sub-specialties within graduate school.

The study found relatively few graduate schools which provided specialized coursework related to applications of a particular career area or skill within corrections facilities; for example, only one school provided specialized graduate level training in correctional psychology. LEAA might consider encouraging universities to add courses or recognized specialties within a major

field which relate specifically to corrections -- correctional psychology, recreational work within correctional facilities, correctional library work, etc.

- The most efficient way to assure a pool of specialized minority manpower for corrections may be for LEAA or other corrections-related agencies to provide scholarship or fellowship assistance which is tied to post-graduate work in corrections.

As a means of encouraging physicians to locate in medically under-served areas, HEW has developed a fellowship system which provides support for medical students, in return for their promise of a specified number of years of work after graduation in a medically-served area. Students who do not choose to work in such an area must repay the funds provided. LEAA could consider a similar approach for locating minorities for corrections jobs. Although this is a long-term approach, it does provide for individuals who not only are trained in specialized fields but also obtain such training with a knowledge that they will be working in a correctional setting. Thus they are likely to consider the applications of their skills in such an environment while in school, and thus be particularly well qualified for corrections jobs upon graduation.

- Educational institutions and professional associations should be encouraged to develop and maintain valid and reliable data concerning minority group representation in specialized occupations and in student enrollments in schools providing training for such professions.

This would greatly facilitate efforts to make projections concerning the future supply of and demand for such personnel, and thus would improve the accuracy of manpower planning and modeling which are needed in order to determine appropriate action to be taken to increase the supply of qualified minority professionals.

FOOTNOTES

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**3 OF 6**

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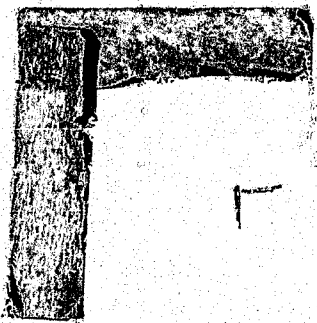
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FINAL REPORT

VOLUME III

THE RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF MINORITY  
CORRECTIONAL EMPLOYEES RESEARCH PROJECT

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A STUDY OF THE ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS OF  
BLACK CORRECTIONAL EMPLOYEES AS A BASIS FOR  
DESIGNING RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION STRATEGIES

BY

EUGENE BEARD

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represent the official position or policies  
of the Department of Justice.*

PREFACE

In the last quarter of 1974, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration of the U. S. Department of Justice awarded the Institute for Urban Affairs and Research of Howard University a grant to identify and examine factors which attract and retain minority employees in the correctional component of the criminal justice system. The study concentrated on minorities in the following groups: current and former correctional employees, inmates, and professionals in occupations with an investment in corrections.

Minorities were chosen as the study's focus of concern because of their over-representation in the inmate population and under-representation in the employee population. Many theoreticians believe the racial imbalance between inmates and staff, and differences in values, life styles, expectation, etc. render inmate rehabilitation highly probabilistic.

This report is the third of three reports on the recruitment and retention of minority correctional employees. The first report, Personnel Practices Relative to the Recruitment and Retention of Minority Correctional Personnel, examined the policies and practices of six state-operated prisons as they related to the recruitment, screening, selection, promotion and retention of minorities. The second

report, Projections on the Supply of Minorities In Corrections-Related Occupations: 1975-1980, looked at the projected number of minorities expected to be in certain corrections-related occupations from 1975-1980. The third report, this volume, examines minority employees' attitudes and perceptions as a means for constructing recruitment and retention strategies.

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As is customary, the above named persons are absolved from any responsibility for errors and omissions in the study. These are reserved for the author.

Eugene Beard, Ph.D.  
Project Director

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
PREFACE . . . . .	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS . . . . .	v
LISTING OF FIGURES . . . . .	vii
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY . . . . .	1
INTRODUCTION . . . . .	24
 <u>SECTION I: BLACK CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS.</u>	 34
A. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE . . . . .	34
B. EMPLOYMENT AND WORKING ENVIRONMENT . . . . .	36
C. MANAGEMENT METHODS AND PRACTICES . . . . .	43
D. RELATIONS WITH INMATES . . . . .	60
E. BARRIERS TO RECRUITMENT . . . . .	61
F. JOB SATISFACTION . . . . .	62
G. MEDIA EXPOSURE . . . . .	68
H. SUMMARY . . . . .	71
 <u>SECTION II: PERSONNEL OTHER THAN CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS.</u>	 76
A. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE . . . . .	76
B. EMPLOYMENT AND WORKING ENVIRONMENT . . . . .	79
C. MANAGEMENT METHODS AND PRACTICES . . . . .	86
D. RELATIONS WITH INMATES . . . . .	104

TABLE OF CONTENTS (CONTINUED)

	Page
E. BARRIERS TO RECRUITMENT . . . . .	106
F. JOB SATISFACTION . . . . .	108
G. MEDIA EXPOSURE . . . . .	114
H. SUMMARY . . . . .	117
 <u>SECTION III: COMPARISONS BETWEEN BLACK CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS AND OTHER BLACK CORRECTIONAL EMPLOYEES.</u>	 123
A. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE . . . . .	124
B. EMPLOYMENT AND WORKING ENVIRONMENT . . . . .	125
C. MANAGEMENT METHODS AND PRACTICES . . . . .	126
D. RELATIONS WITH INMATES . . . . .	129
E. BARRIERS TO RECRUITMENT . . . . .	130
F. JOB SATISFACTION . . . . .	131
G. MEDIA EXPOSURE . . . . .	133
H. SUMMARY . . . . .	134
 <u>SECTION IV: ADMINISTRATORS.</u>	 135
 <u>SECTION V: EX-EMPLOYEES</u>	 142
 <u>SECTION VI: INMATES</u>	 154
 <u>SECTION VII: PRINCIPLES FOR RECRUITMENT, SELECTION, AND RETENTION.</u>	 159
A. RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION . . . . .	161
B. RETENTION . . . . .	174

LISTING OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1 -- Percentage Distribution of Career Intentions at Time of Hiring. . . . .	37
Figure 2 -- Percentage Distribution of Responses to Possible Reasons for Possible Correctional Work. . . . .	39
Figure 3 -- Percentage Distribution of Black Perceptions of Behavior of Management Toward Blacks and Whites. . . . .	46
Figure 4 -- Decision-Making Practices: Extent To Which Affected Employees Are Asked for Advice .	47
Figure 5 -- Handling of Differences or Disagreements Between Blacks and Whites . . . . .	48
Figure 6 -- Percentage Distribution of Responses to Items on Goals and Aspirations of Black Correctional Officers . . . . .	50
Figure 7 -- Percentage Distribution of Response of Career and Non-Career Officers on Job-Related Retention Items . . . . .	53
Figure 8 -- Percentage Distribution of Employee Satisfaction with Job Factors. . . . .	63
Figure 9 -- Highest Level of Educational Attainment . .	77
Figure 10 -- Sources of Information About First/Current Job in Corrections . . . . .	80
Figure 11 -- Percentage Distribution of Respondents' Feelings About Their Physical Work Environment. . . . .	84
Figure 12 -- Respondents' Views on Aspects of the Selection and Promotion Examinations and Requirements . . . . .	101
Figure 13 -- Percentage Distribution of Job Satisfaction . . . . .	109
Figure 14 -- Administrators' Assessment of the Relationship Between Black Officers and Black Inmates and Black Officers and White Inmates. . . . .	137

LISTING OF FIGURES (CONTINUED)

	Page
Figure 15 -- Administrators' Assessment of the Relationship Between White Officers and White Inmates and White Officers and Black Inmates. . . . .	138
Figure 16 -- Comparison Between Ex-Employee Current Salary Levels When Employed in Corrections	143
Figure 17 -- Job Retention Factors Which Were Important to Ex-Employees. . . . .	150

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

### A. Study Background and Purpose

The number of Blacks holding administrative, custodial, and treatment jobs in corrections is disproportionately small, particularly since at least 47 percent of the total U. S. inmate population is Black. Many individuals, groups, and organizations, including the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, have called for increased and more effective recruitment and retention of Blacks in correctional jobs at all levels. This sub-study is part of a larger study designed to provide information about the current utilization of minority employees in selected correctional institutions and to offer recommendations for increasing the hiring and retention of minority employees in corrections.

This sub-study was designed to:

- Assess the attitudes and perceptions of Black correctional personnel concerning recruitment and retention; and
- Develop suggested principles and procedures for use by correctional institutions in recruiting, selecting, and retaining Black employees.

The sub-study had the following specific objectives:

- Develop statistical profiles of Black correctional personnel;
- Identify significant variables related to the recruitment and retention of Black correctional personnel;
- Devise suggested procedures and techniques for recruiting and retaining Black correctional employees.

### B. Methodology

The sub-study utilized a series of interviews and self-administered questionnaires to obtain data from a total of 636 correctional personnel, including:

- 304 Black correctional (custodial) officers;
- 117 other Black correctional personnel;
- 128 Black inmates;
- 52 wardens, superintendents, and their assistants; and
- 35 ex-correctional employees.

Interviews were conducted with personnel at seven state-operated correctional facilities in six states. Selected based on their geographical locations, racial composition of employee population, and recommendations of the study's advisory commission, the seven correctional institutions were:

- California Institution for Men, Chino, California;
- California Institution for Women, Frontera, California;
- New Jersey State Prison, Trenton, New Jersey;
- Louisiana State Prison, Angola, Louisiana;
- Mississippi State Penitentiary, Parchman, Mississippi;
- Southern Michigan State Prison, Jackson, Michigan;
- Ohio State Reformatory, Mansfield, Ohio.

Instruments were pretested at the Ohio State Reformatory, and data were collected by 18 trained field interviewers. The data obtained were analyzed by facility and job type

(correctional officers versus other Black correctional employees), and then aggregated to provide an analysis of all data. In addition, responses within job types were compared for career-oriented versus non-career-oriented respondents, and for respondents from prisons with "low" Black employee populations. Data analysis was carried out at the Howard University Computer Center using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and BMDP (BioMedical Package) programs.

Analysis determined that differences in responses were not due to region, sex, or degree of representation of respondents from particular correctional institutions, so weighting of the data was not required.

The major constraint of the study was its major reliance upon data from Black correctional employees, without comparative primary data from white personnel.

### C. Findings

Findings were reported separately for the following groups:

- Personnel other than correctional officers -- including treatment, administrative, and staff personnel;
- Correctional officers;
- Ex-employees;
- Administrators;
- Inmates.

In addition, comparisons were provided of responses from correctional officers and non-correctional officers,

and the total body of data was used to generate recommended principles for recruitment, selection, and retention of Black correctional employees.

Major findings included the following:

#### 1. Non-correctional Officers

Three-fourths of the non-correctional officers interviewed had been working in their jobs for no more than four years; their median income was \$14,000-\$17,000. Their median age was 32, and 73 percent had post-secondary degrees. Almost half (47 percent) were enrolled in a regular course of study at some post-secondary educational institution.

Fifty-five percent of the non-correctional officers reported hearing about opportunities for a corrections job from a friend or relative or a public employment agency; less than three percent were first reached by a recruiter. Less than half (44 percent) of the non-correctional officers expected to make corrections a lifetime career.

Asked about working conditions, many non-correctional employees indicated some problems with the physical environment, but a majority (60 percent) found white co-workers usually cooperative. A majority (53 percent) felt their job tasks were routine and repetitive, and 81 percent reported physical risks or hazards, but a majority

also considered their jobs interesting and challenging -- with career-oriented employees more likely than non-career-oriented workers to report this.

The large majority of non-correctional officers reported a high level of supervisory support and found white co-workers friendly and easy to approach. However, most non-correctional officers felt that white employees were given more information about events, activities, and job opportunities on other shifts or in other sections of the prisons, and most reported that they were not adequately involved in management decisions which affected them.

A high level of dissatisfaction was reported with medical and retirement benefits, variety in job assignments, a chance for increased pay, and the opportunity for education and training which were offered in their correctional jobs. However, most respondents felt that certain incentives -- particularly two weeks of paid educational leave annually and retirement after 25 years with three-fourths instead of one-half pay -- would increase job retention.

Most non-correctional employees felt that selection and promotion examinations and procedures were fair, although there was significant dissatisfaction with oral examinations for both selection and promotion, and

with job performance evaluations and eligibility requirements for promotion. Only 15 percent of the respondents reported access to a career counselor, and just under half of these had actually used the counselor's services.

Non-correctional officers generally reported "excellent" (eight percent) or "good" (62 percent) relationships with inmates, and respondents from prisons with low Black employee populations were three times as likely to rate the relationship "excellent" or "good" as were those from prisons with high Black employee populations.

The major barriers to recruitment of Black employees identified by the non-correctional officers involved racism -- discrimination in hiring and promotions, etc. Three-fourths of the respondents believed that their institutions used a kind of quota system involving a decision to hire only a certain maximum number of Blacks.

Non-correctional officers, however, reported relatively high levels of job satisfaction, particularly with such job factors as co-workers' esteem, job responsibilities, job security, and understanding between supervisors and subordinates. Greatest dissatisfaction was expressed with pay, employee policies and practices affecting Black employees, and working conditions. Two-thirds of the respondents felt their jobs would continue to meet their expectations, and 54 percent hoped to be doing the same kind of work in a year.

In order to determine how to reach potential correctional employees, non-correctional officers were asked about their mass media exposure. A very large majority (84 percent) reported reading the paper almost every day, and 90 percent reported listening to the radio daily. Radio preferences were for popular music; the most popular television programs were reportedly Black news. Forty-three percent of the respondents reported reading job bulletin boards, most of them to find information related to job promotion or educational opportunities. Career-oriented non-correctional officers were more likely than the non-career-oriented to read newspapers daily and to read prison bulletin boards.

## 2. Correctional Officers

The correctional officers interviewed had a median income of \$8,000-\$11,000, and 72 percent had been on their present job for two years or less. Their median age was 28, and only 13 percent had a Bachelor's or higher post-secondary degree, although two-thirds had at least a high school education.

More than two-fifths (42 percent) of the correctional officers had learned about their first corrections job through relatives or friends; one-quarter of the officers had a relative working at a correctional institution. Only 20 percent had career intentions at the time of

initial employment, although 37 percent were career-oriented at the time of the survey.

Correctional officers expressed some displeasure about their physical working environment, and about three-fourths (74 percent) felt their work tasks were routine and repetitive -- although the same percentage felt their jobs were also interesting and challenging. Eighty-eight percent felt their jobs involved physical risks and hazards.

A very large majority of correctional officers felt they received support from their supervisors, and most also found their white co-workers friendly and easy to approach. Career-oriented correctional officers were more positive about white co-workers than were the non-career-oriented respondents. However, the great majority of both career and non-career respondents felt that management was more interested in the working conditions and welfare of white than of Black employees. Moreover, more than one-third of the correctional officers reported Blacks were not consulted at all when decisions were made affecting them, and only seven percent felt affected Black employees were consulted "to a great extent."

Among the most important job factors to correctional officers were a chance for an increased salary, chance for more training and education, steady and secure job

and income, and medical and retirement benefits. The very large majority of correctional officers felt that these and other desirable job situations could be achieved in correctional institutions; changes to be a leader or supervisor were seen as most limited, but only 16 percent felt they could not be achieved in a correctional institution. Career-oriented correctional officers tended to be more positive in their assessments of the job potential of correctional occupations, but expressed more discontent with their inability to change assignments as frequently as desired. Asked about incentives for job retention, the correctional officers as a group found most attractive (1) a policy allowing employees to accumulate two weeks of educational leave with pay annually, (2) guaranteeing employees their choice of shift during the first three years of employment, provided there was an opening on that shift, and (3) letting employees change their job classification after one year of employment. More direct financial incentives were also widely favored, but not by so large a majority.

Most correctional officers felt the selection system used by their institution was fair, but a large majority felt that job performance reports filled out by supervisors and oral examinations used as part of the promotion process were unfair. Only 30 percent of the respondents

had actually taken a promotional examination, so most could not speak about the exams from personal experience. Only 12 percent of the correctional officers reported access to a career counselor, and 40 percent of these had actually used the counselor's services.

Most correctional officers (54 percent) reported either "good" or "excellent" relationships with Black inmates, and another 40 percent reported the relationship was "fair." Most felt the existing relationship could be improved through specific efforts to improve communications.

When asked to identify barriers to the recruitment of Black correctional officers, respondents most often talked about racism, and its varied manifestations. However, most respondents reported satisfaction with many job factors, including co-workers' esteem (79 percent satisfied), job responsibilities (68 percent satisfied), job security (63 percent satisfied), cooperation among co-workers (59 percent satisfied), and superior-subordinate understanding (58 percent satisfied). Asked what they liked best about working in corrections, respondents most often chose helping inmates, job responsibilities, and working hours. The most disliked job factor was administrative supervision. About half (52 percent) of the correctional officers surveyed hoped to be in the



same job in a year, and 60 percent felt their job would continue to meet their expectations in the future.

When asked about their media exposure, two-thirds (66 percent) of the officers reported reading the newspaper almost every day, and 85 percent reported listening to the radio almost every day. More than half of the respondents (55 percent) said they read the bulletin board at work every day, and another 32 percent reported reading it either several times or once a week. They reportedly read it primarily for general information (42 percent) and for information on job promotions (41 percent).

### 3. Ex-Employees

Thirty-five ex-correctional employees were located and interviewed. Their median age was 27 years, and their modal income was less than \$5,000. This was less than the modal income (\$5,000-\$7,999) earned when they were employed in corrections; thus they were generally doing less well financially at present than during their corrections employment.

Most (24 or more than two-thirds) of the ex-employees had worked in corrections for less than one year; only two had worked in corrections for more than three years. At present, eight were unemployed, four were in law enforcement, and the rest were working in a wide range of

jobs from alcoholism counseling to construction and factory work.

All but four ex-employees reportedly had liked their corrections jobs, but working hours were reportedly a problem where the 12-hour day and six-day work week were standard. The single most disliked aspect of correctional work was the racism found in corrections.

Of the 35 ex-employees interviewed, eight apparently left their jobs involuntarily, five of them fired for sleeping on the job. The others left voluntarily, and reported they would have stayed if the following changes had been made: if there were employment and promotional opportunities, rules regarding relationships with inmates were changed, salaries were increased, work shifts were rotated, in-service training were provided, working hours were shortened, a retirement plan was devised, a rehabilitation program for inmates was developed, and staff were more sensitive towards Blacks.

The ex-employees reported some inadequacies in the physical work environment, and -- unlike most current employees -- almost half reported white co-workers were uncooperative. However, a large majority found white employees in their own work groups friendly and easy to approach. The majority recalled supervisors as friendly and easy to approach, but more than two-thirds did not

feel they encouraged Black and white employees to work as a team. Management was viewed by most as more concerned about the welfare and happiness and the working conditions of white than of Black employees.

Most of the ex-employees reported satisfaction with the following aspects of their jobs in corrections: supervisors, work groups, progress made prior to departure, pay, the chance to have others look to them for direction, supervisor-subordinate understanding, job security, cooperation among co-workers, and job responsibility. Dissatisfaction was expressed with the way dismissals and transfers were handled, handling of subordinates by supervisors, and various policies and procedures affecting employees.

Unlike most present employees, a majority of ex-correctional employees interviewed felt that except for the job performance evaluation filled out by supervisors, job promotion procedures were unfair to Blacks. The ex-employees felt that recruitment and retention of Blacks in correctional institutions could be increased by eliminating a variety of racially discriminatory practices, including those affecting disciplinary actions, promotion, and grievances. A large majority of the ex-employees felt that there was a definite need to increase the number of Blacks employed in corrections, in many different levels and types of jobs.

#### 4. Administrators

Administrators identified the absence of the following factors as contributing to high job turnover rates where they exist: competitive salary schedules, job security, affirmative action program, a human relations program, Black job counselors, good working conditions, good communications, an integrated recruitment team, location near areas where minorities live, Black employee population large enough to give them bargaining power, fairness in dealing with all employees, equal opportunities, opportunities to receive in-service training, variety in job assignment, independence in performing job responsibilities, good attitudes by administrators, promotional opportunities, screening and interviewing at job entry level, fringe benefits, mandate to recruit more Blacks, eight-hour work day, and changes in work shift.

Administrators considered education, racism, geographical location, communication, salary, working conditions, housing, transportation, negative image of corrections, and poor public relations as the major barriers to recruiting and retaining Black employees.

Fifty-two prison administrators (e.g., wardens, deputy wardens, superintendents, assistant superintendents, etc.) were asked several questions on Black

employees: race relations, job turnover rates, job retention factors, and barriers to recruitment and retention. A majority (42) of the administrators described the relationship between Black correctional officers and white correctional officers as good or excellent. Twenty-nine administrators had similar views on the relationship between Black correctional officers and Black inmates. However, one-third (17) of the administrators gave the relationship between Black officers and Black inmates a fair rating. This contrasts somewhat with the 33 administrators who considered the relationship between Black officers and white inmates to be good or excellent.

##### 5. Inmates

A randomly selected sample of 128 inmates at the selected correctional institutions were interviewed concerning their attitudes and perceptions of the major problems confronting Black correctional personnel. The inmates tended to view Black correctional employees as confronting many job-related problems. All but seven percent of the inmates believed that these job-related problems were race related. Identified difficulties included administrative policies and procedures as applied to Black employees, racism in various job conditions and opportunities, and role conflict associated

with being part of a system which was viewed as oppressing Blacks and providing unequal opportunities. Affirmative action, particularly promotion of Blacks so they filled more supervisory and management positions, was recommended as a means of increasing retention of Black correctional employees. The inmates recommended a "common sense" approach to employee selection, training, and placement procedures, and suggested that all new correctional employees should be required to talk with a selected number of inmates to obtain an understanding of the job before they decided to accept a job in corrections.

More than three-fourths of the inmates (76 percent) believed there was a need for more Black employees in correctional institutions. Many felt that Blacks were more effective than whites in helping Black inmates prepare to re-enter "open" society, and that they carried an ethnic message: "Someone is trying to be helpful." Inmates also stressed the need for careful screening, including a psychological test, and proper training for correctional officers. They also felt correctional officers should not be all of the same race -- whether all Black or all white. Fifteen percent of the inmates did not believe more Black correctional officers were needed; they stressed the need for personnel who had understanding and knew how to deal with people.

When comparisons were made between the responses of correctional officers and non-correctional officers, their perspectives and assessments were found to be extremely similar in most instances, despite important differences in their education and training, job responsibilities, and incomes. Non-correctional officers were somewhat more likely to be career-oriented, and expressed greater satisfaction with some aspects of their jobs, but in general the nature and direction of responses for the two groups were quite similar. It may be that the experiences they share as Black employees in correctional systems are more important in shaping their views than the differences in their specific job responsibilities and tasks.

D. Recommended Principles for Recruitment, Selection, and Retention

A variety of specific principles and procedures were developed as recommendations for improving the recruitment, selection, and retention of Black and other minority employees in correctional institutions. No unique differences exist between the general principles recommended here and those used by any employer concerned with retaining employees. However, the approaches suggested are considered particularly important for minority employees because of these employees' sensitivity to past and present employment discrimination. Thus the recommended principles should be applied to all job

applicants and employees, not just minority group members, but are particularly important for minorities.

1. Recruitment and Selection

Correctional institutions must develop and implement systematic short- and long-range methods for recruiting and selecting minority personnel. Approaches must be clearly stated and demonstrably fair, so that every applicant, regardless of race, feels he was judged individually and objectively on his merits. Prior to the development of such procedures, the correctional institution must establish a clear policy, known to every employee, that all job applicants will be considered for employment solely on individual merit, and a procedure must be developed for taking remedial action whenever discriminatory practices are found. The following specific areas of action are suggested:

- Job specifications should be developed for each position, based on an accurate job analysis.
- "Person" specifications should be developed which provide minimum requirements for individuals who may be considered for each position, assuring that all requirements are specifically related to job specifications.
- Application forms should be clear, easy to complete, and designed to collect all relevant and necessary data about candidates, to (1) assist in selection of candidates to be interviewed, (2) form a basis for their interview, (3) determine applicant suitability, and (4) facilitate construction of a job market profile.

- Contacting the target group must be done through a multi-media approach, from integrated recruiting teams to use of posters, visits to minority schools, mass media advertisements, etc. Moreover, "job advertising" for specific positions should be emphasized, and positive aspects of corrections work should be stressed.
- Pre-employment orientation should be provided to all candidates under serious consideration, to assure that each candidate understands the requirements and working conditions of the job, the operation of the correctional institution and how the job under consideration fits into the correctional system.
- Medical/physical examinations should be made available at a convenient time, and physical requirements should be limited to those actually important for the particular job involved. Brief tests covering key physical requirements should come first, so that an applicant who does not meet these physical standards need not complete the rest of the exam.
- Testing should be done only through examinations which are demonstrably job-related, and which meet specifications for technical soundness, administrative convenience, and validity. Scheduling of tests should be flexible, to facilitate their being taken by applicants who are currently employed.
- Assistance with finding housing accommodations should be provided to applicants who meet job requirements. Efforts should be made to identify qualified applicants who are willing to move, and they should receive formal assistance in locating acceptable housing near the correctional facility, particularly if the prison is not near a large city or a community with a significant minority population -- or if nearby communities have a housing shortage.
- Placement and follow-up should be viewed as the final step of the selection process and the beginning of retention efforts. Candidates should be further oriented to assure their understanding of the job and the work environment, through interviews and provision of written materials. Both

successful and unsuccessful candidates should be questioned about the fairness and rationality of the recruitment and selection process. Follow-up including daily or frequent visits should be provided by management for all new employees. Moreover, review of the adequacy of each job "match" should be made by personnel officials, to improve future recruitment and selection efforts.

- Public relations aspects of recruitment should not be ignored. A positive public relations or community relations program is needed to enhance the image of corrections as an occupational area providing prestige as well as economic and personal advancement opportunities for minority group members.

## 2. Retention

Retention activities should be viewed as part of the overall recruitment-selection-retention process, not as a separate series of activities. Suggested concerns include the following:

- Personnel policies and procedures must be fundamentally changed, to eliminate irrelevant requirements and facilitate opportunities for advancement through application of skills and knowledges which can be acquired on-the-job. Civil service job classifications should be re-examined to remove inflexibilities, remove barriers which unequally affect minorities, and incorporate paraprofessional tasks and structures. The arrest and/or conviction disqualification for applicants should be eliminated in favor of personalized selection, and non-work-related educational or experiential requirements should be revised or removed.
- Occupational levels of minorities need to be reviewed, and concentrated efforts should be undertaken to increase the proportion of minority group members holding supervisory and administrative jobs. The visible lack of minorities in high level, high status, high advancement jobs is a negative retention factor which can be changed through developing firm goals with time frames and taking specific action to remove advancement barriers against minorities.

- Career ladders -- continuous ladders from the entry level through higher level jobs requiring extensive skills -- should be established through functional task analyses for all levels of jobs, including those now performed by professionals. Jobs can then be restructured where appropriate to provide ladders, and knowledge and skills needed for each position can be identified and specified for use in selection and promotion activities.
- Oral tests for promotion should be eliminated in favor of structured multiple personalized interviews, involving standardized rating forms. Oral examinations used in initial employee selection should be discontinued until better safeguards have been devised to prevent extraneous factors from entering the interviewer's decision-making process. Again, standardized rating forms and questions may be one approach for protecting the objectivity and fairness of the selection process.
- Job satisfaction needs to be increased in order to increase career orientation and retention rates. Changes in administrative policies and practices such as shifts in job assignments may help improve employee job satisfaction.
- Management should provide for minority participation in decisions affecting the employee; participative management procedures are recommended, to help employees become involved in decisions so that they share and identify with the institution's mission. The difficulties of having Blacks relate positively to the para-military organizational structure of almost all correctional institutions should be recognized, although this situation is unlikely to be changed.
- Concern for minority employees must be demonstrated, through actions such as hiring, promotions, and educational opportunities, so that Blacks will come to believe that management is as interested in minority as in white employees.
- Training for officers must be provided so that the correctional officer has a clearly defined and understood role and the skills to carry out his job responsibilities. Training should also

be provided which facilitates advancement for correctional officers.

- Training for supervisors is required, both in terms of providing management and supervisory skills, and in assuring adequate sensitivity to human relations need and to the special concerns of minority employees. All supervisors should clearly understand equal employment opportunity policies, and assignment of minority employees should reflect sensitivity to supervisory skills and problems.
- Uniforms represent a problem for many Black correctional employees. Correctional institutions should consider either making uniforms optional or investigating their value so that empirical data on their beneficial effects becomes available.
- Counseling by trained career counselors should be available in all correctional institutions and to all employees. Counseling should cover long-term career planning as well as the handling of immediate job-related problems.
- Transportation is a major problem for employees at many institutions which are located far from urban centers or from residential areas in smaller cities or towns. Transportation needs should be considered in the selection of sites for future institutions, and the lack of public transportation should be recognized as a negative factor in the recruitment and retention of minorities -- particularly where no nearby communities exist with significant minority populations. Housing assistance may be provided to overcome this problem in the short-term; special transportation arrangements might also be considered, such as arranging car pools or providing vans or buses.
- Equal treatment of all personnel must be assured, through the establishment and consistent monitoring of equal employment opportunity policies.
- Review boards and clearly defined appeals processes are needed by all correctional facilities, to assure that grievances are adequately reviewed and that every employee feels confident of an

opportunity for a hearing. Bi-annual conferences with minority employees might also be desirable, to review practices and experiences and develop plans for improving affirmative action programs and grievance procedures.

- Federal subsidies -- salary subsidies provided in diminishing amounts over a limited number of years -- might be considered, to bring correctional salaries to a level of parity with those of other public servants such as firemen and police officers.

These recommended approaches should facilitate minority recruitment, selection, and retention in correctional jobs.

## INTRODUCTION

### A. Background

The total inmate population in local, state, and federal correctional facilities in the United States was recently estimated to be 250,000.<sup>1</sup> It has also been estimated that 47 percent of the total U.S. inmate population is Black. However, the number of Blacks holding administrative, custodial, or treatment jobs in corrections is disproportionately small.

Many individuals, groups, and organizations -- most recently, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals -- have called for increased and more effective recruitment and retention of Blacks in corrections jobs. This study includes several sub-studies and represents one effort to obtain the information and understanding needed to improve minority employment in corrections.

### B. Purpose and Objectives

The purposes of this sub-study were: (1) to assess the attitudes and perceptions of Black correctional personnel concerning recruitment and retention, and job satisfaction, and (2) to develop suggestions for corrections officials for recruiting and retaining Black employees.

Sub-study objectives were to: (1) develop statistical profiles of Black correctional personnel, including custodial,

<sup>1</sup>Gettinger, Steven, "U.S. Prison Population Hits All-Time High," Corrections Magazine, Vol. II, No. 3 (March, 1976), p.9.

treatment, administrative, and staff personnel; (2) identify significant variables related to the recruitment and retention of Black correctional personnel; and (3) devise a set of suggested procedures and techniques for recruiting and retaining Black employees.

The sub-study sought to provide empirical answers to the following major questions:

- What are the attitudes, perceptions, job characteristics, and job-related problems of Black custodial, treatment, administrative and staff personnel in correctional institutions?
- What is the influence of these factors on the attraction and retention of Black correctional employees?

### C. Methodology

An ex post facto research design was used to conduct an empirical inquiry of the background, job satisfaction, working environment, supervision and leadership, recruitment, and retention of Blacks employed in state-operated correctional institutions. The data needed to fulfill aims of the study were collected through the use of interview forms and self-administered questionnaires.

#### 1. Sampling Technique

A judgmental sampling technique was used to select the prisons included in the study. The criteria for inclusion were: (1) geographical location, (2) racial compositions of the employee population, and (3) the recommendations of the study's advisory committee.



Applying these criteria, the following prisons were selected for study:

- California Institution for Men, Chino, California
- California Institution for Women, Frontera, California
- New Jersey State Prison, Trenton, New Jersey
- Louisiana State Prison, Angola, Louisiana
- Mississippi State Penitentiary, Parchman, Mississippi
- Southern Michigan State Prison, Jackson, Michigan
- Ohio State Reformatory, Mansfield, Ohio.

A total of 636 interviews were conducted. Of this number, 304 were with correctional officers (custodial officers), 117 with other personnel ("non-correctional officers," i.e., treatment officers and administrative personnel), 128 with inmates, 52 with wardens and superintendents and their assistants, and 35 with correctional ex-employees.

## 2. Instrument Construction

A variety of question forms (open-ended, dichotomous, and multiple choice) were used in the sub-study's instrumentation. Many of the attitudinal questions utilized response alternatives in a Likert-type scale providing three or four choices. The inmate questionnaire consisted of open-ended questions, whereas the correctional personnel, warden/superintendent and ex-employee questionnaires used a mixture of item types.

A scale developed by Drexler, et al (1972)<sup>2</sup> and modified for purposes of this study, was used to collect

<sup>2</sup>John A. Drexler, et al, Navy Retention Rates and Human Resource Management, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1973. Reproduced by National Technical Information Service, U.S. Department of Commerce, Springfield, Virginia.

data on supervisory support, peer support, and organizational climate.

## 3. Pretesting

All data collection forms were pretested at the Ohio State Reformatory, Mansfield, Ohio. The pretest provided data and guidance on the adequacy of the sample size to meet the study objectives, adequacy of training and instructions to interviewers, adequacy of questions contained on each form, variability within the several groups under investigation, expected number of contacts and refusals, adequacy of data collection methods, and a more precise estimate of the cost of doing the field work.

## 4. Interviewer Selection and Training

Eighteen persons (mostly college educated) were selected and trained as field interviewers. In addition to education, sex, age and experience, interviewers were selected on the basis of impartiality, friendliness, adaptability, and ability to do accurate reporting.

Interviewer training was designed to provide interviewers with the skills necessary for effective interviewing in this study. Consequently, the following areas were covered: (1) purpose of the study, (2) techniques and dynamics of interviewing, (3) exact nature of the data required, (4) circumstances under which the

data were to be collected, (5) project questionnaires and interview forms, and (6) practice interviewing.

#### 5. Data Collection

Prior to the actual collection of the data, a project staff member visited each of the participating institutions for the purpose of establishing guidelines for interviewing in the respective institutions, identifying the site where the interviewing would take place, briefing the correctional administrator on the goals and objectives of the project, obtaining the names and addresses of employees and ex-employees, and obtaining permission to interview employees during working hours. A letter was then mailed to potential interviewees informing them about the project and requesting their participation.

After the necessary preliminary arrangements had been made, teams of interviewers and supervisors were sent to the various correctional institutions to collect data. Interviewers were required to edit their data collection forms, including self-administered questionnaires, to make certain that instructions had been followed, and that all questions had been answered completely. The forms were then sent to the central office for coding and keypunching.

#### 6. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed in several ways. First, tabulations and analyses were provided by facility -- there were six facilities in five states. Second, data were analyzed by job-type of minority employees at these facilities -- correctional officers and all other personnel. Third, data were aggregated for all facilities and job-types to obtain an overview of the minority employee population in all facilities. The similarities and differences among and between the subject populations then became the basis for further classification.

Three phases of analyses were used. Step one in the analysis consisted of a "screening" process. As a result of screening, extreme values, keypunching errors, and patterns of non-response or missing values were observed. The data set was then edited to remove gross errors before more elaborate analyses were attempted. The errors in the data considered significant were: values outside stated minimum or maximum limits, missing values, values equal to zero, and inappropriate letters or symbols.

In order to determine the significance of missing values, or values equal to zero, the data were handled through two programs. The first involved a search for data patterns of dichotomies. This program finds frequencies and patterns for any specified code in the

input data. Two codes were specified: blanks and zeros. Since there was only one variable with a zero category -- the highest year of regular school completed at time of entering the criminal justice system -- and no employee had zero years of education, all zero categories were removed. Use of this program had two results: first, an indication of patterns of non-response; and second, an indication of consistency and validation of two-part questions such as "Are you a veteran" and branch of service. This led to an understanding of the degree and nature of keypunch errors as well as errors in the order of the data deck.

A second program computed summary statistics in which all data and cases were listed. A combination of these two analyses allowed computation of the basic statistics, including various estimates of the mean, frequency, variance, and deviation from the norm, using only positive responses. That is, no answers on specific variables that were equal to zero, or blank, or above maximum would be entered into computations, or bias the statistical or graphic displays of information which describe the subject population.

All statistical analyses for this study were conducted at the Howard University Computer Center using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and

BMDP (BioMedical Package) programs. Output from these two programs included frequency count routines, partial correlations, partial co-variances, regression coefficients, standardized coefficients, standardized errors for coefficients, co-variances and correlations for regression coefficients, test and significance levels for regression coefficients, and two types of squared multiple correlations and their significance levels.

Distribution of the respondent population by facility for correctional personnel was as follows:

- Chino, California, 13 percent;
- Frontera, California, 10 percent;
- Mississippi, 23 percent;
- Louisiana, 30 percent;
- Michigan, 11 percent; and
- New Jersey, 13 percent.

Correctional officers represent 72 percent of the population studied. By institution, correctional officers represent 70 percent of the minority sample in Chino, California; 44 percent in Frontera, California; 87 percent in New Jersey; 52 percent in Louisiana, 75 percent in Michigan; and 76 percent in Mississippi. The largest sample for correctional officers was from the facility in Louisiana, while the largest sample for non-correctional officers was from Michigan. The nature of this regional disparity in sample size as it affects the attitudes and measures tested was offset somewhat by the relatively even distribution of minority employee job-types at the

Frontera and Louisiana facilities, which accounted for 28 percent of the population. Except for Frontera, California and the Michigan facility, there was an inverse relationship between the size of the Black employee population and non-correctional officers; that is, the larger the representative sample of Black correctional personnel from a specific facility, the smaller the sample of non-correctional officers from that facility. Because of this inverse relationship, regional preferences, demographic profiles, and institution-specific attitudes could conceivably influence the profile of minority personnel if the sample from any one facility was particularly large or small.

Summary statistics were computed for each facility, as well as for each of two job-task designations. The resulting output showed that differences between facilities were minimal; differences within facilities were between job-task designation (e.g., correctional vs. non-correctional employees). Therefore, for the purpose of analysis, all correctional personnel were treated as one unit and all non-correctional personnel were treated as one unit.

No significant difference was found between the response of women and men to items on the questionnaire. Patterns of missing values, some of which were non-responses to questions, were also consistent between

these two groups. Since the major similarities and differences were not due to region or sex, or degree of representation, the data for non-correctional personnel were not weighted to conform with the distribution by facility for correctional personnel.

#### 7. Sub-Study Limitations

The major constraints of this study were: (1) its use of Black correctional employees as the major source of primary data, and (2) the lack of direct investigator control over the independent variables (such as job title, job assignment, working hours, etc.) because they were inherently non-manipulable. There were no comparison data for white correctional personnel, except for some limited statistical information obtained from two prisons. Otherwise, comparisons were internal, with sub-groups of respondents compared with each other and with responses of the total group.

SECTION I  
BLACK CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS

A. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

This section of the study reports on data collected from 304 Black correctional officers, 83 percent of them men, 15 percent women. Twenty-nine percent of the officers were 24 years old or less, 58 percent were 25 to 34, 15 percent 35 to 44, and seven percent 45 or older. Their median age was 28 years. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents said they regarded their work in corrections as a career; these career-oriented officers tended to be older, but less well-educated, than the rest.

Most of the officers (59 percent) were married, but 23 percent had never been married, 11 percent were divorced, six percent were separated, and one percent were widowed. Sixty percent of the married officers had working spouses. Just over half (51 percent) of the officers had one or no dependents, 34 percent had two or three, and the remaining a 15 percent had four or more.

The median income for the officers was \$8,000-\$11,000. Two-thirds of the officers had at least a high school education, with 13 percent holding bachelor's or higher degrees, and 45 percent had served in the Armed Forces (mainly the Army).

About half of the officers lived in a town or small city (under 25,000 population), 24 percent lived in a medium-sized city (25,000-100,000 population), 15 percent lived in a large

city (over 100,000 people), eight percent lived in the suburbs of a medium-sized or large city, and four percent lived on farms. Thus most of the officers were residents of small or medium-sized cities.

B. EMPLOYMENT AND WORKING ENVIRONMENT

1. Employment

Almost all (98 percent) of the officers were employed on a full-time basis. The vast majority (87 percent) were correctional officer specialists. Considering that only 11 percent of the officers had previously worked in another correctional institution, and that 72 percent had worked at their present job for two years or less, the respondents could be regarded as relatively inexperienced.

Respondents were queried about their career intentions at the time of hiring. Only 20 percent of the officers had career intentions at the time of their hiring (see Figure 1), while more than half (53 percent) were undecided, 13 percent had not thought about it, and another 13 percent had other views. At the time of the survey, 37 percent expected to make corrections work a career. Only 40 percent of the respondents who were career-oriented at the time of this survey reported having had definite intentions of making corrections a career at the time they initially entered, and eight percent of the presently non-career-oriented officers had such intentions. Why the eight percent eventually decided against a career in corrections is not certain, but it is reasonable to assume that their subsequent work experiences influenced this decision.

FIGURE 1  
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF CAREER INTENTIONS AT TIME OF HIRING

	Presently Career- Oriented Officers	Presently Non-Career Oriented Officers	Aggregate Total
Intended to make career of corrections	39	8	20
Undecided	43	58	53
Hand't thought about it	8	17	13
Other	9	17	13
	99	100	99

Slightly more than two-fifths (42 percent) of the employees had learned of their first job in corrections through relatives or friends; 16 percent through a public employment agency; ten percent through mass media; six percent through the school employment service or counselor; and the rest through an employer or other means. Only three percent learned of the position through information sent by a recruiter. The high percentage of employees who found out about openings in corrections through relatives and friends is explained in part by the finding that one-fourth of the officers had relatives working at the same or other correctional institutions.

Correctional officers were asked about how they decided to take the corrections job. Sixty-eight percent of the officers said that the decision to take a job in corrections

was solely their own; 18 percent said that relatives had the greatest influence on their decision, and the rest (14 percent) said other persons such as work supervisor, career counselor, etc., had the greatest influence. Career-oriented respondents tended more often to be influenced by a supervisor or counselor than did non-career-oriented officers, as shown by the following data.

<u>Influenced by:</u>	<u>Career Percent</u>	<u>Non-Career Percent</u>
Relative	17	20
Supervisor or Counselor	7	0
Self	62	71
Other	14	9
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>

Respondents were asked to react to four statements which focused on their reasons for entering prison work. Figure 2 summarizes the responses. The data indicate that approximately 60 percent of the officers felt each of the four factors was either important or very important. Getting a sure job, wanting to rehabilitate inmates, a feeling of having special talent for correctional work, and feeling there was an opportunity to eventually reach a position of authority -- all seemed attractive to the respondents. While career-oriented and non-career-oriented officers did not differ on their assessment of the importance of getting a sure job, they valued the other three items differently. In each case, non-career officers were almost evenly divided concerning

FIGURE 2  
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO  
POSSIBLE REASONS FOR ENTERING CORRECTIONAL WORK

	Not A Factor At All	Not Very Important	Important	Very Important
This institution offered a sure job when I was having trouble getting one.	26	17	34	23
I wanted to help rehabilitate inmates.	23	14	42	21
I felt I have a special talent for a job in corrections.	26	12	34	28
I felt I could work my way to a position of authority in a correctional institution.	21	18	35	26

the perceived importance or unimportance of each factor. On the other hand, 75 percent of the career-oriented officers felt that the rehabilitation of inmates and the possession of a special talent for correctional work were important, and 70 percent felt moving up to a position of authority was important.

Respondents were asked about the duration of selection procedures when they were hired by the prisons. Employment applications were generally processed quickly, with 40 percent of the officers being hired within one week after filing their applications, and another 22 percent within two to



three weeks. The size of the Black employee population at each prison and the amount of time that elapsed between initial application and notification of employment were significantly ( $p=.02$ ) related. More than half (58 percent) of the officers who waited one week or less before notification of employment worked in prisons with high Black employee populations.

Almost half the officers (48 percent) were employed full-time elsewhere when they applied for a job at their present institution. Those who regarded their present job as a lifetime career tended more than the rest to have been employed full-time when they applied for the corrections job. Two-thirds of the officers felt their present job entailed more responsibility than the one previously held.

Most respondents (88 percent) reported little or no difficulty in securing their present position. Of the 12 percent who reported difficulty, race and general job market conditions were identified as the main problems. The majority of the officers filled existing vacancies, while 18 percent filled newly-created positions.

When officers were asked whether the number of Black employees at their respective places of employment was low or high, 54 percent of them described the number of Blacks in the prison where they worked as "low," while 46 percent said their institution had a "high" percentage of Black employees.

Institutions reported to have a "high" percentage of Black employees had a greater percentage of non-career-oriented officers than did institutions with a reported low percentage of Black employees. Many possible explanations for this finding can be suggested. It may be that with many Black employees competing for the same positions, there is less desire for officers to make correctional work a career. It is also possible that some institutions with few Blacks hire only highly motivated and qualified Blacks, most of them with a strong career orientation; thus the finding may be an affect of discriminatory hiring practices. Another explanation could be that where there is a high concentration of Blacks, the powers-that-be take little interest in improving working conditions or otherwise encouraging a career orientation.

Approximately three-fourths (72 percent) of the officers lived within 30 miles of their place of employment and 27 percent lived within 26 miles; only one percent lived more than 62 miles away. Most officers reported going to work by private car (64 percent) or in a car pool (34 percent).

Forty percent of the respondents worked on the second shift, 30 percent worked on the third shift, and 28 percent worked on the first shift at the correctional facilities. Half (51 percent) of the officers were employed in maximum security, and the rest in medium security (23 percent), minimum security (19 percent), or a combination of sections (7

percent). Sixty-six percent of the career-oriented respondents were employed in maximum security as compared with 41 percent of the non-career-oriented respondents.

## 2. Working Environment

A number of questions concerning the work environment were asked the study participants; most dealt with the physical environment.

Most of the officers felt that lighting (73 percent) and workspace (60 percent) were adequate, but that ventilation (53 percent) was inadequate, and the temperature (59 percent) was either too hot or too cold. The officers were ambivalent on the question of whether work areas were reasonably quiet. Three-fourths (74 percent) of the officers felt that job tasks were routine and repetitive; and, paradoxically, 74 percent felt their work was interesting and challenging. Career officers found the job to be less risky and more interesting and challenging than did the rest of the respondents; the overwhelming majority (88 percent) of respondents felt their jobs involved physical risks and hazards.

## C. MANAGEMENT METHODS AND PRACTICES

The views of Black correctional officers concerning various management methods and practices -- and their practical implications -- were investigated as part of this study. Responses are presented below for several major variables.

### 1. Supervisory Behavior

In general, the correctional officers surveyed thought they received support from their supervisors. Moreover, supervisors were perceived as: (1) requiring high job performance standards (87 percent), (2) offering new ideas for solving job-related problems (65 percent), (3) being friendly and easy to approach (89 percent), and (4) paying attention to what subordinates say (90 percent). However, they were reported as neither encouraging nor discouraging Blacks and whites to work as a team. Career-oriented officers found the supervisors more friendly and attentive than did the non-career officers.

Asked how supervision could be improved, respondents indicated their immediate supervisors could serve Blacks better if they possessed more information about good management (68 percent), had greater ability to handle the administrative side of their jobs (52 percent), possessed more information about Blacks (75 percent), and showed more interest in and concern for Blacks whom they supervise (68 percent).

Significant ( $p > .01$ ) differences were found in the opinions of officers working in prisons with low versus high Black employee populations concerning whether supervisors needed to express more interest and concern for Blacks under their supervision. Two-thirds of all respondents who felt supervisors needed to express "a little more" interest and concern for Black employees were from prisons with high Black employee populations. Similarly, two-thirds of respondents who indicated supervisors needed to express "very much" more interest and concern were from prisons with low Black employee populations.

## 2. Peer Relationships

Black correctional officers generally found their white co-workers to be friendly and easy to approach. Similarly, officers felt that Blacks and whites "to some extent" emphasized a team goal and planned together and coordinated their work efforts. Whites also reportedly provided needed help so that work could be planned, organized, and scheduled ahead of time.

Whites also were reported to offer Black officers new ideas for solving job-related problems, and respondents felt that people in their work groups maintained high standards of performance. Non-career-oriented Blacks found whites less helpful than did career Blacks.

## 3. Organizational Climate

### • Human Resources Primacy

Some items attempted to examine whether management treated Blacks and whites differently; this variable was called "human resources primacy". The data (see Figure 3) showed that Black correctional officers believed management had a far more positive attitude toward whites than toward Blacks with respect to: (1) having a real interest in the welfare and happiness of the employees, (2) trying to improve working conditions, and (3) organizing work activities sensibly. In the first and second instances, career-oriented Blacks were less negative in their views of management's treatment of Blacks than were non-career Blacks.

Officers' views of management's interest in white employees differed ( $p > .01$ ) according to the size of the Black employee populations, as did opinions concerning management's interest in improving the working conditions of white employees ( $p > .01$ ). Respondents in prisons with a small number of Black employees were particularly likely to feel management had a greater interest in white employees and their working conditions than in Black employees.

### • Decision-Making Practices

The extent to which management tended to consult with Black employees about whom it made decisions was investigated (see Figure 4). More than one-third (36 percent) of respondents reported Blacks were not consulted at all when a decision was made affecting them; only seven percent felt Black employees were consulted "to a great extent," while almost half (48 percent) reported consultation occurred "to some extent."

FIGURE 3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF BLACK PERCEPTION OF  
BEHAVIOR OF MANAGEMENT TOWARD BLACKS AND WHITES

Real interest in welfare and happiness of:

- a. Blacks
- b. Whites

Attempt to improve working conditions for:

- a. Blacks
- b. Whites

Work activities sensibly organized for:

- a. Blacks
- b. Whites

	To No Extent	To Some Extent	To A Great Extent	Not Applicable
a. Blacks	45	40	9	7
b. Whites	3	34	57	5
a. Blacks	46	42	7	4
b. Whites	8	40	46	6
a. Blacks	35	50	6	9
b. Whites	7	40	42	12

FIGURE 4

DECISION-MAKING PRACTICES: EXTENT TO WHICH  
AFFECTED EMPLOYEES ARE ASKED FOR ADVICE

	<u>Percent</u>
To No Extent	36
To Some Extent	48
To a Great Extent	7
Not Applicable	9
Total	<u>100</u>

Similarly, it was felt that information was not widely shared in the prisons so as to make all facts accessible to persons making decisions regarding Black employees. A majority of the respondents who did believe that all facts were accessible to the decision-maker "to some extent" or "to a great extent" worked in prisons with high Black employee populations. Sixty-three percent of the respondents who felt facts were not at all accessible worked in prisons with low Black employee populations.

The practice regarding decisions affecting Black employees, reported by 38 percent of respondents, was to announce a decision without providing the employee an opportunity to raise questions or comments. Twenty-three percent felt that some opportunity was given to ask questions, and 14 percent felt that after decisions were drawn up, they were discussed with the Black employee and sometimes modified before being issued. Seven percent felt the Black employee was asked to choose the best of a set of specific alternatives drawn up by the supervisor, and 18 percent indicated that problems were presented to the Black employee and the decision felt to be best was adopted by the supervisor and employee jointly. Only in about 40 percent of the cases, therefore, did Black correctional officers feel they had meaningful input into decisions affecting them.

• Communication Flow

The respondents felt they were not receiving adequate information about what was going on in other sections or shifts. Their perceptions were related to the size of the Black employee populations at each prison. Almost two-thirds (63 percent) of all respondents who

felt the information they received was adequate were from prisons with high Black employee populations. Of those who indicated the information was not at all adequate, 63 percent were from prisons with low Black employee populations.

The majority of officers felt white peers were receiving more information. Respondents from high Black employee population prisons tended to see no differences in the quantity of information received by Black and white employees, while a majority (57 percent) of the respondents from low Black employee population prisons felt white employees received more information.

• Motivational Conditions

Several measures of motivational conditions were investigated, including how differences between Black and white employees were handled. Respondents reported that when Blacks and whites had differences, there was often an attempt to work them through. Responses are shown in Figure 5.

FIGURE 5

HANDLING OF DIFFERENCES OR DISAGREEMENTS  
BETWEEN BLACKS AND WHITES

<u>Responses</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Almost always avoided, denied or suppressed	22
Sometimes avoided, denied or suppressed	27
Sometimes accepted and worked through	41
Almost always accepted as necessary and desirable and worked through	10
Total	<u>100</u>

The motivation of Black employees was also more directly investigated. One-quarter of the respondents selected each of the following options describing why Black correctional officers work: (1) to keep their jobs, and to make money; (2) to keep their jobs, make money, and seek promotions; (3) to keep their

jobs, make money, seek promotions, and do a satisfying job, because other people in their work group expected it; and (4) to keep their jobs and avoid being "chewed out." Thus, about half the Black officers can be considered highly motivated. As would be expected, career-oriented respondents were more highly motivated than non-career-oriented.

#### 4. Goals and Aspirations

The officers were asked to respond to a list of seven job-related goals and aspirations by indicating the importance of each, and whether the goals/aspirations could be achieved in correctional institutions. The questions solicited comments on chances for increased salary, chances for more training and education, chances to be a leader or supervisor, retirement benefits, security of job and income, variety in work assignments, and medical benefits.

A look at the data in Figure 6 indicates that responses to all questions were very similar. All seven measures were considered important by more than 80 percent of respondents, although variety in work assignments and chances to be a leader supervisor were considered important by 81 and 83 percent of respondents respectively, while each of the other five factors was considered important by at least 93 percent of respondents. Similarly, the large majority of respondents felt that all these goals could be achieved in a correctional institution. A total of 82 percent felt correctional facilities offered chances to be a leader or supervisor, and 89 percent felt such institutions offered variety in work assignments. More than

FIGURE 6

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS ON  
GOALS AND ASPIRATIONS OF BLACK CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS

	Not Important	Important	Cannot Be Achieved In A Correctional Institution	Can Be Achieved In A Correctional Institution
Chance for increased salary	4	96	5	95
Chance for more training and education	4	96	9	91
Chance to be a leader or supervisor	16	83	16	82
Retirement benefits	6	93	2	98
Steady, secure job and income	4	95	7	93
Variety in work assignments	19	81	11	89
Medical benefits	5	94	4	96

90 percent of respondents felt each of the other five goals could be achieved in a correctional institution.

Differences ( $p > .01$ ) were noted in the respondents' beliefs that a steady, secure job and income could be achieved in a correctional setting based on the size of the Black employee populations at the institutions. Approximately 80 percent of all respondents who believed this security could not be achieved were from prisons with high Black employee populations. Non-career-oriented respondents did not feel chances to be a leader and variety in work assignments were as important as did career officers, which may explain the lower rates of positive response for these factors. In addition, career-oriented respondents were more confident that opportunities for leadership and retirement benefits could be achieved in correctional institutions than were the non-career-oriented respondents.

##### 5. Advancement Opportunities and Career Orientation

Nine items on a three-point Likert scale were used to examine certain advancement-related factors which may affect job retention. Most respondents (51 percent or more) expressed satisfaction with only four of the nine items. The respondents did not agree on whether their pay was comparable to what they would receive on other jobs they felt qualified to hold, or on whether job assignments were changed as frequently as they would have liked. In each case, less than

20 percent of the officers were undecided; the rest were evenly divided for and against the statement. In response to the statement "Career opportunities in corrections are better than they are on other jobs," 37 percent agreed, 37 percent disagreed, and 26 percent were neutral.

When opinions were solicited concerning opportunities made available for advancement of Black employees, there were more negative than positive responses. The officers felt that chances for advancement were better at jobs elsewhere than at the institutions of their employment. However, 55 percent felt their job assignments offered them a chance to acquire training and experience needed for advancement to better paying positions. They also believed the skills they were acquiring would be of value in other employment situations.

Two-thirds of the respondents said their current employment provided new and exciting experiences, and three-fourths thought jobs in corrections provided an opportunity to do something worthwhile. However, the majority (53 percent) did not feel that working in corrections allowed them to leave their personal problems behind.

On six of the nine items reported above, career-oriented and non-career respondents differed. Figure 7 summarizes these differences. Non-career-oriented respondents felt their chances for advancement were greater elsewhere, while career-oriented respondents felt their chances were greater in



FIGURE 7  
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSE OF CAREER AND  
 NON-CAREER OFFICERS ON JOB-RELATED RETENTION ITEMS

	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	No Response	Total
Job assignments changed as frequently as desired:					
a. Career	58	12	30	-	100
b. Non-Career	26	19	54	-	100
Chances for advancement are better at present institution than elsewhere:					
a. Career	32	26	42	-	100
b. Non-Career	63	15	22	-	100
Present job provides training needed for advancement to better paying job at institution:					
a. Career	23	7	70	-	100
b. Non-Career	45	10	45	-	100
Career opportunities are better in corrections than elsewhere:					
a. Career	21	28	51	-	100
b. Non-Career	50	18	32	-	100
Job gives opportunity to do something worthwhile:					
a. Career	9	8	82	-	99
b. Non-Career	27	13	60	-	100
Working in corrections allows me to leave personal problems behind:					
a. Career	47	12	41	-	100
b. Non-Career	20	5	18	57	100

p > .01

corrections. Most career-oriented respondents felt their job assignments were changed frequently enough, while most non-career respondents felt they were not. While non-career respondents were undecided on whether their jobs offered a chance to acquire additional training/education needed to advance to better paying positions, the career-oriented respondents felt their jobs provided a chance to acquire such training. Career-oriented respondents tended to feel that career opportunities in corrections were better than they were on other jobs, while non-career-oriented respondents were more likely to deny that working in corrections allowed them to leave their personal problems behind than were career-oriented respondents. In general, career-oriented respondents were more favorably disposed towards corrections than non-career-oriented officers.

6. Retention Incentives

Questions of salary, retirement benefits, and opportunities for job mobility and for more education were pursued further. Respondents were asked to estimate the effects of certain policy changes on their interest in working in corrections. Officers reported that several policy changes would have a positive effect on retention. Respondents (66 percent) favored a cash bonus for each five-year period of service completed. They were even more positive (71 percent) about a change which would make the pay and benefits of prison

employees comparable to the pay and benefits of similar employees in the private sector. Retirement after 25 years with three-fourths pay instead of half pay would positively affect 82 percent of the officers. A change which would allow employees to accumulate two weeks of educational leave annually for advanced job training with pay would favorably affect the career interests of 92 percent of the officers. Respondents (80 percent) also were in favor of guaranteeing employees their choice of shift during the first three years of employment, provided there was an opening on that shift. A similar percentage favored giving employees an opportunity to change their job classification after one year of employment, and 76 percent favored giving the employees a yearly bonus of up to 10 percent of their base pay for outstanding performance.

Career- and non-career-oriented respondents had similar views on retention incentives, while significant differences were found between respondents from prisons with high versus low Black employee populations in populations in three incentive areas. Correctional officers from institutions with low Black employee populations gave more favorable responses concerning the job retention effects of a cash bonus for each five-year period of service, annual paid educational leave, and a yearly bonus for outstanding performance.

Summing up, improved retirement benefits and monetary rewards for completed service or outstanding performance were all highly rated as job retention incentives. The very high favorable response given to the opportunity to take advanced job training without losing pay suggests the officers are genuinely interested in self-development, which hopefully would improve job performance and benefit the prison community.

#### 7. Tests

Respondents were asked to assess the fairness of specific aspects of the selection and promotion system. Most felt the written examination (83 percent), the oral examination (81 percent), and the educational requirements (81 percent) used in employee selection were fair to Blacks. It was observed, however, that while 66 percent of the non-career-oriented respondents felt the written examination was fair, 80 percent of the career-oriented respondents had similar views. Similarly, respondents from prisons with high Black employee populations were more likely than those from prisons with low Black employee populations to view the written ( $p > .03$ ) and oral ( $p > .02$ ) parts of the recruitment examination as being fair.

In regard to promotion exams, some respondents were not sure that job performance reports filled out by supervisors were fair to Blacks. Forty-two percent felt they were unfair and 58 percent felt they were fair; they were not applicable

(not used) for 20 percent of the sample. Forty-one percent of the officers thought the eligibility requirements for promotional examinations were fair, and 26 percent said they were unfair. They were not applicable to 33 percent of the sample. More than two-thirds (69 percent) of the officers were in favor of the written part of the promotion examination. In almost half (45 percent) of the cases, a written examination was not used for promotions; in exactly half the cases, an oral examination was not used. In cases where an oral examination for promotion was used, the percentage of officers regarding it as fair was slightly larger than the percentage regarding it as unfair.

Almost a third (30 percent) of the officers had taken a promotional examination at their institution, while 70 percent had not. Most officers, therefore, could not speak about the exams from personal experience. Forty percent of those who had taken the examination had been promoted, while 60 percent had not. Sixty percent of the career-oriented officers and 27 percent of the non-career officers who took the examination had been promoted. This may partially explain why career-oriented officers have a more positive attitude toward prison work than non-career-oriented officers. Some of the officers who had not been promoted blamed a low score, and few reported being put on the promotions waiting list.

#### 8. Counseling

A career counselor can be very valuable in helping employees assess their vocational interests and aptitudes. Discussion with the counselor often awakens latent interests and sometimes causes the employee to re-direct his energies or sharpen his career goals. However, there was a noticeable absence of career counseling for correctional officers. Only 12 percent of respondents -- a total of 36 officers -- reported such counseling was available, while 88 percent said it was not. However, 40 percent of those who had a counselor available -- 14 individuals -- used his services. In the case of nine officers, the employee took the initiative to see the counselor. The counselor set up appointments in 12 of the cases and the supervisor set them in six of the cases. Eighteen of the appointments with the counselor came about in other ways.

Four of the officers who received counseling visited the counselor to obtain information about promotion. Three needed information about a specific job, another three needed information about re-assignment possibilities, and one visited the counselor concerning an unsatisfactory work report. Six had other reasons for visiting the counselor. Of those officers who were counseled, seven felt they were helped a lot, four a little, and six not helped at all. Nine of the officers who visited the counselor discussed, among other things, the

possibility of a career in corrections, while eleven did not. The finding that two-thirds of the visits to the career counselor were helpful suggests that making more career counselors available in correctional institutions may lead to improved job satisfaction and retention.

#### D. RELATIONS WITH INMATES

Respondents were asked to rate the relationship between Black correctional officers and Black inmates. This question was asked of prison administrators as well as Black correctional officers. Responses were as follows:

- 54 percent of correctional officers and 55 percent of administrators felt that the relationship between Black officers and Black inmates was either "good" or "excellent".
- 40 percent of the correctional officers and 32 percent of the administrators felt the relationship was "fair".
- 6 percent of the correctional officers and 13 percent of the administrators felt the relationship was "poor".

Thus most Black correctional officers felt that they had positive relationship with Black inmates. Moreover, most respondents felt existing relationships could be improved through better communications.

#### E. BARRIERS TO RECRUITMENT

Most correctional officers surveyed in this study felt racism was the major barrier to recruiting Black correctional officers.

Black correctional employees were asked whether their institutions had a program to help Black employees find housing in nearby communities. Only 11 percent of respondents reported the existence of such a housing program; the other 89 percent reported no such program existed.

To explore the racism issue, respondents were asked whether supervisors or administrators were disciplined for violations of equal employment opportunity (EEO) regulations. Only nine percent of the officers knew of an instance in which such individuals had been disciplined for violating EEO regulations. Correctional officers (61 percent) believed a quota system existed in many prisons which limited the number of Blacks hired.

#### F. JOB SATISFACTION

Thirteen items on a three-point Likert scale (dissatisfied, undecided, satisfied) were used to assess various aspects of job satisfaction for correctional officers. Figure 8 provides a summary of responses to those items.

Respondents showed greatest satisfaction on the following seven items: co-workers' esteem (79 percent), job responsibilities (68 percent), job security (63 percent), cooperation among co-workers (59 percent), superior-subordinate understanding (58 percent), the way superior handles subordinates (45 percent).

Items with which employees were most often dissatisfied had to do with pay, employer policies and practices toward employees, the way dismissals or transfers were handled, working conditions, and the lack of praise for a well-done job. Dissatisfaction, therefore, appeared to be focused largely on matters controlled by management.

A cross-tabulation of the 13 items by career commitment showed a significant relationship between career commitment and ten of the items. Career-oriented persons responded similarly to the non-career-oriented persons with respect to pay, praise, and cooperation among co-workers. On all other measures,

FIGURE 8

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION WITH JOB FACTORS

Factors:

- Co-workers' Esteem
- Employee Policies and Practices:
  - a. Employees (17)
  - b. Dismissals and Transfers (43)
  - c. Overtime Distribution/Assignment (48)
- Job Security (39)
- Working Conditions (40)
- Superior-Subordinate Relations:
  - a. Understanding (38)
  - b. Personnel Management (42)
- Cooperation among Co-workers
- Chances for Advancement (44)
- Pay (45)
- Job Responsibilities (46)
- Praise (47)

	Dissatisfied	Undecided	Satisfied
	8	13	79
	50	21	29
	49	26	25
	39	15	47 *
	20	18	63 *
	47	14	40 *
	27	15	58
	33	22	45
	24	16	59 *
	37	29	35 *
	54	11	36 *
	18	14	68
	43	20	37

\*Row totals not equal 100 due to rounding.

however, the career-oriented correctional officers expressed greater satisfaction; thus positive correlation was found between career commitment and job satisfaction. Whether one causes the other could not be determined.

There were significant ( $p=.02$ ) differences between the size of the Black employee populations and opinions concerning understanding between respondent and supervisor. Officers who worked in prisons with low Black employee populations expressed more dissatisfaction with supervisor/employee understanding than did officers in prisons with high Black employee populations. On the other hand, more uncertainty about this relationship was reflected by officers working in prisons with high Black employee populations. Significant ( $p>.05$ ) differences were also found between Black employee population size and the feeling of job security. Officers in prisons with high Black employee populations tended to express more uncertainty and less satisfaction about job security than officers in prisons with low Black employee populations.

When asked to identify the things they liked best about working in corrections, the officers chose (1) helping inmates, (2) job responsibility, and (3) working hours as the most preferred. The first two choices appear to reflect employee job commitment.

The most disliked job factor was administrative supervi-

sion, perhaps because the administrative supervisor was regarded as representing the institutional policies and practices with which the employees were dissatisfied. Other sources of job dissatisfaction were also investigated, with the assumption that dissatisfaction is likely to lead to low levels of career commitment and to low retention rates.

A majority of the workers (61 percent) felt they had decision-making power or influence appropriate to their positions; 72 percent of the career-oriented officers felt that way, as compared with 53 percent of the non-career-oriented officers. While 20 percent of the career-oriented personnel felt they lacked appropriate decision-making power, 41 percent of the non-career-oriented personnel felt they lacked such power.

Another source of dissatisfaction was how Black employees saw their chances for promotion. A large majority (72 percent) of the officers felt that their chances for promotion were less than those for their white co-workers, while 24 percent felt they were the same and just four percent felt they were greater. While only 37 percent regarded their present position as a life-time career, many of the others reported they would select corrections work as a life-time career if they received a change in position or were promoted. A few employees (eight percent), however, would not make corrections a career under any circumstances.

The officers identified racism and poor promotional opportunities as the main disadvantages for a Black person pursuing a career in corrections. The major advantage was overwhelmingly identified as the opportunity to help other Blacks.

As another indicator of job satisfaction, interviewees were asked what kind of work they would like to be doing in a year's time. About half (52 percent) chose the same job; 40 percent chose something different; and eight percent were uncertain. It thus appears that about half of the officers were satisfied with their present positions. Not surprisingly, 80 percent of the career-oriented respondents would prefer continuing in the same job in a year's time, while only 30 percent of the non-career employees would like to be doing the same job after a year. Few of those looking for a new job reported they would check with relatives or friends or newspapers; instead, most would check with employment services or directly with employers. Most of the officers (64 percent) felt they would have a good chance of getting the job they wanted, but some felt their race might be a hindrance.

As officers looked into the future, 60 percent felt their present job would continue to meet their expectations, while the rest felt it would not. Offers of a better job or

increased pay would be the most likely circumstance under which a respondent might resign.



### G. MEDIA EXPOSURE

The media serves to inform, entertain, and often influence people. The preferences of Black correctional officers with respect to radio, television and printed material were assessed as a basis for planning recruitment campaign recommendations. Most officers (58 percent) chose newspapers as the preferred reading material. Next in line were magazines (16 percent), non-fiction books (12 percent), and novels (nine percent). One percent read mostly comic books, and two percent did not read at all; the remaining seven percent most often read "other" reading material.

Two-thirds (66 percent) of the officers read the newspaper almost every day, 16 percent read it several times a week, 11 percent read the Sunday paper only, and seven percent read the newspaper less than once a week or not at all.

The career-oriented officers read the newspaper more often than non-career-oriented officers; 73 percent of the career officers as compared with 61 percent of the non-career officers read the newspaper almost every day. Almost all respondents (90 percent) read local as opposed to "national" newspapers. Many officers (47 percent) read the entire paper. For those reading only a section of the newspaper, the sports section was the most popular, followed by the editorial and front pages.

Over half (56 percent) of the officers read a magazine at least once a week, 26 percent once a month, and the rest less often. About seven percent said they did not read magazines at all. Combining the data on newspapers and magazines, officers seemed to be well exposed to the printed media.

Black officers reported watching a variety of television programs including news, Black news, crime, sports, military shows, comedy movies, game shows and the like. By far the most popular choice was Black news, followed by sports and crime.

Radio was very popular among the respondents; 85 percent reported listening to it almost every day. Four percent listened to the radio every other day eight percent listened one day out of four, and only three percent did not listen at all. When asked to select the type of program to which they most often listened, 35 percent selected popular music, rock, pop, etc. Another ten percent reported listening to general music and one percent to classical music. Music, therefore, accounted for almost half (46 percent) of the radio programs to which the Black correctional officers most often listened. News was the favorite radio program of another nine percent of the officers, religious programs were preferred by three percent, and sports events and public affairs programs were each preferred by four percent. A very few officers chose dramatic shows, specials, educational programs, cultural and panel discussions.

The bulletin board is an important source of information in many organizations and institutions. Black correctional officers were asked to state how often they read the bulletin board at their institutions. Fifty-five percent of the officers read the bulletin board every day, 18 percent read it several times a week, 14 percent read it once a week, and five percent read it less often. Six percent did not read the bulletin board at all, and three percent said there were no bulletin boards in their units. The officers read the bulletin board mainly for general information (42 percent) and for information on job promotions (41 percent). On the whole, bulletin boards were frequently read by Black officers, and provided information of interest to them. The findings suggest that the few units not using bulletin boards should consider doing so.

## H. SUMMARY

### 1. Demographic Data

A total of 304 Black correctional officers in seven state operated prisons were interviewed to obtain information on the recruitment and retention of Black employees.

The group was predominantly male (85 percent), married (59 percent), and under 30 years of age (60 percent), and the median income was \$8,000-\$11,000. About two-thirds of the officers had completed at least high school. Most lived in small or medium-sized cities (populations below 100,000) within 30 miles of work and traveled to and from work by car.

### 2. Employment and Working Environment

The vast majority (87 percent) were correctional officer specialists; 72 percent had been employed at the institution for two years or less. Only eleven percent had worked at other correctional institutions.

In general, the officers decided on their own to seek prison work and had little difficulty or delay in obtaining it. About half were employed in maximum security, and the rest in other areas of the prison. Most (73 percent) filled existing vacancies rather than newly created positions, and, in general, had greater responsibility than in jobs previously held. At the time of hiring, only 20 percent expected to make corrections work a career.

### 3. Management Methods

#### ● Supervisory Support

Correctional officers held positive attitudes toward their immediate supervisors. They believed supervisors required high standards, were approachable, listened to subordinates, and sometimes offered new ideas for solving job-related problems. However, they felt their immediate supervisors could better serve Blacks if they improved their management skills, had more information about Blacks, and showed more interest in the Blacks they supervised.

#### ● Peer Support

White co-workers were seen as easy to approach, providing needed help so that work could be planned ahead of time, and, to some extent, emphasizing team goals. Disagreements between Blacks and whites were recognized and worked out in most cases.

#### ● Organizational Climate

The officers felt, in general, that management treated white employees better than it treated Black employees, in terms of working conditions, showing interest in the welfare of employees, and organizing work activities sensibly. The officers also felt whites had better chances at promotions and received more information about what was happening in other sections or shifts. In most cases (60 percent), Blacks felt they had no meaningful input in decisions affecting them.

#### ● Job Career Information

There was a noticeable absence of career counselors in the prisons. Only 12 percent of the officers -- 35 individuals -- said that counselors were available; and five of these officers visited the counselor largely on their own initiative. Nine of those visiting the counselor discussed making prison work their career; and 11 felt they were helped by the visit.

#### ● Selection and Promotion Bias

Most officers felt that the educational requirements and both written and oral examinations used for selection were fair to Blacks. A majority of the of-

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**4 OF 6**

Officers felt the written (69 percent) and oral (62 percent) parts of the promotional examination were also fair to Blacks. However, a significant minority of officers believed these parts of the promotional examination were unfair to Blacks. Since only 30 percent of the officers had themselves taken a promotional examination, most did not speak from first-hand experience. Forty percent of those who had taken a promotional examination had been promoted; most of the rest either had low scores or were placed on the waiting list.

#### • Retention Factors

Officers stated the following were important job factors and could be achieved in a correctional institution: chances for increased salary, more education and training, leadership opportunities, retirement and medical benefits, job security, and variety in work assignments.

Changes in policy to produce improved retirement benefits and monetary rewards for completed service or outstanding performance would serve as retention incentives for most respondents. An opportunity to take advanced training without loss of pay was another valued incentive.

While officers said chances for job advancement were better elsewhere, they, nevertheless, felt that present job assignments offered them a chance to acquire training and experience needed for advancement, and felt the skills they were acquiring would be of value in other employment situations.

#### 4. Career Orientation

Thirty-seven percent of the officers had definitely decided to make a career of correctional work, although only 20 percent had begun their first corrections job with the idea of doing so. Of the rest, most were either undecided or preferred to adopt a wait-and-see attitude which changed with the passage of time, even for some officers who came in with a career intention.

The officers who had decided on a career in corrections when this study was conducted tended to be older, less well educated, and were more likely to be assigned to a maximum security section than were non-career-oriented respondents. They were employed at another job when they decided to take the present job. As might be expected, most hoped to be in their present positions in a year's time. Career-oriented officers were generally more positive in their perceptions of their supervisors and institutional policies and practices than were non-career officers. They also felt more positive about their chances for success in correctional work. In fact, more career-oriented officers had been promoted than non-career-oriented officers. At the time of their hiring, career-oriented officers were more likely to believe they had a talent for prison work and interest in rehabilitating inmates than were non-career-oriented officers. In general, career-oriented officers were more satisfied with their jobs than their non-career-oriented co-workers.

Institutions with a heavy concentration of Black employees had a greater percentage of non-career-oriented officers than institutions where there were few Black employees. Many different explanations can be offered for this finding.

#### 5. Job Satisfaction

Asked about their satisfaction with their present jobs, correctional officers generally indicated that they were

satisfied with co-workers' esteem, job responsibilities, job security, cooperation among workers and, to some extent, with supervisor-subordinate relationships. They were generally dissatisfied with three management-related issues: pay, lack of praise for a well done job, and employer policies and practices. Dissatisfaction was also prevalent in areas of dismissals and transfers and distribution of overtime -- largely administrative matters. This probably accounted for officers identifying administrative supervision as one of the three most disliked aspects of their work. In contrast, helping inmates was the most liked aspect.

About half of the officers hoped to be doing the same kind of work the following year; 40 percent wanted a different job, and the rest were undecided. Most (64 percent) of those who desired a new job felt their chances of obtaining it were good, although some felt race might be a hindrance.

SECTION II  
PERSONNEL OTHER THAN CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS

A. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

This section of the study reports on data collected from 117 correctional personnel other than correctional officers. "Non-correctional officers" were defined as the sample of correctional employees who were not custodial officers. Included were personnel in treatment (e.g., teachers, psychologists, social workers, recreation specialists, health service personnel), administration (e.g., hospital administrators, nutritionists, deputy wardens, parole coordinators, and resident supervisors), and staff positions (e.g., clerks and stewards).

The median age of non-correctional officer respondent was 32 years. None was less than 20 years old, and 22 percent were 45 years old or older. The ratio of males to females was slightly larger than 2:1. Three-fourths (74 percent) of the non-correctional officers were married, 13 percent had never been married, and the rest were either divorced, widowed, or separated.

The spouses of 73 percent of the respondents were employed, while those of 27 percent were not employed. The respondents had an average of two dependents, and ten percent had five dependents or more. The median family income was in the \$14,000 - \$17,000 bracket.

When they first started working in corrections, 95 percent of the respondents had completed high school, and 73 percent had completed four years of post-secondary education (e.g., college technical, trade, or business school). At the time this survey was conducted, 47 percent of the respondents were enrolled in a regular course of study at junior colleges, technical colleges, or four year and graduate level institutions. Highest levels of educational attainment for respondents are presented in Figure 9, below. The table shows that 34 percent of the respondents had a bachelor's degree, 14 percent a master's degree, three percent a doctoral degree, and four percent "other" degrees. The associate degree was held by 18 percent of the respondents, and 27 percent did not have a degree.

FIGURE 9

HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

<u>Attainment Level</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Associate Degree	21	18
Bachelor's Degree	39	34
Master's Degree	16	14
Doctoral Degree	4	3
Other	5	4
No Degree	31	27
TOTAL	116	100

Among the respondents were veterans of four branches of the armed services. Of the 47 respondents who were veterans,

19 had served in the Air Force, 17 in the Army, eight in the Navy, and three in the Coast Guard.

Most respondents (63 percent) lived in towns or small cities with populations under 25,000 or in middle-sized cities with populations ranging from 25,000 to 100,000. The second largest segment of the sample (20 percent) lived in large cities with populations over 100,000; five percent lived on farms and four percent in the suburbs. Place of residence was presumably affected by location of the correctional facilities sampled, only one of which is in a large city.

The demographic data in this section showed the "typical" non-correctional officer was in his early 30's, married, with two dependents, had a working wife, had completed four years of post-secondary school, lived in a town or small city, and worked in a prison where the size of the Black employee population was described as "low."

## B. EMPLOYMENT AND WORKING ENVIRONMENT

Respondents' sources of information about jobs in corrections, difficulties in getting a job in corrections, nature of employment, length of employment, daily traveling distance to and from work, modes of transportation, and physical work environment were considered to be key variables affecting employment status and working environment. Moreover, each variable was expected to yield information important in determining how correctional facilities can attract and retain employees.

### 1. Employment

Responses suggest the following "typical" experience for Black correctional employees not serving as correctional officers. Having learned of possible job opportunities from either friends or relatives (14 percent had relatives working in corrections) or a public employment agency (see Figure 10), the respondent filed an application and waited 2-3 weeks before receiving notice of employment. At the time the respondents filed their applications for employment, 45 percent were working full-time, 16 percent were employed part-time, 23 percent were looking for a job, seven percent were not employed and in school, and nine percent classified themselves as "other."

Although 22 percent of the respondents reported "great" or "some" difficulty in getting a job in corrections, 76 percent reported having "little" or "no" difficulty. For those reporting



Figure 10

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT FIRST/CURRENT JOB IN CORRECTIONS		
Sources	Number	Percent
Friend or Relative	42	35.9
Public Employment Agency	22	18.8
Other (e.g., television, leaflet, bulletin board, military)	21	17.9
School Employment Office	9	7.7
Employer	8	6.8
Newspaper	6	5.1
Community	4	3.4
Recruiter	3	2.6
Private Agency	1	0.9
Radio	1	0.9
TOTAL	117	100.0

problems, race accounted for 30 percent of the difficulty experienced, the general job market conditions for 27 percent, job specifications and sex for 7 percent, and a variety of factors for 36 percent.

Almost all (95 percent) of the respondents were employed in corrections on a full-time basis and had work duties and responsibilities related to their job classification titles. For all but 22 percent, the present job was their first in corrections. Seventy-six percent of the respondents had worked no more than four years at their present place of employment, while 13 percent had been at the same correctional institution for nine years or more.

When asked to choose the word which best described the number of Blacks employed at the prison where they worked, one-third (32 percent) chose "low" as the best description of the Black employee population and two-thirds (68 percent) chose "high" as the best description. In this section of the report low or small will refer to one-third of the referenced subgroup and high or large will refer to two-thirds of the said group.

A cross-tabulation showed that the size of the Black employee population at a particular prison and the number of years the respondent had been employed there were related ( $p=.04$ ). Respondents working in prisons with a high number of Black employees tended to have fewer years of employment service than those working in prisons with a low number of Black employees. This may reflect recent recruitment efforts.

Slightly more than two-fifths (44 percent) of the respondents reported traveling less than 15 miles to work, 26 percent traveled between 15 and 30 miles, 19 percent traveled between 31 and 46 miles, and 11 percent traveled from 47 to 62 miles. Only one person reported traveling more than 62 miles.

Private cars were the major type of transportation to and from work for 75 percent of the respondents; 18 percent used a car pool. Bus, train, and "other" modes were used by about seven percent.

One out of every five respondents filled a newly created job position when he or she first started working in corrections, but the vast majority (70 percent) filled existing job vacancies. For 75 percent of the respondents, the newly acquired jobs entailed more responsibility than the jobs they formerly held.

Less than half (44 percent) of respondents expected to make corrections a lifetime career, while 56 percent did not. Respondents were thus grouped as "career-oriented" and "non-career-oriented" employees and responses of the two groups on many job-related issues were compared.

Minority non-correctional officers were not disproportionately concentrated in any one section of the prisons. When asked to classify the section of the prison in which they were presently assigned to work, 37 percent said maximum security, 21 percent said medium security, 28 percent said minimum security, and the rest (14 percent) indicated they were not assigned to any one particular section of the prison. An equal

number (35 percent) of the respondents worked on the first shift (12:00 midnight - 7:30 a.m.), and the second shift (7:30 a.m. - 4:00 p.m.), respectively. Seven percent worked on the third shift (4:00 p.m. - 12:00 a.m.), and 23 percent had other working arrangements.

## 2. Working Environment

Respondent opinions on various factors considered to be a part of the work environment -- the cooperativeness of white co-workers, work space, temperature, noise, lighting, ventilation, hazards, and enjoyment of work -- were collected on a three-point Likert scale (The points were "disagree", "undecided", and "agree"). Reactions to statements about the work environment variables are shown in Figure 11.

More than half (60 percent) of the respondents disagreed with the statement that "white co-workers are usually uncooperative," while 21 percent agreed with the statement, and the rest were undecided. A cross-tabulation showed a significant ( $p > .01$ ) difference between the way white workers were viewed and the career intention of Black respondents. Respondents who regarded their present position as a lifetime career tended to see white workers as more cooperative than did the non-career-oriented respondents.

Opinions were collected on four physical variables which may have a direct effect on the working environment (i.e., work space, temperature, ventilation, and lighting). As can be seen

FIGURE 11

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS' FEELINGS ABOUT  
THEIR PHYSICAL WORK ENVIRONMENT

Factors:

White workers are usually uncooperative  
 Work space adequate  
 Temperature too hot or too cold  
 Work area reasonably quiet  
 Work area well lighted  
 Ventilation inadequate  
 No physical risks or hazards  
 Job tasks routine, repetitive

	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Total
White workers are usually uncooperative	60	19	21	100
Work space adequate	47	6	47	100
Temperature too hot or too cold	42	13	45	100
Work area reasonably quiet	77	2	51	100
Work area well lighted	19	2	79	100
Ventilation inadequate	37	6	57	100
No physical risks or hazards	81	3	16	100
Job tasks routine, repetitive	42	5	53	100

N = 117

in Figure 11 most respondents felt their work areas had inadequate ventilation but most found them well-lighted. Respondents were almost evenly divided as to whether their work areas had adequate space and whether temperature was usually too hot or too cold.

A majority (53 percent) of the respondents felt their job tasks were routine and repetitive, and that they involved physical risks or hazards. The largest consensus was found on the question of "physical risks or hazards," with 81 percent feeling there were such dangers.

It is somewhat paradoxical that a majority of the respondents described their job tasks as routine and repetitive but also considered them interesting and challenging. A cross-tabulation showed a significant ( $p > .05$ ) difference between career orientation and the amount of excitement and interest provided by the job. Career-oriented employees were more likely than other employees to find their jobs interesting and challenging.

### C. MANAGEMENT METHODS AND PRACTICES

The extent to which management methods and practices in corrections considered the work values, preferences, and perceptions of minority personnel was assumed to be significant to any strategy devised to attract and retain minority employees. Therefore, the opinions, attitudes, perceptions, and preferences of Black non-correctional officers were solicited on essential management systems, methods and practices in corrections. The variables were as follows: (1) supervisory behavior, (2) peer relationships and peer leadership, (3) organizational climate<sup>3</sup>, (4) pay, (5) variety in job assignments, (6) advancement opportunities and career orientation, (7) retention incentives, (8) tests, (9) career information and materials.

#### 1. Supervisory Behavior

##### (a) Supervisory Leadership

Supervisory leadership was defined as behavior on the part of the supervisors of Black employees that was congruent with the objectives of the correctional institutions. The four facets of supervisory leadership investigated were supervisory support, supervisory interaction

<sup>3</sup> Ibid.

facilitation, supervisory goal intention, and supervisory work facilitation.

#### ● Supervisory Support

The behavior of supervisory personnel toward Black non-correctional officers which tended to increase the employees' feelings of personal worth was measured by the employees' reactions to two questions. One focused on the extent to which employees felt their supervisors were friendly and easy to approach; the second looked at the extent to which Black employees felt their supervisors paid attention when the employees talked with them.

An analysis of the responses to the two questions revealed that 95 percent of the employees felt their supervisors both listened to what they said and were friendly and easy to approach. The data indicated that Black non-correctional officers received supervisory support.

#### ● Supervisory Interaction Facilitation

The duties and responsibilities of non-correctional officers often require a team effort, (e.g., an interdisciplinary approach). The effectiveness of such an effort depends, to a large extent, on the existence of mutually satisfying professional interpersonal relationships. To determine the extent to which supervisory personnel facilitated interpersonal interaction, respondents were asked if their supervisors encouraged Blacks and whites to work together as a team.

Approximately two-thirds (65 percent) of the Black respondents felt that supervisors did encourage Black and white employees to work as a team, while a fourth (26 percent) felt that supervisory personnel made no attempt to encourage teamwork among Black and white employees.

#### ● Supervisory Goal Emphasis

The extent to which the respondents' supervisors required high standards of job performance was explored, but was found not to be significantly correlated with the respondents' descriptions of the way Black non-correctional officers worked.

The interpretation was that an employee's job performance was independent of the supervisor's expectations. Supervisory goal emphasis (i.e., the degree to which a supervisor's behavior generates enthusiasm among employees for excellence in job performance) was further explored by assessing the extent to which the employee believed supervisors required high standards of job performance.

After collapsing the response categories "to some extent" and "to a great extent", the results showed that 92 percent of the respondents felt their supervisors required high standards of job performance from them.

- Supervisory Work Facilitation

Black non-correctional officers who regarded their present position as a lifetime career (N=43) were found to be significantly ( $p=.005$ ) more likely than those who did not (N=52) to report that their supervisors offered new ideas for solving job-related problems. More specifically, differences were found in the respondents' perception of supervisory behavior which aided successful task accomplishment or which provided the means necessary for successful performance. This behavior was called supervisory work facilitation.

Only 23 percent of respondents felt supervisors offered new ideas "to a great extent". A majority (51 percent), however, felt their supervisors offered new ideas for solving job-related problems "to some extent," while another 23 percent felt their supervisors offered no new ideas. In short, the data showed that respondents felt supervisory personnel facilitated the work of Black non-correctional officers less than they facilitated interaction between Black and white employees, less than they required high standards of job performance from Black employees, and less than they supported Black employees.

- (b) Supervisory Needs

The employees' perceptions of areas in which their supervisors needed to improve were called supervisory needs. Information about principles of good management,

information about Blacks, administrative skills, attitudes, and interest and concern for Black employees were the examined dimensions of supervisory needs.

The overwhelming majority of respondents felt supervisory personnel needed information about good management, changes in attitudes, increased skills, and need to show more interest and concern for Blacks they supervised.

Eighty-three percent of the respondents felt that supervisors needed more information about principles of good management, 86 percent believed supervisors needed more information about Blacks, 83 percent indicated supervisors needed to change some of their attitudes, 79 percent said supervisors needed greater administrative skills, and 83 percent felt supervisors needed to show more interest and concern for Blacks they supervised.

- 2. Peer Relationships

Peer leadership was defined as behavior among Black and white employees which facilitates the functioning of correctional institutions. Like supervisory leadership, peer leadership was viewed in terms of four components: peer support, peer interaction facilitation, peer group emphasis, and peer work facilitation.

- Peer Support

Peer support was defined as behavior of Black and white employees which enhances each individual's sense of personal worth. The extent to which Black employees found white employees friendly and easy

to approach was used as a measure of peer support. A very large majority (91 percent) of the Black respondents said their white co-workers were friendly and easy to approach.

Significant ( $p=.001$ ) differences were found between the career- and non-career-oriented respondents' perceptions of peer support. Seventy-one percent of all respondents who felt their white co-workers were friendly and easy to approach "to a great extent" were career-oriented. On the other hand, 68 percent of all respondents who believed white co-workers were friendly and easy to approach "to some extent" were non-career-oriented. (Only three respondents said white co-workers were "not at all" friendly and easy to approach.)

Thus while differences were found in Black employees according to their career orientation, a high degree of peer support exists between Black and white non-correctional officers.

#### • Peer Interaction Facilitation

The behavior Black and white employees displayed toward each other which encourages the development of working relationships was defined as peer interaction. Two measures were used to examine this variable: (1) the extent to which respondents indicated that Black and white employee work emphasized team goals, and (2) the extent to which Blacks and whites planned together and coordinated their work efforts.

On the first measure, 71 percent of respondents reported that team goals were emphasized "to some extent" or "to a great extent." Frequencies on the second measure were similarly distributed; 73 percent of the respondents felt Black and white employees planned together and coordinated their work efforts. On this measure, respondents not regarding corrections as a lifetime career were significantly ( $p=.008$ ) different from those who did. The non-career-oriented group were three times more likely than the career-oriented group to believe that Black and white employees did not plan together or coordinate their work efforts.

Respondents from prisons where the number of Black employees was high versus low also held significantly different ( $p=.014$ ) views on the extent to which Black

and white employees emphasized a team approach in their work efforts. The large majority (93 percent) of respondents who felt Black and white employees did not emphasize a team approach were from prisons with low percentages of Black employees.

#### • Peer Group Emphasis

The extent to which the behavior of Black and white employees stimulated enthusiasm for doing a good job was defined as peer group emphasis. Almost all (95 percent) of the respondents felt that individuals in their work groups maintained high performance standards.

#### • Peer Work Facilitation

A peer facilitates the work of a co-worker by assisting in preventing or removing obstacles to the co-worker's doing a good job. The extent to which white employees provided Black employees with help so that they could plan, organize, and schedule work ahead of time, or offered new ideas for solving job-related problems, was used as a measure of peer work facilitation.

About three-fourths (73 percent) of the respondents said white workers helped Black workers in planning, organizing, and scheduling ahead of time, while almost one-fifth (18 percent) believed whites offered Blacks no assistance in this respect. A larger majority of Black employees (83 percent) maintained that white employees offered Black employees new ideas for solving job-related problems.

Peer work facilitation data showed, in general, that white employees were perceived as helpful to Black employees.

### 3. Organizational Climate

Employees in correctional institutions are part of interdependent systems; that is, the behavior and performance of one employee affects that of another employee. Management policies and organizational structure also place constraints upon the employees. The interdependence of employees, the

patterns of organizational dominance and subordination, and the constraints which affect Black and white employees comprise the organizational climate. The following measures of organizational climate were investigated: human resources primacy, decision-making practices, communication flow, and motivational conditions.

- Human Resources Primacy

The extent to which the respondents felt management had a real interest in the welfare and happiness, the working conditions, and the organization of work activities for Black employees was defined as human resources primacy.

Exactly half of the non-career-oriented respondents and 76 percent of the career-oriented respondents thought management had "some" or a "great" amount of real interest in the welfare and happiness of Black employees. Notable differences were found between the non-career and career-oriented respondents; 45 percent of the non-career-oriented respondents believed management had no interest in the welfare and happiness of Black employees, as compared with 19 percent of the career-oriented respondents.

When the same question was asked about white employees, 95 percent of the career-oriented respondents and 76 percent of the non-career-oriented respondents indicated that management had a real interest in the welfare and happiness of white employees.

Human resources primacy data showed that both career-oriented and non-career-oriented respondents were likely to see management as having a greater interest in the welfare and happiness of white than Black employees. Furthermore, the career-oriented respondent had a greater tendency than the non-career-oriented respondent to believe management had an interest in the welfare and happiness of Black employees.

As previously stated, a majority of the respondents reflected some uncertainty or dissatisfaction with

working conditions. However, 57 percent of respondents felt that management was trying to improve the working conditions of Black employees, and 84 percent of the respondents said management was trying to improve the working conditions of white employees. Similarly, while 35 percent of respondents felt that management was not trying to improve working conditions of Black employees, only eight percent held a similar opinion about management and white employees.

Career- and non-career-oriented respondents held significantly ( $p=.0004$ ) different opinions on the extent to which management tried to improve the working conditions of Black employees. Slightly more than two-thirds (69 percent) of the career-oriented respondents said management was making "some" or a "great" attempt to improve the working conditions of Black employees, while only two-fifths (42 percent) of the non-career respondents held this opinion. Also, more than twice as many non-career-oriented respondents as career-oriented respondents felt management was making no attempt to improve working conditions for Black employees. Of those respondents who thought management was making a great attempt to improve conditions for Black employees, 93 percent were career-oriented and only seven percent were non-career-oriented.

In general, respondents tended to believe that work activities were more sensibly organized for white than for Black employees. About two-thirds (66 percent) of respondents felt that work activities were sensibly organized "to some" or "to a great" extent for Black employees, while 81 percent of the same respondents thought they were sensibly organized "to some" or "to a great" extent for white employees. Three times as many respondents (24 percent) indicated work activities were not sensibly organized for Black employees as gave this response for white employees.

The career- and non-career-oriented respondents had statistically different ( $p=.05$ ) views on the organization of work activities for Black employees. Three-fourths of all respondents who indicated work activities were organized "to no extent" were non-career-oriented, while three-fourths of those who thought work activities were sensibly organized "to a great extent" were career-oriented.

- Decision-Making Practices

The ways in which decisions affecting Black employees were made in correctional institutions were measured by determining the involvement of the affected person and his or her accessibility to available and relevant facts.

Nearly three-fourths (71 percent) of the Black employees said they were asked for their ideas on decisions affecting them; persons making decisions concerning Black employees reportedly had access to all available relevant facts only 58 percent of the time. About one-third of all decisions involving Black employees were reportedly made by persons not having access to all available facts.

Specific decision-making practices affecting Black employees and the frequency of their reported occurrence were as follows:

<u>Practice</u>	<u>Percent of Respondents Reporting This Experience</u>
Decisions were announced with no opportunity to raise questions or give comments.	30
Decisions were announced and explained, and an opportunity was then given to ask questions.	28
Decisions were drawn up, but discussed with the Black employee and sometimes modified before being implemented.	22
Problems were presented to the Black employee involved, and the decision felt to be best was adopted by the employee and supervisor jointly.	15
Specific alternatives were drawn up by the supervisor, and the Black employee was then asked to indicate the one he thought was best.	5

The career- and non-career-oriented respondents had significantly ( $p=.03$ ) different opinions on the extent to which information was shared and made accessible to persons making decisions affecting Black employees. Seventy-three percent of all respondents having career interests in corrections felt information was shared and made available "to some extent" or "to a great extent". The column percentages for the career- and non-career-oriented respondents were noticeably different. Thirty percent of the career-oriented and 70 percent of the non-career-oriented respondents felt no information was shared or made available to persons making decisions regarding Black employees.

The data on decision-making practices showed that the most democratic practice (i.e., employee and supervisor jointly adopting what they felt to be the best decision) was used less frequently than practices whereby the employee was not involved in the initial stages of the decision-making process.

- Communication Flow

The quality and quantity of the information Black employees receive about what is going on in other sections and shifts were used as measures of communication flow.

A clear majority (63 percent) of the respondents felt their white co-workers received a larger quantity of information than Black workers, while 27 percent saw no difference in the amount of information received by Black and white employees.

Respondents' opinions on the quantity of information received by white employees were related to their career intentions, and their opinions were found to be different ( $p=.03$ ). Of those respondents who saw no difference in the amount of information received by Black and white employees, 64 percent were career-oriented and 36 percent were non-career-oriented. The group that believed great differences existed in the quantity of information received by Black versus white employees contained 30 percent career-oriented and 70 percent non-career-oriented employees.

- Motivational Conditions

The manner in which differences and disagreements among Black and white employees were handled and the manner



in which respondents described the factors affecting the way Black employees were used as measures of motivational conditions. No clear pattern could be extracted from the data on how differences and disagreements are handled.

The respondents were asked to select a particular description which best portrayed why Black employees worked. More than half (55 percent) described Blacks as working to keep their jobs, make money, seek promotions, and obtain the satisfaction of a job well done. Twenty-six percent of the respondents thought Blacks worked to keep their jobs, to make money and to avoid being chewed out. The other 18 percent of respondents felt that Blacks worked to keep their jobs, make money, seek promotions, do a satisfying job, and meet the expectations of others in their work group.

#### 4. Pay

The importance of pay, including fringe benefits and competitive salaries, was investigated.

##### ● Retirement Benefits

Medical and retirement benefits were important for about 85 percent of the respondents. Not surprisingly, respondents intending or not intending to make corrections their lifetime career were significantly ( $p=.015$ ) different in their feelings about the importance of retirement benefits. All career-oriented respondents and 70 percent of the non-career-oriented respondents indicated retirement benefits were important to them.

##### ● Competitive Salary

A chance for increased salary was important to more than 90 percent of the respondents. The data showed that equal proportions (44 percent each) of the respondents agreed and disagreed as to whether their pay was comparable to what they would receive on other jobs they felt qualified to hold. Uncertainty on the comparability of pay issue was reflected by 13 percent.

#### 5. Variety in Job Assignments

Variety in job assignments was considered important by 84 percent of the respondents, while slightly more than half

(57 percent) disagreed with the statement that they had not been able to change job assignments as frequently as was desired. However, there were significant ( $p=.015$ ) differences between career- and non-career-oriented respondents in the frequency with which changes were desired in job assignments. About three-fourths (77 percent) of the career-oriented respondents indicated their job assignment had been changed as often as they would have liked, while slightly less than half (48 percent) of the non-career-oriented respondents felt this way. Of those respondents who had not changed their job assignments as frequently as they would have liked, 28 percent were career-oriented and 72 percent were non-career-oriented.

Respondents working in prisons with large or small Black employee populations were significantly ( $p=.046$ ) different in the frequency of desired changes in job assignments. Seventy percent of all respondents working in prisons with high percentages of Black employees were satisfied with the frequency with which they were able to change job assignments, as compared with 48 percent of the respondents from prisons with low percentages of Black employees. Of a total of 31 respondents who were not satisfied with the frequency of changes in job assignments, 27 were from prisons with large Black employee populations, and four were from prisons with small Black employee populations.

6. Advancement and Career Orientation Opportunities

A total of 50 percent of the respondents were satisfied with their chances for advancement, and the other 50 percent were undecided or dissatisfied. Only 30 percent of the respondents believed their present job offered them a better chance for advancement than would other jobs they felt qualified to hold. Almost half (48 percent) felt their chances for advancement would be better elsewhere, and 22 percent were undecided.

Almost all (93 percent) of the respondents indicated that a chance for additional training and education was an important vocational goal or aspiration; 85 percent believed this could be achieved in a correctional institution. Yet, only half of all officers interviewed thought their present job assignment offered them a chance to acquire the training/education needed for advancement to better paying positions. One-third (32 percent) felt their present position did not offer them this chance. The remaining 18 percent were undecided. On the other hand, 78 percent of all respondents felt the skills they acquired on their present jobs would be valuable in other employment situations.

Considering the fact that only a small percentage of the respondents reported that they had visited a job career counselor and the printed materials on careers in corrections apparently were not very effective in influencing them to plan

careers in corrections, it was not surprising that only 36 percent of the respondents felt that career opportunities were better in corrections than elsewhere, whereas 42 percent felt career opportunities were better on other jobs.

Promotion ambitions were examined in terms of respondent interest in supervisory job opportunities. A chance to be a leader or supervisor, or to attain a position of authority, was important to more than 80 percent of the respondents. As previously stated, minorities are grossly under-represented in top or middle-management level positions in corrections.

7. Retention Incentives

An effort was made to determine the effect which certain changes in the job situation would have on the respondents' interest in working in corrections. The suggested changes included a cash bonus, pay and benefits comparable to other similar jobs, retirement benefits, educational leave with pay, choice of work shift, and a change in job classification after one year of employment.

A cash bonus for each five-year period of seniority would favorably affect the interest in working in corrections of 72 percent of the respondents. An annual bonus of up to ten percent of the employee's base pay would produce a "favorable" change in interest for 75 percent of the respondents, and have a negative effect on 11 percent.

Pay and benefits made comparable to similar jobs in the private sector would have a positive effect on the career interest of 80 percent of the respondents. Additional benefits such as two weeks of educational leave with pay each year and retirement with three-fourths pay after 25 years of service were endorsed by 94 and 86 percent of the respondents, respectively.

A guaranteed choice of work shift, provided there was an opening, for the first three years of employment would positively affect the career interest of 75 percent of the respondents, and a change in job classification after one year of employment was supported by 72 of the respondents.

8. Tests

Cultural and racial biases have been found in some tests used to evaluate Blacks and other minority candidates for employment and/or job promotions. The possible existence of test biases in the recruitment, selection, and promotional practices and procedures in corrections were investigated by analyzing the respondents' opinions related to written examinations, oral examinations, job performance reports, eligibility requirements for promotions, and educational requirements. These variables were viewed as key components of the testing and selection procedures in hiring and promotions.

Figure 12 shows that a majority of the respondents thought the written and oral parts of the selection examinations were

FIGURE 12

RESPONDENTS' VIEWS ON ASPECTS OF THE SELECTION AND PROMOTION EXAMINATIONS AND REQUIREMENTS

I. Selection Process:

- Written Examination
- Oral Examination
- Educational Requirements

II. Promotional Process:

- Job Performance Evaluations
- Eligibility Requirements
- Written Examination
- Oral Examination

	Unfair	Fair	Not Applicable	Total
Written Examination	17	65	18	100
Oral Examination	24	61	15	100
Educational Requirements	10	86	4	100
Job Performance Evaluations	26	64	10	100
Eligibility Requirements	23	51	26	100
Written Examination	13	49	38	100
Oral Examination	22	43	35	100

fair, although a significant majority (24 percent) believed the oral examination was unfair. The table also shows that 86 percent of the respondents believed the educational requirements were fair.

According to the survey data, 49 of the non-correctional respondents have taken promotional examinations at their present place of employment. Of those who took the examinations, 16 were promoted. Those who were not promoted had either low scores or were put on a promotion's waiting list.

The overall percentage of respondents who thought the three components of the selection process were fair is somewhat higher than the percentage who thought the promotions procedures were fair. Job performance evaluation reports were rated as being fair by 64 percent, eligibility requirements for taking promotional examinations were considered fair by 51 percent, written parts of the promotional examinations were considered fair by 49 percent, and the oral part of the promotional examination was rated fair by 43 percent of respondents. Only one selection procedure -- the oral examination -- was considered unfair by more than 20 percent of respondents, while three promotional procedures -- all but the written examination -- were judged unfair by more than 20 percent of respondents.

#### 9. Career Information and Materials

Correctional employees need information to help them

evaluate their abilities and interests in order to effectively plan, prepare for and adjust to a satisfactory field of work, and to build suitable steps in their careers beyond the entry level. The achievement of these and other vocational goals and objectives is greatly facilitated by the availability and accessibility of job information and/or a job career counselor. The latter two sources can keep the employee apprised of promotion and reassignment opportunities, and the education/training required to take advantage of them.

#### ● Job Career Counselor

A comparatively small number (18) of the respondents reported access to a job career counselor. Of those who had such access, almost half (8) actually met with the counselor. Four just dropped in to see the counselor, the counselor set up two appointments, and two respondents set up their own appointments. The respondents visited the counselor to get information about a specific job, promotions, or reassignment possibilities, or specific information about an unsatisfactory work report. The counselor helped three respondents a lot, four a little, and one not at all.

#### ● Published Materials

Only 28 percent of respondents reported that they received printed materials which influenced them to plan careers in corrections. Respondents in prisons with a small number of Black employee populations perceived the effect of published materials on planning careers in corrections significantly ( $p=.008$ ) differently from those from prisons with high Black employee populations. While 42 percent of all respondents from prisons with high Black employee populations reported that published materials influenced them to plan a career in corrections, only 15 percent of all respondents from prisons with low Black employee populations reported likewise.

D. RELATIONS WITH INMATES

A rationale advanced by those who advocate increased hiring of Blacks and other minorities at all levels in corrections is that ethnic and cultural similarities among employees and the inmates could play a significant role in the rehabilitative process. To determine the importance of this issue in relation to the recruitment and retention of minority employees, respondents were asked to rate the relationship between Black employees and Black inmates. The scale categories and percentages of responses in each were as follows:

<u>Relationship</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Excellent	18
Good	62
Fair	18
Poor	2
Total	100

These figures show that 80 percent of the respondents rated the relationship between the two groups as good or excellent, and only 20 percent characterized the relationship as fair or poor. Respondents who felt the relationship was fair or poor suggested that it could be improved by hiring better educated officers, hiring younger officers, placing more Blacks in supervisory positions, having Black employees show interest in Black inmates, providing more communication between the two groups, and hiring more Black employees.

Respondents from prisons with small Black employee populations were three times more likely than those from prisons with large populations to rate the relationship between Black employees and Black inmates as excellent or good. The difference between the two groups on this question was significant ( $p=.001$ ).

#### E. BARRIERS TO RECRUITMENT

Viable and credible systems designed to attract and retain specific segments of the labor force must identify, eliminate, and/or compensate for any impediments to achieving stated goals and objectives. Thus, Black non-correctional officers were asked to identify what they saw as barriers to recruiting minority group members.

A large majority (80 percent) of the respondents felt that barriers to the recruitment of minority group members existed. The following barriers were identified (They are listed in descending order of frequency.): racism, educational standards, geographical location, physical risks to safety and health of the employee, stigma attached to prisons. Other reasons indicated less often were the absence of sizeable Black communities and inadequate housing in nearby communities. Moreover, 85 percent of the respondents indicated that their place of employment had no program to help Black employees find housing in nearby communities.

The respondents felt prisons used a quota system to determine the number of Blacks that would be hired. In the opinion of 76 percent of the respondents, a quota system limiting the number of Blacks hired is utilized in correctional institutions; they responded "yes" to the question: Do you think your institution will employ only a certain number of Blacks?

Respondents from prisons where there was a "low" number of Black employees felt racial discrimination in hiring was the major reason for the small number. Other reasons less frequently mentioned were: harrassment by whites, geographical location of the prisons, undesirable working conditions, Blacks unaware of job opportunities at prison, and Blacks not wanting to come to the prisons to work. About two-thirds (68 percent) of the respondents described the number of Blacks employed at their location as "high". The major reasons cited for reported high numbers of Black employees were outside pressures, court actions, federal requirements, and attempts to achieve a racial balance.

F. JOB SATISFACTION

The probability of increasing job retention rates is greatly enhanced if employees are satisfied with the work itself, pay, promotion prospects, supervisors, and co-workers. The extent to which the respondents were satisfied with their jobs was investigated by analyzing their responses to a three-point Likert scale. The factors used in determining job satisfaction were (1) co-workers' esteem, (2) employer policies and practices, (3) job security, (4) working conditions, (5) cooperation among co-workers, (6) chance for advancement, (7) pay, (8) job responsibilities, (9) superior/subordinate relations, and (10) praise. Respondents were requested to indicate the extent of their satisfaction with each of the above job factors; factors and percentages of satisfaction are displayed in Figure 13.

This table shows that the percentage of dissatisfaction among the respondents ranged from 4 to 49 percent. High percentages of dissatisfaction were found concerning pay, employer policies and practices, working conditions, chances for advancement, and superior/subordinate relations. Almost half (49 percent) of the respondents were dissatisfied with pay, and 61 percent indicated they would quit their corrections jobs if a better paying job were found. Employer practices and policies related to Black employees had the second highest

FIGURE 13

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF JOB SATISFACTION

Factors:

- Co-Workers' Esteem
- Employee Policies and Practices:
  - a. Employees
  - b. Dismissals and Transfers
  - c. Overtime
- Job Security
- Working Conditions
- Superior/Subordinate Relations:
  - a. Understanding
  - b. Personnel Management
- Cooperation among Co-Workers
- Chances for Advancement
- Pay
- Job Responsibilities
- Praise

	Dis- Satisfied	Undecided	Satisfied
Co-Workers' Esteem	4	11	85
Employee Policies and Practices:			
a. Employees	45	26	29
b. Dismissals and Transfers	31	40	29
c. Overtime	26	22	52
Job Security	12	12	76
Working Conditions	39	12	49
Superior/Subordinate Relations:			
a. Understanding	18	12	70
b. Personnel Management	23	15	62
Cooperation among Co-Workers	25	15	60
Chances for Advancement	32	18	50
Pay	49	11	40
Job Responsibilities	16	6	78
Praise	25	17	58

proportion (45 percent) of "dissatisfied" responses. The third highest number of "dissatisfied" responses was related to working conditions, with 39 percent of the sample expressing dissatisfaction. On the other hand, working hours were one of three things respondents liked most about their jobs.

About a third of the respondents were dissatisfied with their chances for advancement. A majority (51 percent) of the respondents felt their chances for promotion were less than those of their white co-workers, while only 14 percent believed their chances were greater than those of white workers, and 36 percent felt their chances were equal.

Dissatisfaction with other work factors was expressed by one-quarter or fewer respondents.

Satisfaction with job-related factors ranged from 29 to 85 percent. Job factors with which 70 percent or more of the respondents were satisfied were: co-workers' esteem, superior/subordinate relations, (i.e., understanding between supervisor and employee), job security, and job responsibility.

More respondents (85 percent) were satisfied with co-workers' esteem than with any other factor. The factor which received the second largest number (78 percent) of satisfied response was related to feelings about responsibilities associated with the job; job responsibility was a much liked aspect of working in corrections. Three-fourths of the respondents were satisfied with job security, and 70 percent were

satisfied with the understanding reflected in superior/subordinate relations.

Respondents were most likely to be undecided about the following job factors: (1) handling of dismissals and transfers (40 percent undecided), (2) policies and practices affecting employees (26 percent), (3) overtime policies (22 percent), and (4) chances for advancement (18 percent).

Looking at the nature of the job dissatisfaction, the percentage of employees holding academic/professional degrees, and the factors disliked most about working in corrections, it is perhaps not surprising that less than half (44 percent) of the respondents considered corrections a lifetime career. The 56 percent who didn't regard corrections as a lifetime career were asked to state under what circumstances they would change their minds. Their responses were as follows:

- Changes in the administrative policies and practices so that many of the procedures which are believed to be racially inspired would be eliminated;
- The implementation of employment and promotional systems which will provide equality of opportunity for all workers;
- Improved salary scales.

Some respondents (five percent) reported that they would not consider a career in corrections under any circumstances.

While 67 percent of the respondents felt their jobs would continue to meet their expectations, 33 percent did not think so for the following reasons: (1) over-qualification for the



job, (2) poor advancement opportunities, (3) occupational goals that do not coincide with job, (4) budgetary cuts, (5) present job does not provide desired skills, and (6) racism. There were significant ( $p=.001$ ) differences in the responses of career- and non-career-oriented respondents; 84 percent of all career-oriented and only 51 percent of all non-career-oriented respondents thought their jobs would continue to meet their expectations.

Numerous claims of racism and discrimination in corrections were made, and respondents felt that little action was taken against supervisors or administrators who discriminate. Only eight percent of the respondents reported being aware of any type of disciplinary action taken against supervisors or administrators who violated equal employment opportunity laws.

Respondents were asked to indicate the kind of work they would like to be doing one year from now. Approximately half (54 percent) of the respondents indicated a preference for the same kind of work they were doing at the time of the survey; 38 percent preferred to be doing different work. Two-thirds (67 percent) of those who preferred different work believed their chances of getting it were "good", and 33 percent believed their chances were "fair" to "poor" because of their race, age, and "other" (e.g., job specifications) factors.

When asked to identify the advantage and disadvantages of a Blacks pursuing a career in corrections, the respondents

gave the following:

● Advantages

- .. An opportunity to help other Blacks;
- .. A steady and secure income and a chance for promotions;
- .. A chance to increase one's social prestige and status in the community;
- .. The gaining of skills which might be helpful in other job situations.

● Disadvantages

- .. Racism;
- .. A few hostile Black inmates and white officers;
- .. Health and safety hazards.

### G. MEDIA EXPOSURE

Media exposure was investigated as a recruitment and retention variable in order to identify and describe the mass media (i.e., printed and audio-visual) preferences of non-correctional officers. This was expected to provide essential background data needed in designing a recruitment model. Data were collected on types of materials the respondents most frequently read, radio programs most often listened to, and favorite television programs.

Locally distributed newspapers were more frequently read than other types of reading materials, such as books, magazines, journals, etc. A large majority (84 percent) of the respondents read the entire paper "almost every day"; others read only the editorials, sports, front page, local news, business sections, or crime section. Fewer than ten percent of the respondents read the newspaper less than once a week.

Two variables, career orientation and frequency of reading the newspaper, were cross-tabulated. Significant ( $p=.031$ ) differences were found in newspaper-reading habits; 95 percent of all career-oriented respondents and 76 percent of the non-career-oriented respondents read the newspaper "almost every day."

The television viewing preferences of the respondents were determined by asking them to list three of their favorite

programs. The specific programs listed were classified and placed into generic categories, and the next step was to tabulate the number of programs in each category. The categories of television programs most often watched, in rank order from highest to lowest, were: Black news, sports, comedy serials, crime serials, and full length feature movies. Only two percent of the respondents did not watch television.

All but ten percent of the respondents listened to the radio on a daily basis; just three percent did not listen at all. Popular music (rock, pop, rhythm and blues, etc.) programs were more frequently listened to than other types of programs; 44 percent of the respondents claimed these types of radio programs as their favorites. News and general music were tied for second place, each having percentage points.

Respondents were asked whether they read the bulletin board at their jobs; 43 percent reported they did. Twenty-four percent of the respondents read job bulletin boards several times a week, and 26 percent read it once a week or less. A few (four percent of) respondents indicated there were no bulletin boards in their units, and five percent reported they did not read bulletin boards at all. When visually scanning a bulletin board, more than four-fifths (86 percent) of the respondents were searching for information pertaining to job promotion or educational opportunities. Just four percent did not look for any specific kind of information.

The frequency with which career and non-career-oriented respondents read bulletin boards was significantly ( $p=.038$ ) different. More than half (57 percent) of the career-oriented, as compared with 38 percent of the non-career-oriented, respondents read bulletin boards "about every day." However, of those respondents who read bulletin boards "several times a week," 39 percent were career-oriented and 61 percent were non-career-oriented respondents.

Locally distributed newspapers, popular music, radio, and television programs providing news about Blacks thus appear to be the forms of mass media preferred by non-correctional officers.

## H. SUMMARY

### 1. Demographic Data

Data were obtained from 117 correctional personnel other than correctional officers in seven state-operated prisons. The average Black non-correctional officer was a male, 32 years old, married, with two dependents, was a college graduate, had a total family income of \$14,000 - \$17,000, and lived in a middle-sized city (25,000 - 100,000 people).

### 2. Employment and Working Environment

More non-correctional officers found out about employment opportunities in corrections from friends or relatives than from any other source. After having filed a job application and waiting an average of three weeks, the "typical" applicant received notice of his selection.

The majority (52 percent) of the non-correctional officers were already working full-time or part-time when they accepted a job in corrections, but 30 percent were unemployed. Little or no difficulty was experienced by 76 percent of the respondents in getting their present job. Three-fourths (76 percent) of respondents had no more than four years of tenure; 94 percent were employed full-time. Forty-four percent of respondents expected to make corrections a career.

In general, respondents reported some dissatisfaction with the physical job environment -- their working areas were often

considered too hot or too cold. Work areas were usually well lighted but often did not offer adequate work place.

Working in corrections was described by a majority (53 percent) of the respondents as routine, repetitive, and hazardous. Those undesirable qualities were perhaps partially compensated for by the interest and challenge. 76 percent found in their work.

### 3. Management Methods

#### ● Supervisory Leadership

The respondents were almost unanimous (95 percent) in their assessment of their immediate supervisors as not only listening to what the employees said, but also friendly and easy to approach. Non-correctional officers felt their supervisors required high job performance standards (92 percent), encouraged Black and white employees to use a team approach to work efforts (65 percent), and offered new ideas for solving job-related problems (74 percent).

Respondents who intended to make corrections their lifetime career were more likely to say their supervisors offered new ideas for solving job-related problems than were respondents who were not career-oriented.

The non-correctional officers felt their supervisors could better supervise Black employees if they had additional management skills, showed more interest and concern for the Blacks they supervised, changed some of their personal attitudes, and had more information about Blacks.

#### ● Peer Support

Most respondents had positive feelings about relations with their white co-workers: they felt co-workers friendly and easy to approach (91 percent); planned and coordinated work efforts with Blacks in the work group (86 percent); offered new ideas for solving job-related problems (71 percent); assisted Blacks in

planning, organizing, and scheduling work ahead of time (73 percent); and emphasized work group team goals (67 percent).

#### ● Organizational Climate

Management was perceived to have a much greater interest in the welfare and happiness and working conditions of white than Black employees, and some dissatisfaction was expressed about other organizational actions. For example:

- A majority (63 percent of the respondents) believed their white co-workers were given more information about events, activities, and job opportunities on other shifts or in other sections of the prisons.
- Differences and disagreements among Black and white employees were considered as likely to be avoided, denied, and suppressed as to be accepted and worked through.
- While 71 percent of non-correctional officers reported input into decisions made about them, decision-makers reportedly lacked some relevant facts 42 percent of the time.

#### ● Occupational Goals and Aspirations

On the whole, 85 percent of the non-correctional officers considered medical and retirement benefits, variety in job assignments, a chance for increased pay, and an opportunity for more education and training to be important job-related issues. More than half (57 percent) of the officers believed their pay was comparable to that for jobs outside correctional facilities for which they felt qualified. Sixty percent felt that their present job provided the opportunity for the additional education and training needs for a better paying job.

#### ● Retention Incentives

The respondents speculated on the effects certain incentives would have on their interest in working in corrections. A cash bonus for each five-year period of seniority, pay and benefits comparable to that of similar employees in the private sector, retirement with three-fourths pay after 25 years of service, two weeks

of paid annual educational leave, choice of work shifts, change of job classification after one year, and an annual bonus of ten percent of base pay for outstanding job performance would favorably affect the working interest of 65 to 91 percent of the respondents.

- Selection and Promotion Tests

A very large majority of respondents felt the written test (65 percent) and the educational requirements (86 percent) used for selection of non-correctional officer jobs were fair to Blacks. About one-quarter (24 percent) said the oral examination was unfair to Blacks, and 61 percent said it was fair. Promotion examinations were seen as less fair; although a majority of the respondents (64 percent) rated the job evaluation reports completed by supervisors to be fair, 26 percent said the reports were not fair. Only about half the respondents (51 percent) felt the eligibility requirements in promotion were fair, and less than half viewed the written part of the promotion examination (49 percent) and the oral part of the promotion examination (43 percent) as fair to Blacks.

- Job Counseling

Few non-correctional officers reported access to a job counselor. Only 18 of 117 reported access to a counselor at their place of work, and only eight had actually met with the counselor. Visits were made by the eight to get information on a particular job, promotion information, or advice on an unsatisfactory job report.

- Barriers to Recruitment

The officers identified a number of problems in recruiting Blacks, including: racism, quota hiring, unrealistic educational standards, location of prisons, health and safety hazards, the negative image corrections has among minorities, inadequate dissemination of information about prison job opportunities, absence of a significant number of Blacks in policy-making positions, and difficulty of getting housing accommodations.

#### 4. Career Orientation

Respondents felt there were advantages and disadvantages

for Blacks in pursuing a career in corrections.

The advantages were:

- An opportunity to help other Blacks;
- A steady and secure income;
- A chance for promotions;
- A possible increase in social prestige and status; and

The disadvantages were:

- Racism;
- Hostile Black inmates and white officers;
- Health and safety hazards;
- Bad job assignments; and
- Little chance to work into a position of authority.

Less than half (44 percent) of the survey respondents had committed themselves to a career in corrections. Most of those who had not made career commitments would reconsider their position if administrative policies and practices which support racial discrimination were eliminated, if each employee was given an equal chance for promotions, and if the pay scale was improved.

#### 5. Job Satisfaction

Most non-correctional officers (67 percent) felt their jobs would continue to meet their expectations, but 33 percent did not, for the following reasons: over qualification, little chance for advancement, occupational goals which do not coincide with current job, budgetary cuts, and racism. Career-oriented officers were more likely to believe their jobs would continue to meet their expectations than were non-career-oriented officers.

High percentages of dissatisfaction were expressed over pay and employer practices and policies. High rates of satisfaction were expressed with co-workers' esteem, superior-subordinate relations, and job responsibilities.

6. Media Exposure

The officers were well exposed to mass media. More than four-fifths (84 percent) of the respondents read local newspapers almost every day. Almost all (97 percent) of the officers listened daily to radio stations which played Black music (i.e., soul, rhythm and blues, rock, etc.). Television was not watched as frequently; the most popular television program were those covering Black news.

A little more than two-fifths (44 percent) of the respondents reported they read bulletin boards at work. When reading, most looked for information on job promotions and educational opportunities.

SECTION III

COMPARISONS BETWEEN BLACK CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS  
AND OTHER BLACK CORRECTIONAL EMPLOYEES

The previous two sections presented extensive data concerning the characteristics, perceptions, job experiences, and assessments of Black correctional officers and other Black correctional employees. This section briefly compares responses for these two groups.

A. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES

Black "non-correctional officers" -- treatment, administrative, and staff personnel -- differed from correctional ("custodial") officers in their age, marital status, income, and education. The median age for correctional officers was 28, for non-correctional officers, 32. While 59 percent of correctional officers were married, 74 percent of the non-correctional officers were married. The non-correctional officers had a median family income of \$14,000 - \$17,000, as compared with \$8,000 - \$11,000 for correctional officers. This higher income for non-correctional officers may be partially due to their level of training; 73 percent had a post-secondary degree, and 51 percent a Bachelor's, Master's or Doctoral degree -- which only 13 percent of correctional officers had a Bachelor's or higher degree. Moreover, 47 percent of the non-correctional officers were currently taking post-secondary courses of some kind.

Thus the non-correctional officers were a better trained, higher income group than the correctional officers.

## B. EMPLOYMENT AND WORKING ENVIRONMENT

Both correctional and non-correctional employees were likely to have learned about their correctional job through friends or relatives or a public employment agency; 25 percent of correctional officers and 14 percent of non-correctional officers had relatives working in corrections. The large majority of both groups reported little or no difficulty in getting the job; non-correctional officers were less likely to be hired within one week after application, but the majority of both groups were selected within two to three weeks after applying. Less than half of each group were employed full-time at another job when they applied for their corrections position.

Asked about their work environments, both groups expressed some displeasure about the physical environment and both indicated the existence of physical risks or hazards. While a majority of both groups indicated that job tasks were routine and repetitive, this view was shared by 74 percent of the correctional officers but only 53 percent of the non-correctional officers. Moreover, a majority of both groups also felt their jobs were interesting and challenging.

## C. MANAGEMENT METHODS AND PRACTICES

Both groups indicated some serious concerns about some management methods and practices, as well as satisfaction with some procedures. Specifically,

- Both groups gave generally positive responses to questions about their immediate supervisors, indicating that they received supervisory support. A very large majority (95 percent of non-correctional officers and 89 percent of correctional officers), for example, reported that their supervisors were friendly and easy to approach. Supervisors were believed by non-correctional officers to encourage Black and white employees to work as a team; correctional officers were about equally divided on this question. For both groups, career-oriented respondents gave more positive responses than non-career-oriented respondents.
- A majority of both groups -- but a larger majority of non-correctional officers -- felt that supervision could be improved if supervisors had more information about good management and more interest and concern for Blacks whom they supervised. The two groups differed somewhat in other ways in which they felt supervision could be improved.
- Both groups found their white co-workers friendly and easy to approach and otherwise supportive; career-oriented members of both groups were more positive than non-career-oriented respondents.
- Both groups of Blacks felt management had more interest in the welfare and happiness of white employees than in the welfare and happiness of Black employees, with non-career-oriented respondents more negative than those who were career-oriented.
- Non-correctional employees were less likely to report that decisions affecting them were made without their input than were correctional officers; this may reflect the relatively higher job status of most non-correctional officers. Seventy-three



percent of non-correctional officers and 55 percent of correctional officers reported management consulted with them "to some extent" or "to a great extent."

- Almost three-fourths of the non-correctional officers and half the correctional officers felt Black employees worked for reasons other than to keep their jobs, make money, and avoid being "chewed out" -- such as to obtain the satisfaction of a job well done and meet the expectations of others in their work group. Such motivations may be higher for non-correctional than for correctional employees because of the nature of their jobs; many non-correctional officers held relatively highly skilled jobs, which might be expected to yield greater satisfaction than custodial officers' jobs.
- Half of the non-correctional officers felt their chances for advancement were satisfactory, but less than half of the correctional officers shared this view. This may or may not reflect actual differences in promotional opportunities for the two respondent groups. Many members of both groups felt chances for advancement were better on other jobs than they were in corrections, while a significant number in each group were undecided.
- Both groups of respondents indicated that certain changes in pay or other policies would increase their interest in remaining in corrections. More than 90 percent of each group felt two weeks of educational leave with pay each year would positively affect retention; this incentive was favored by a higher proportion of each group than were cash bonuses and increased retirement pay.
- A majority of both groups felt that both the written and oral sections of the selection examinations were fair, and that educational requirements for their jobs were fair. Respondents in each group were more likely to feel that the promotional process was fair than unfair, but significant minorities questioned the fairness of job performance reports by supervisors. These were considered unfair by 42 percent of correctional officers and 26 percent of non-correctional officers. More than four out of ten (42 percent) of the non-correctional officers had taken promotional examinations, as compared with only three out of ten (30 percent) of correctional officers. This may reflect the shorter average tenure of correctional

officers: 72 percent had been on the job two years or less.

- Only 15 percent of non-correctional officers and 12 percent of correctional officers reported access to a career counselor, and a little less than half of these in each group had actually used the services of such a counselor.

The above statistics suggest great similarities in the responses of correctional officers and other Black correctional employees regarding management policies, practices, and issues. Most differences seem explainable by variations in job type and tenure rather than in general attitudes, although the reasons for responses were not investigated statistically.

D. RELATIONS WITH INMATES

Both Black correctional officers and Black non-correctional officers reported generally good relations with Black inmates. A higher proportion of non-correctional officers reported "excellent" or "good" relations; such positive relations were reported by 70 percent of non-correctional officers and 54 percent of correctional officers. The difference may reflect the differing nature of job responsibilities for correctional officers -- who to some degree fill a "police" function -- as opposed to non-correctional officers, who often hold either administrative or staff positions not involving close involvement with inmates, or "treatment" or rehabilitation related jobs.

F. BARRIERS TO RECRUITMENT

The most frequently reported barrier to the recruitment of minority group members for corrections jobs identified by both groups was racism. Both groups believed that racial discrimination in hiring existed, and that many prisons used a "quota system" to limit the number of Blacks hired.

One corollary problem involves housing. Only 11 percent of correctional officers and 15 percent of non-correctional officers reported the existence of programs to help Blacks find nearby housing. Since the geographic location of many prisons is far from large cities or communities with large Black populations, both groups considered this a problem. However, direct discrimination in hiring was considered a more serious problem by most respondents.

## F. JOB SATISFACTION

Very similar types and levels of job satisfaction were found for correctional officers and non-correctional officers. Asked to indicate their satisfaction with ten major job factors, the two groups both indicated their highest level of satisfaction with co-workers' esteem; 85 percent of non-correctional officers and 79 percent of correctional officers expressed satisfaction with this situation. Second highest satisfaction for both groups was with job responsibilities, considered satisfying by 78 percent of non-correctional officers; third was job security, rated satisfying by 76 percent of non-correctional officers and 63 percent of correctional officers. Both groups found understanding between superiors and subordinates to be the fourth most satisfying job factor; it was considered satisfying by 70 percent of non-correctional officers and 58 percent of correctional officers.

There was thus great agreement between the two groups concerning the most satisfying job factors, although a higher percentage of non-correctional officers expressed satisfaction -- and a lower percentage reported dissatisfaction -- about each of these job factors.

Greatest dissatisfaction in both groups was expressed over pay; 54 percent of correctional officers and 49 percent of non-correctional officers were dissatisfied with pay scales.

Second greatest dissatisfaction in both groups was expressed with employee policies and practices regarding Black employees; 50 percent of correctional officers and 45 percent of non-correctional officers were dissatisfied with these management policies. More than 40 percent of correctional officers were also dissatisfied with policies and practices regarding dismissals and transfers (49 percent), working conditions (47 percent), and lack of praise for a job well done (43 percent). Non-correctional officers were dissatisfied with working conditions (39 percent), chances for advancement (32 percent), and policies and practices regarding dismissals and transfers (31 percent). Thus the level of dissatisfaction among correctional officers was generally higher, but in most cases the order of concern for job factors was very similar for the two groups.

Non-correctional officers were somewhat more likely than correctional officers to look upon corrections as a career; 44 percent of non-correctional officers and 37 percent of correctional officers were career-oriented at the time of the survey. Similarly, two-thirds (67 percent) of the non-correctional officers felt their jobs would continue to meet their expectations, as compared with 60 percent of correctional officers. Fifty-four percent of non-correctional officers and 52 percent of correctional officers hoped to be doing the same kind of work in a year's time. Two-thirds (67 percent) of the correctional officers who preferred different work believed their chances of getting the jobs they wanted were "good".

#### G. MEDIA EXPOSURE

Both groups were asked about their mass media exposure.

Responses were similar, but non-correctional officers generally reported higher levels of exposure to newspapers. Specifically:

- 84 percent of non-correctional officers and 66 percent of correctional officers reported reading the newspaper almost every day;
- 90 percent of non-correctional officers and 85 percent of correctional officers reported listening to the radio almost daily, especially to popular music;
- Black news shows were the most popular reported television shows for both groups;
- 55 percent of correctional officers and 43 percent of non-correctional officers reported reading the bulletin board at work every day; non-correctional officers (86 percent) read it to find job promotion or educational opportunities, while correctional officers read it both for general information (42 percent) and for information on job promotions (41 percent).

#### H. SUMMARY

The foregoing comparisons show great similarities in the responses of Black correctional officers and non-correctional officers. The non-correctional officers reflected somewhat higher levels of satisfaction and career orientation, perhaps because they occupied higher-paying jobs and had greater tenure, on the average. However, the two groups exhibited striking similarity in their assessments of many job-related factors and conditions, in spite of their differences in job responsibilities.

SECTION IV  
ADMINISTRATORS

III. ADMINISTRATORS

A survey of 52 prison administrators (i.e., prison officials such as wardens/superintendents and their deputies and assistants, etc.) was conducted to determine their perceptions of the relationship between Black and white correctional officers and inmates. In addition, data were collected on Black employees relative to high turnover rates, steps were being taken to reduce high turnover rates, job retention factors, and barriers to recruitment.

A majority (42) of the administrators described the relationship between Black and white correctional officers as "good" or "excellent". Nine administrators thought the relationship was "fair" and one described it as "poor". A small number of administrators provide a written explanation of their response to this question. An administrator who described the relationship between Black and white officers as good, attributed it to the prison's switch from a trustee to a correctional officer system. Another administrator believed the increased number of Black correctional officers was responsible for the "good" relationship at his facility. Two administrators who reported race relations were poor among correctional officers at their prisons said the belief that Black correctional officers were inferior and the somewhat

negative attitudes of Black officers were thought to be causal factors.

A "good or excellent" relationship exists between Black correctional officers and Black inmates in the opinions of 29 administrators. The criteria on which two of these 29 officials based their opinions were "the absence of serious disciplinary problems" or "no problems" between Black officers and Black inmates.

One-third (17) of the administrators reported the relationship between Black officers and Black inmates at their respective prisons was "fair". Two administrators who rated the relationship as fair stated that the expectations Black inmates have for Black officers are higher than those they have for white officers. Moreover, it was felt that the higher expectations made Black officers more vulnerable to the Black inmates' "brother game".

Two of every three administrators considered the relationship between Black correctional officers and white inmates to be "good or excellent", while one of every four considered the relationship to be "fair". One administrator reported the relationship between Black officers and white inmates was "poor" at his prison.

Figure 14 contrasts the administrators' ratings of the relationship between Black officers and Black inmates and Black officers and white inmates. The data show a larger

FIGURE 14  
ADMINISTRATORS' ASSESSMENT OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BLACK OFFICERS AND BLACK INMATES AND BLACK OFFICERS AND WHITE INMATES

Category	Black Officers and Black Inmates (Frequency)	Black Officers and White Inmates (Frequency)
Excellent	3	2
Good	26	33
Fair	17	12
Poor	2	1
Other	4	4
Total	52	52

number of administrators rated the relationship between Black officers and white inmates as "good" as compared with Black officers and Black inmates. The data show that 33 administrators felt the relationship between Black officers and white inmates was good, while 26 rated the relationship between Black officers and Black inmates as "good".

The administrators' assessment of the relationship between white officers and white inmates was identical to their assessment of the relationship between Black officers and white inmates. For example, two of every three administrators felt the relationship was "good or excellent", one in four felt it was "fair", and one administrator rated it as "poor". However, the administrators' responses to the question concerning white officers relationship with Black inmates were noticeably different. Less than half (25) thought the

relationship was "good or excellent".

The data in Figure 15 show a noticeable difference in the Administrators' opinions of the relationship between white officers and white inmates and white officers and Black inmates.

FIGURE 15

ADMINISTRATORS' ASSESSMENT OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WHITE OFFICERS AND WHITE INMATES AND WHITE OFFICERS AND BLACK INMATES

<u>Category</u>	<u>White Officers and White Inmates (Frequency)</u>	<u>White Officers and Black Inmates (Frequency)</u>
Excellent	3	1
Good	32	24
Fair	13	21
Poor	1	2
Other	4	4
	—	—
Total	52	52

The number of frequencies in the "fair" response category (21) was larger for the relationship between white officers and Black inmates than in the same response category for other relationship combinations between officers and inmates.

The administrators identified the absence of the following factors as being responsible for high attrition rates among Black employees: competitive salary schedules, job security, affirmative action programs, human relations programs, Black job counselors, good working conditions,

good communications, an integrated recruitment team, location near areas where minorities live, Black employee population large enough to give them bargaining power, fairness in dealing with all employees, equal opportunities, opportunities to receive in-service training, variety in job assignment, independence in performing job responsibilities, good attitudes by administrators, promotional opportunities, screening and interviewing at job entry level, fringe benefits, mandate to recruit more Blacks, eight-hour work day, and changes in work shift. It should be noted that many of these were identified by the correctional officers as being important to them.

A content analysis of the administrators' responses to the question of perceived barriers to recruiting minority group members revealed the following:

- Education

The Administrators believed many Blacks did not have the educational background to become correctional officers. This factor was variously cited as "lack of experience", "qualification", or "incompatible" for the job. It was of interest to note a sub-study of this investigation found 20 of 35 ex-correctional employees had completed one year or more of college training at the baccalaureate level.

- Racism

Racial discrimination was cited as a barrier to recruiting minority group members. In some cases, minorities were hired but pressured by supervisors, not given equal opportunities for promotions, and/or given difficult job assignments. This often led to resignation.

- Geographical Location

The Administrators said that many correctional institutions are located in areas away from where minorities live. It was observed that many new construction sites are all but inaccessible to minorities.

- Communication

The Administrators felt communication was a barrier. This clearly demonstrated the need for a more effective information distribution and dissemination procedure. Most Blacks who could probably qualify for a correctional officer's position are not aware of available job opportunities at correctional institutions.

- Salary

The pay scales in five of the seven correctional facilities included in this study were not competitive with similar outside jobs. Where this is the case, Administrators said correctional employees leave when they find better paying jobs.

- Working Conditions

Administrators cited fear, few promotional opportunities, supervisor and inmate harassment as examples of factors which often make for bad working conditions.

- Housing

All but one prison included in this report were located away from areas where minorities live; and only one prison had a program to assist minorities with finding housing accommodations in nearby communities.

- Transportation

The location of most state-operated prisons pose a transportation problem to minorities.

- Negative Perceptions of Corrections

Many of the prison administrators believe some Blacks are concerned about becoming a part of

a system which represses and oppresses persons of their ethnic identity.

- Public Image

The administrators felt corrections was synonymous with law enforcement in the minds of some Blacks, and as such has a social stigma attached to it.

- Recruitment Teams

The administrators felt that public relations personnel or recruitment teams should be integrated in order for corrections to overcome its past image of a "white male's occupation."



SECTION V  
EX-EMPLOYEES

V. EX-EMPLOYEES

This section of the study reports on data collected from 35 ex-employees of the seven correctional institutions previously identified. The survey was conducted to determine why corrections was chosen as an occupation and why the employees left their jobs. Originally, plans were made to include approximately 100 ex-employees in the study. However, the costs incurred in locating and interviewing the ex-employees and the legal problems encountered in obtaining their names and addresses led to a reduced final sample size.

1. Demographic Profile

The sample consisted of 33 Black males and two Black females; their median age was 27 years. Twenty-five of the ex-employees were married, eight were either separated or divorced, and two were widowed. Respondents had an average of three dependents, and modal income was less than \$5,000. This is less than the annual modal income (\$5,000-\$7,999) earned when they were employed in corrections; comparative data are shown in Figure 16. Fourteen ex-employees were currently earning less than \$5,000, as compared with only three who had earned less than \$5,000 when working in corrections. Thus, on the average, ex-employees were making considerably less at present than when employed in corrections -- suggesting that they did not typically leave corrections to take better paying jobs.

Most ex-employees had not worked at the prison very long; 24 had worked in their corrections jobs for less than 12 months, nine had worked from one to two years, and two had worked from three to four years. The modal elapsed time since the ex-employees had left their jobs in corrections was 17 months.

FIGURE 16

COMPARISON BETWEEN EX-EMPLOYEE CURRENT SALARY LEVELS AND SALARY LEVELS WHEN EMPLOYED IN CORRECTIONS

Salary	Current Salary (Number)	Corrections Salary (Number)
Less than \$5,000	14	3
\$5,000 - \$7,999	8	20
\$8,000 - \$10,999	7	10
\$11,000 - \$13,999	2	2
No Response	4	-
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>35</b>

More than half (23) of the ex-employees had completed at least one year of college education at the baccalaureate level. The current employment status of these 23 respondents was extremely varied: four were in law enforcement (i.e., city/county police), one was self-employed, one was employed in a university maintenance department, two were students, one was a counselor of alcoholics, one was receiving on-the-job training as a mechanic helper, two were construction workers, one was a

hospital technician, one was a factory worker, six were unemployed, two were teachers, and the job status of the last was not reported. Four of these 23 ex-employees had completed their baccalaureate training, three had completed three years of college, ten had completed two years of college, and three had completed one year of college. The rest did not indicate their highest level of educational attainment. All but one of the remaining 12 ex-employees had attended and/or completed high school. Of this number, two were unemployed, and the rest were employed as janitors, laborers, construction workers, handymen, plumbers, or building contractors.

2. Employment Experiences and Attitudes

The average distance traveled to and from work on a daily basis was 52 miles when the respondents worked in corrections; at present it was considerably less -- 18 miles.

All but four ex-employees reported they had liked their jobs in corrections. The three most frequently indicated advantages of corrections work were the salary, relationship with and opportunity to help inmates, and working hours. However, working hours were also frequently disliked, in prisons where the 12-hour, six-day work week was standard. Other aspects of corrections work liked most were co-workers' esteem, benefits, job requirements, experience obtained in observing the organization and administration of a correctional institution, and prestige of being a correctional officer.

Racism (prejudice/discrimination) was the single most dis-

liked aspect of correctional work. Racism was reported in the hostile attitudes of some whites in supervisory positions, (e.g., one ex-employee felt Black employees were more closely watched than inmates), in the treatment of Black employees in general, in the lack of promotions and the absence of Blacks in better paying positions, and in the attitudes of ranked officials toward Blacks.

Working conditions were another often disliked aspect of corrections work. A high percentage of the ex-employees complained about the following: lack of rotating work shifts, the long work week, lack of variety in job assignments, absence of guidelines and job descriptions, and poor discipline. Protests were also expressed about the treatment of inmates. One ex-employee complained that very few, if any, serious attempts were made to rehabilitate inmates. Moreover, inmates who expressed dissatisfaction with rehabilitation efforts or treatment (e.g., favoritism shown to inmates of wealthy families) were labeled "trouble-makers."

In some cases, the ex-employees felt prison officials made no attempt to cooperate with Black employees. Other facets of correctional work disliked most by the respondents were low salary, promotions based on "who you know," having to hold a gun on people, amount of time off, distance traveled getting to and from work, operations characterizing some prisons, and the inmates.

Eight employees apparently left their jobs involuntarily --

six employees were fired, one was laid off, and one claimed to have been "framed." The others left their jobs voluntarily, and reported they would not have left if the correctional institution had been different in one or more of the following ways: had equal employment and promotional opportunities for all employees, revised the rules and regulations regarding the relationship between employees and inmates, increased salary scales, rotated work shifts, provided in-service training, had shorter working hours, devised a retirement plan, implemented a rehabilitation program for inmates, and had staff with more sensitive attitudes toward Blacks.

### 3. Working Environment

Asked about the physical and social working environment, the ex-employees reported inadequate work space, job tasks that were routine and repetitive but also interesting and challenging, and imminent physical risks or hazards. In addition, white co-workers were more often reported uncooperative (by 16 respondents) than cooperative (by 13 respondents). Well-lighted work areas constituted the only positive physical attribute of the working environment.

### 4. Supervisory Support

Most (30) ex-employees felt their supervisors were friendly and easy to approach, but many (26) did not feel they encouraged Black and white employees to work as a team. However, this did not affect the friendliness Black and white employees displayed toward one another; 28 of 33 respondents

reported white employees in their work groups were friendly and easy to approach.

5. Organizational Climate

Ex-employees felt that the management of correctional institutions where the ex-employees were employed were more concerned with the welfare and happiness and working conditions of white employees than Black employees. However, management personnel were reportedly slightly less concerned about having sensibly organized work activities for whites than they were for Blacks.

6. Decision-Making Practices

A narrow majority (18) of the ex-employees indicated that Black employees were asked for their ideas on decisions affecting them, but an almost equal number (15) reported Blacks were not involved in the making of decisions affecting them at all. They felt decisions affecting Black ex-employees were usually: (1) announced with no opportunity to raise questions or give comments; (2) drawn up, discussed with the ex-employee and sometimes modified before being issued; or (3) announced and explained and an opportunity given to ask questions. These approaches were used rather than permitting the ex-employee to select from a set of alternatives drawn up either by supervisor only or by the employee and supervisor jointly.

Ex-employees felt that differences between them and whites were not handled well. Differences tended to be avoided, suppressed, or denied, rather than accepted and worked through.

7. Communications Flow

A flow of information about what is happening on other shifts in terms of promotional opportunities, shift changes, educational opportunities, etc., is important to create a well-informed group of employees. Twenty-two of 35 ex-employees agreed "to some extent" or "to a great extent" that the amount of information they received about events and activities on other shifts was adequate. However, a significant number (13) of the respondents were not satisfied with the information they received about what was going on in other sections or shifts.

8. Job Satisfaction

The respondents reported being both satisfied and dissatisfied with specific aspects of their jobs while employed in corrections, but the majority (22) said they had been satisfied with the overall job. Specifically, more than half of the 35 ex-employees were satisfied with supervisors, work groups, progress made prior to departure, pay, the chance to have other workers look to them for direction, the understanding between them and their immediate supervisor, job security, cooperation among co-workers, and responsibility connected with job. A majority of the ex-employees were satisfied with their salary and supervisors, but significant proportions were not. In contrast, a majority of the ex-employees were dissatisfied with the way dismissals and transfers were handled by their superiors, the way superiors handled

subordinates, and various policies and procedures affecting employees. Equal proportions were satisfied and dissatisfied with the recognition/praise received for good job performance and the way overtime was assigned. The largest amount of uncertainty about the various facets of corrections work was reflected in the ex-employees' feelings about the way superiors handled subordinates. Fifteen respondents indicated that they were "undecided" on this aspect of their former job in corrections.

9. Job Retention

When they first started to work in corrections, 22 to 31 of the ex-employees considered the following factors to be "important" or "very important": (1) corrections offered a sure way of getting a job when they were having trouble getting one; (2) it gave them an opportunity to help rehabilitate inmates; (3) they felt they possessed a special talent for a job in corrections; and (4) they felt they had a chance to work their way to a position of authority.

Very high proportions of ex-employees (from 23 to 32) agreed with the importance of a list of seven factors associated with job retention, which are shown in Figure 17. In addition, the ex-employees felt that the seven factors presented in Figure 17 could be achieved in a correctional setting.

10. Recruitment and Promotion Biases and Problems

Ex-employees considered the oral and written examinations used in determining suitability for employment in corrections

FIGURE 17

JOB RETENTION FACTORS WHICH WERE IMPORTANT TO EX-EMPLOYEES

Factors:

- Increased Salary
- Additional Training and Education
- Increase in Rank
- Retirement Benefits
- Steady, Secure Job and Income
- Variety in Work Assignments
- Medical Benefits

	Not Important	Important	Can Be Achieved In A Correctional Institution	Cannot Be Achieved In A Correctional Institution
Increased Salary	3	32	23*	8
Additional Training and Education	4	31	31*	3
Increase in Rank	11	23	31	4
Retirement Benefits	3	32	30	5
Steady, Secure Job and Income	3	32	30	5
Variety in Work Assignments	5	30	30	5
Medical Benefits	5	30	32	3

\*Some rows do not add up to 35 because everyone did not respond.

to be fair to Black applicants. The educational requirements were also considered to be fair by 24 ex-employees; ten stated that they were unfair.

Ex-employees were asked to rate the extent to which they felt job promotions procedures were fair to Blacks. Only one of four components, the job performance evaluation filled out by supervisors, was rated as fair to Blacks by a majority of the respondents. Eligibility requirements for taking promotions examinations were felt to be fair by 13 and unfair by 13. The oral and written parts were considered to be fair by 9 and 13 respondents, respectively. Fourteen respondents thought the oral part of the promotions examination was unfair, and 12 believed the written part was unfair.

As already indicated, most (27) ex-employees left corrections voluntarily. They did so for a variety of reasons, including bad working conditions, got a better job elsewhere, or moved out of the state. The most frequently cited adverse working condition was the 12-hour work day without "comparable" pay. One reported case involved an employee who a two-week leave of absence. When he returned to work, he had been replaced by a white employee. He was told that he could continue working at the prison if he agreed to work an extra day each week and accept a cut in pay. The employee declined, and requested a meeting with the superintendent; the interview was denied. Other working conditions given as reasons for leaving corrections were "intolerable attitudes of superior

officers", poor treatment of Black personnel, refusal of wardens or superintendents to grant employees grievance hearings, and being too nice to inmates.

Six employees were fired, all but one of them for sleeping on duty. These five employees also complained about the difficulty of staying awake on the job during a 12-hour, six-day work week.

The retention rates among Black correctional officers in some prisons were found to be very low. These ex-employees suggested that retention rates could be greatly increased by:

- (1) eliminating racist practices and disciplinary actions;
- (2) promoting qualified Blacks to positions of authority (e.g., senior supervisory positions, policy-making positions, administrative positions such as captain, lieutenant, sergeant);
- (3) making salaries competitive;
- (4) implementing credible and viable affirmative action programs;
- (5) being fair in handling employee grievances;
- (6) providing equal opportunity for in-service training and education;
- (7) having uniform educational requirements for all employees holding similar jobs; and
- (8) eliminating practices of "setting up" Blacks to get fired.

The ex-employees were asked what could be done to recruit more Blacks in correctional settings. They suggested the following: (1) where the 12-hour work day exists, reduce it to eight hours per day; (2) eliminate racially discriminatory practices and procedures; (3) implement programs for distributing job information in Black communities; (4) explain

all facets of working in corrections to applicants; (5) keep promises made during recruitment; (6) promote Blacks to positions as wardens and superintendents; (7) implement human relations programs; and (8) have a fair system for dealing with employee problems. The major barriers to recruiting Blacks were felt to be salary, nature of job, location, promotions, racism, housing, and poor organization and administration.

Thirty-two of 35 ex-employees felt there was a definite need to increase the number of Blacks employed in corrections. The specific positions and areas suggested to be in need of more Black employees were custodial officers, treatment officers, parole officers, counselors, personnel officers, wardens, superintendents, business offices, cellblocks, towers, doctors and senior officers (i.e., rank of sergeant and above).

SECTION VI  
INMATES

### III. INMATES

A randomly selected sample of 128 inmates at the previously identified correctional institutions were interviewed to:

(1) assess their attitudes and perceptions on the major problems confronting Black correctional personnel; (2) identify factors which they believed contribute to high turnover rates where they exist; (3) determine the relationship between Black correctional officers and Black inmates; (4) determine the extent of need for a larger proportion of Black correctional officers; and (5) identify inmate perspectives on problems associated with the recruitment and retention of Black correctional personnel.

The inmates felt Black correctional employees working in state-operated prisons were confronted with an unusually large number of job-related problems. The most frequently mentioned problems were:

- Administrative policies and procedures as applied to Black employees;
- Racism in job assignments, promotions, salary, and equal opportunity for better paying jobs;
- Lack of authority;
- Exclusion from participation in administrative decision-making;
- Harrassment from a small number of Black inmates and white co-workers;
- Manipulation by officers of higher rank;
- Fear;
- Absence of adequate means for expressing job-related concerns;

- Inadequate orientation and training by the correctional institutions;
- Role conflict associated with being part of a system which oppresses Black people and metes out unequal opportunities.

These problems were also felt to affect recruitment and retention rates among Black correctional employees. As can be seen from review of the above list, most perceived job-related problems involved some form of institutional racism; only seven percent of all inmates interviewed believed Black correctional employees had job-related problems that were not race-related.

In the opinion of the inmates, recruitment and retention could be greatly improved by eliminating racist practices and procedures, which were considered endemic at the seven state-operated prisons. For example, the inmates felt that the extremely small number of Blacks currently found in top administrative positions was a function of racism, and that this condition was a signal to the prospective employee that his chances for advancement were not good. The absence of a significant number of Blacks in positions of authority was believed to suggest possible negative experiences that the job aspirant would like to avoid (e.g., few promotional/advancement opportunities, low pay, and unequal opportunities for better paying jobs).

Inmates were asked if they felt the need for more Black officers in correctional institutions. The vast majority (76



percent) indicated there was such a need. They felt that Black officers were more effective in helping Black inmates prepare for re-entrance into "open" society, and that they carry an ethnic message: "Someone is trying to be helpful."

Inmates also felt that more non-military employees should be recruited for correctional officer positions, and that all job applicants should be given a psychological examination to "see if their heads are on right," and then properly trained: "Not just any damn fool should be given a job." Furthermore, they stressed that a situation should not be allowed to develop where all correctional officers were of the same race -- all Black or all white.

Fifteen percent of the inmates did not believe more Black correctional officers were needed. They emphasized hiring personnel who had understanding and who knew how to deal with people. A small number (five percent) suggested there should be a balanced staff of Black and white correctional officers.

Inmates were asked what could be done to increase retention rates among Black correctional officers. Slightly more than two-fifths (42 percent) recommended giving Blacks more middle-management level positions; three percent felt retention could be increased by promoting qualified Blacks to top administrative positions (e.g., superintendents, wardens, etc.); 21 percent felt that a re-organization of correctional institutions would increase retention rates; and 28 percent thought

the major problem was the need for Blacks to be treated in an honest manner. Inmates believed the key to retaining Black correctional personnel was a "common sense" approach to employee selection, training, and placement procedures, including:

- Eliminating racially discriminatory practices;
- Providing Blacks with an equal opportunity for better paying positions;
- Giving qualified Blacks equal access to meaningful top level administrative jobs and senior officer positions;
- Ending the mistreatment of Black inmates by whites;
- Establishing viable human relations programs;
- Hiring more ex-offenders and more Black personnel;
- Providing counseling for personnel who have job-related problems;
- Implementing programs to facilitate inmate/employee communication;
- Establishing a fully manned grievance procedure;
- Improving the overall organization and administration of prisons;
- Attaining a Black work force proportional to the Black inmate population;
- Ending tactics used to discourage Blacks from remaining in corrections;
- Improving general working conditions;
- Treating Black employees with respect; and
- Giving Blacks equal fringe benefits.

The attitudes that older white workers have toward Blacks was felt to be a principal source of the continued existence

of friction and racist practices and procedures. It was stated that this particular problem could be minimized, if not eliminated, by rigidly enforced affirmative action programs, and by the extreme measure of retiring workers with 20 or more years of service.

Inmates also believed that the implementation of this "common sense" approach would make corrections more attractive to Blacks. An additional suggestion was a public relations and publicity program to make Blacks aware of job openings in correctional institutions.

Many of the inmates (40 percent) felt that all new correctional employees (i.e., custodial, treatment, and administrative, where applicable) should be required to talk with a selected number of inmates, who would share their experiences and perceptions related to the job in question. The perspectives of the inmates would help potential employees decide whether to accept a job in corrections. The overall effect of inmate involvement in the orientation of potential/new personnel would be an awareness of how prisons are run and what to expect, and a reduction of the number of employees who are "turned off" by their jobs.

SECTION VII  
PRINCIPLES FOR RECRUITMENT, SELECTION AND RETENTION

## VII. PRINCIPLES FOR RECRUITMENT, SELECTION, AND RETENTION

This section of the report contains recommended principles for the recruitment, selection, and retention of minority correctional personnel which may be used as a basis for formulating a set of procedural strategies designed to attract and retain minority personnel. These principles were derived from data collected from minority correctional officers, non-correctional officers, administrators, inmates, and former employees of state-operated prisons.

No unique differences exist between the general principles recommended here and those used by any employer interested in retaining employees. For example, employers should provide:

- A worthwhile job that meets employees', employer's, and society's needs;
- Job tasks and responsibilities compatible with the employees' abilities and occupational goals and interests;
- Administrative policies and practices which are concerned with the welfare and happiness of employees;
- Working conditions and working environment which encourage team work, good peer relationships, understanding between supervisors and employees, and minimum levels of physical discomfort; and
- Equal and fair treatment -- a fair chance for promotions and positions of authority, and an objective process for reviewing grievances.

However, these principles hold special significance for minority employees because of the employees' sensitivity to

past and present employment discrimination. Thus, recommended principles should be applied to all job applicants and employees, not just minority group members, but are especially important for minorities.

#### A. RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION

It is essential that correctional institutions develop and implement systematic short- and long-range methods for recruiting and selecting minority personnel. The methods must be technically sound, administratively convenient, and fair so that every applicant -- regardless of race -- feels he was judged individually and objectively on his merits.

Prior to formulating a set of procedures designed to recruit minority personnel, correctional institutions need a clear policy, known to every employee, that all job applicants are to be judged, evaluated, and considered for employment solely on objective and individual merit, and not on race, creed, color, national origin, or sex. In addition, support must be given to minority employees in their quest to obtain equal and fair selection consideration, and management must provide a procedure for taking remedial action whenever discriminatory practices are found.

Policies must be formulated, implemented, and strictly enforced which guard against permitting the ethnic characteristics of job applicants to negatively influence selection decision-making; otherwise, no recruitment and selection program will eliminate racially discriminatory practices and procedures.

Administrators, supervisory staff, and personnel officials must be highly sensitive to the causes, manifesta-

tions of, and corrective and preventive procedures for eliminating racial discrimination in all facets of employee recruitment and selection. Thus, an initial activity for a correctional facility would be to conduct an analysis of the jobs minorities currently hold and are recruited for. Excuses such as "no qualified candidates" in job areas where minorities are under-represented should not be accepted.

The following sub-sections suggest principles and procedures for improving minority recruitment and selection.

##### 1. Job Specification

Before any strategies can be employed to recruit minorities, personnel specialists and line managers should produce precise job specifications based on an accurate job analysis. Clear job specifications are a hallmark of a good minority recruitment program. The job specification information will be of value not only in recruitment and selection but also in determining training and development needs and making organizational decisions regarding accountability, job relationships, salary levels, etc.

##### 2. "Person" Specification

Job specifications do not exist in isolation and must be translated into "person" specifications. As a minimum requirement, the translation should reflect the following dimensions of the individual:

**CONTINUED**

**5 OF 6**

- Age structure based on job demands;
- Background information which is job-related, (e.g., employment history, police records, etc.);
- Level of education considered essential or desirable for job success;
- Experience which increases or decreases the probability of job success;
- Enumeration of necessary physical and personality attributes;
- Required intelligence based on job analysis data.

These "person" specifications will help identify appropriate media for recruitment efforts as well as clarify requirements for applicants.

### 3. Application Forms

Manpower planning, equal opportunity employment policies, and written job specifications translated into "person" specifications can be severely limited in effectiveness unless application forms are clear and easy to complete and collect all relevant and necessary data about job candidates.

The application forms to be completed by the candidate should ask for information which will:

- (1) assist in selection of candidates to be interviewed,
- (2) form a basis around which the interview can be built,
- (3) determine the applicant's suitability to fill job positions or other vacancies,
- and (4) facilitate the construction of a profile of

the applicants and the type of jobs they are looking for.

### 4. Contacting the Target Group

Methods for reaching minority applicants for corrections jobs include: (1) use of integrated recruiting teams; (2) posters (when pictures are used they should be integrated) which can be placed in churches, pool halls, taverns, recreation centers, and stores, and attached to stationary objects which large numbers of minorities pass by, such as in public housing complexes; (3) contacts with fraternal organizations; (4) publicity on military installations; (5) visits to Black secondary schools, colleges, technical schools, business schools, and trade schools; (6) use of public employment agencies; (7) contacts with school employment counselors; (8) advertisements in the mass media; and (9) word-of-mouth recruitment. All these efforts will help make minorities aware of job opportunities in corrections.

Specific "job advertising" is desirable. Radio, television, and local newspapers are the most effective media for reaching minorities through advertising. An overwhelming majority of current and former correctional employees listen to soul, rhythm and blues, discotheques, and other Black music-oriented radio stations on a daily basis, so radio is probably the single best

mass medium for advertising job opportunities in corrections. Second is television, especially programs covering Black news. Local newspapers are perhaps the third best medium; Black-owned papers should be used where they exist.

Job advertising should focus on presenting aspects of corrections which are attractive to minorities, such as equal and fair job advancement, treatment, and promotional opportunities; job security; competitive salaries; prestige of the job; educational opportunities; assistance with finding housing accommodations; fringe benefits; helping others to help themselves; the chance to make decisions; variety in job assignments, etc.

#### 5. Pre-Employment Orientation

Once potential employees have been reached and job applications have been submitted, and prior to the physical medical examination, personnel management should provide each applicant with concise written information highlighting the history and operation of the correctional institution in question and its centers of operation (e.g., location of camps and annexes, total number of employees, and a description of the department in which the applicant would be working). In short, the applicant should be well-informed about how the institution

is run. This could include being made aware of the existence of "power groups", professional philosophies of chief officers, and how the job applied for fits into the overall system. Moreover, various aspects of the applicant's job should be discussed with him. Additional facets of applicant's pre-orientation should include a realistic talk about working conditions, the working environment, and working with inmates. If the applicant maintains interest in correction after the pre-employment orientation, he should be scheduled for medical/physical and mental testing.

#### 6. Medical/Physical Examinations

Most correctional institutions require job applicants to take medical/physical examinations. Theoretically, these examinations are conducted to ensure placing the applicant in a job situation which will not adversely affect his health and safety and where he can meet all physical demands of the job. To do this, the doctor -- when conducting the examination -- needs to know the type of work for which the candidate is being considered. For example, at one time it was thought necessary to reject a candidate with high blood pressure. However, in today's well-controlled correctional institutions, such a person may justifiably be accepted for specific kinds of work.

Some basic physical requirements should be maintained, but others might best be suspended until a thorough review of their significance to specific job performance is investigated. Most correctional institutions have visual acuity, height, weight, and blood pressure requirements. All these requirements tend to discriminate against some ethnic minorities. Visual defects, for example, are more prevalent among low socio-economic status groups; some ethnic minorities are, in general, shorter and weigh less than other groups; and high blood pressure is more prevalent among Blacks and Southern Europeans than other groups. In this regard, correctional institutions should consider waivers for some minority candidates who have unusual qualifications. Waivers might be used regarding age, height, weight, visual acuity, or other minor deviations from existing standards.

The scheduling of medical/physical examinations presents a problem to some minority candidates. This problem can be minimized and the examination made more convenient by offering it on several alternate dates and making it expedient and swift. Another alternative is to allow the applicant's physician to do the examination at the applicant's convenience.

Medical/physical examinations can be further expedited by arranging them so that the quickest parts (i.e., height, weight, blood pressure, and eye examinations) can be done first, and the more lengthy examinations done last. If a candidate clearly does not meet acceptable standards on the first parts of the examination, he will not waste a lot of time by completing the rest of the examination.

#### 7. Testing

Non-job-related tests should be excluded from any correctional employee selection process. In general, minorities have less formal education and less test-taking experience than whites; therefore, the current effects of past discrimination place minorities at a psychological disadvantage in many tests. Moreover, tests have been used to exclude minorities by scheduling them at inconvenient times, conducting them in unfavorable testing conditions, or using tests which are culturally biased.

Only job-related tests which are based on an accurate analysis of the job should be used in the assessment of the mental suitability of the job candidate. It is suggested that any such test should have the following characteristics:



- Technical Soundness

An acceptable coefficient of reliability; test should be free from ambiguous items, and minorities should have been included in the norming group.

- Administrative Convenience

Easy to give and score, and including a minimal practical number of required written responses.

- Validity

Acceptable predictive validity and face validity coefficients.

Currently, some mental examinations are periodically scheduled and administered by correctional institutions themselves or by the civil service. Scheduled examination dates are problematic for many applicants, including minority group members; for example, if employed, the applicant may hesitate to request leave time. The candidate's job might be in jeopardy if he went without proper authorization, or if he did not pass the test. The severity of this and similar problems faced by minority job applicants in taking examinations on scheduled dates could be greatly decreased if correctional institutions made arrangements for interested applicants to take "walk-in examinations" on several designated days each month, with the day of the week changing each month. The examinations could be given by personnel specialists who work on a 40-hour a week basis. This would make examination-taking more

convenient, and might make possible giving the examinations at the applicant's convenience.

#### 8. Assistance With Finding Housing Accommodations

Many correctional facilities may be located long distances from the residence of the job candidate. Correctional institutions interested in recruiting minorities must give considerable attention to identifying and helping minorities who are likely to be willing to relocate. The personnel specialist should be aware of the characteristics of mobile minority group members.

Age is believed to be an important determinant of mobility. Minority group members between 20 and 30 years of age who are well-trained (i.e., with an academic, technical, or commercial background) and are neither married nor own their own homes are most likely to be willing to relocate. A competitive salary, job security, chances for job advancement, and career development opportunities are additional inducements for relocation.

A human relations program staff could be assigned the responsibility for assisting recruits with finding housing accommodations in nearby communities. This is particularly important in small cities and in towns with small minority populations and/or housing shortages.

#### 9. Placement and Follow-Up

The final stages of the selection process should be characterized by making a very careful, detailed comparison between the minority candidate's attributes and the job's "person" specifications. Moreover, as previously indicated, personnel should make sure that no minority candidate accepts a job without a clear understanding of all its conditions. Once a candidate has been offered a job, he should receive additional orientation. This should include a visit with his prospective supervisor, talks with selected inmates knowledgeable about the prison and the job, and talks with experienced employees. The candidate should be given written materials on salary, overtime rates, frequency of overtime, promotion requirements, days off, shift changes, leave procedures, payroll deductions, extra-mural activities, fringe benefits, retirement plan, credit union, union, conditions for job terminations, etc.

Both successful and unsuccessful candidates should be questioned on whether they felt they were treated fairly during the recruitment/selection process. Unsuccessful candidates should be told tactfully and courteously why they were not selected. This will help to improve corrections' image in the minority community.

After a new minority employee has started the job,

follow-up activities are vitally important. Personnel management should see that the new employee quickly adjusts to his job, and assure that foreseeable problems are dealt with in advance. The new employee should be visited daily at his job location for the first few days to make sure everything goes well.

The entire recruitment program should aim to find minorities who will be well-matched to the job on which they are placed. Therefore, knowledge of the results of the "match" is extremely important. Personnel officials cannot know their own performance, nor can the recruitment program be evaluated, without feedback based on follow-up activities. The lack of feedback may have highly unfavorable consequences, if poor person/job matches, poor personnel actions, or an inadequate recruitment program go unnoticed for some time.

Supervisors of new minority employees should be required to keep systematic records of the employees performance based on the person/job specifications. If the new employee does not do well on his new job, he may need to be transferred, he may need additional training, he may need counseling, or he may need to try another line of work. The point is that if problems are detected early, corrective actions can be taken.

## 10. Public Relations

Corrections is in urgent need of a public relations program to change its negative image in minority communities. Some correctional employees, especially custodial officers, are harrassed by their neighbors for working in corrections. It appears that the negative experiences and historically hostile relations between minorities and the police have been generalized to corrections.

Corrections' negative image among minorities can be improved through public relations programs utilizing modern technology. A number of entities such as oil companies, some police departments, branches of the armed services, politicians, etc., have used modern technology to improve their public image. Correctional institutions should implement their own community relations programs. Effort should be made to enhance the image of corrections as an occupation providing a means to prestige as well as economic and personal advancement for minority group members.

## B. RETENTION

Information about factors associated with high employee retention rates is contained in this section. Specifically, these factors are: (1) personnel policies and practices, (2) occupational levels, (3) career ladders, (4) oral tests, (5) job satisfaction, (6) management, (7) concern for minority employees, (8) training for officers, (9) training for supervisors, (10) interaction with inmates, (11) inmates, (12) counseling, (13) transportation, (14) equal treatment, (15) review boards, and (16) federal subsidies.

Just as recruitment, selection, and retention are operationally inseparable, retaining minority correctional personnel is as important as effective recruiting. The interdependency of these components indicates that retention strategies must be an integral part of a program to attract a minority employee from the point at which the candidate becomes aware of opportunities in corrections. Strategies to retain minority employees should be thoroughly integrated into all aspects of recruitment and selection strategies.

### 1. Personnel Policies and Practices

Fundamental changes must be made in personnel policies, practices, and procedures. Irrelevant requirements for education, work experience, or personal characteristics should be eliminated from promotion policies, and such

requirements should be based on skills and knowledges acquired through work experiences and on-the-job training, wherever possible. A "hire now, train later" policy is recommended. Above all, civil service job classifications need to be re-examined to remove inflexibilities, recognize the special barriers facing employees from minority groups, and incorporate paraprofessional tasks and structures.

Some present personnel practices should be immediately discontinued or modified. Specifically, we recommend:

(1) eliminating the arrest and/or conviction disqualification in favor of personalized selection; and (2) re-examining and revising or removing non-work-related educational or experiential requirements.

## 2. Occupational Levels

A major disincentive to apply for, accept, or continue in a corrections job is the disproportionately small number of minority employees holding supervisory and management positions.

The disparity in the occupational levels of minority groups members causes some job applicants to view their own opportunities as very limited. A large majority of minority correctional employees occupy low level, low status, and low advancement jobs. One result is low retention rates. To reverse this situation, correctional institutions should place a fair proportion of minorities in positions with the best opportunities for advancement.

States should be encouraged to establish goals for minority hiring and promotions that would bring the proportion of minority correctional employees to the same level as minority inmates of the system. These goals should include firm time frames.

## 3. Career Ladders

Correctional institutions should be required to establish continuous career ladders from the entry level through higher level jobs requiring additional skills. To establish these career ladders, correctional institutions need to conduct functional task analyses for all levels of jobs, including those now performed by professionals, in order to define and restructure jobs, identify knowledges and skills needed to perform them, and articulate specific qualifications for employment and promotion.

Career ladders should be clearly explained to all employees. This would include information on available training options, standards and requirements, procedures for filing applications, and persons applying standards.

## 4. Oral Tests

Oral tests for promotion should be eliminated in favor of multiple personalized interview procedures that would allow for evaluation of interpersonal skills and group interaction strengths -- and be used with consistent, standardized rating forms.

Oral examinations used in judging an employee's suitability for promotions are subject to the interviewer's personal preferences, stereotypes, prejudices, and biases. Oral examinations were believed unfair to Blacks by a larger number of respondents than any other aspect of promotion examinations. Considering these factors, the use of oral examinations should be discontinued until better safeguards are devised to prevent extraneous factors from entering the decision-making process of the interviewer. Standardized questions and the use of rating forms may be one way to protect the objectivity and fairness of the process.

#### 5. Job Satisfaction

Career-oriented minority correctional employees have higher job satisfaction scores than non-career-oriented employees. To increase the proportion of career-oriented minorities is to increase retention rates. Being given an opportunity to become "involved" in the job should convert a significant number of non-career-oriented employees into career-oriented employees.

One technique which can be used to accomplish this objective is to modify present administrative policies and practices such as job assignments. A modification aimed at shift rotation, job rotation, etc., should greatly improve job satisfaction and retention.

#### 6. Management

Minorities should share in making decisions that affect their work lives. Participative management is an approach which would not only permit minorities to participate in decision-making but also establish a positive relationship between personal goals and organizational goals, which will contribute to high rates to employee retention. Unless the minority employee can identify with the mission of a correctional institution, he will probably not have a sense of pride in and commitment to the institution's ultimate product -- a rehabilitated inmate. Until steps are taken to actualize these factors, turnover rates will remain high.

The para-military organizational structure of almost all correctional institutions and its concepts of chain of command and strict obedience to orders are a major reason for low retention. This management organizational structure does not mesh well with the life styles of Black correctional personnel; the ideas of dominance and subordination are particularly unattractive to many Blacks. This situation is not readily changed, but should be recognized.

#### 7. Concern for Minority Employees

An overwhelming percentage of minority correctional employees feel management is more interested in the welfare and happiness, and improving the working conditions, of white workers than of Black workers. Minority employees must be

reassured through action that prison administrators are equally concerned with both Black and white employees. Equal working environment, promotions, hiring, fringe benefits, and opportunities for education and training would serve as convincing proof of the administration's sincerity.

#### 8. Training for Officers

Skill training for minority correctional personnel, both classroom and on-the-job, should be extended. Such training should emphasize "generalist" skills, and it should be designed not only to improve the performance of minority personnel in their current jobs but also to equip them to perform at the next higher level.

Some correctional facilities provide new hires with training, but some do not. A mandatory training program for new employees might include skills and methods of supervising inmates in a variety of situations (e.g., housing units, chapel, entertainment, athletic contests, meals, baths, clothing exchange, recreation, work, etc.), handling emergencies, security techniques, equipment maintenance, transporting inmates, escorting visitors, human relations, etc. Competence in executing required job tasks is positively associated with job retention, so training should have a positive effect on retention rates.

#### 9. Training for Supervisors

Seminars and training sessions for supervisory personnel

should be held periodically. A survey of non-supervisory personnel to suggest areas in which they think supervisors need improvement could be one basis for selecting specific topics to be covered with self-assessments by supervisors providing an additional input. Topics that might be selected include principles and techniques of supervision and/or management, human relations, background information on cultural differences, job performance appraisal, job enlargement, job purification, etc.

The decision to assign persons to supervise minorities should be based on such factors as past performance, ability to relate, and general awareness/knowledge of minorities, and such considerations should be factors considered in placing minority new hires. Moreover, the fit between the supervisor's and the new hire's abilities and preferences is perhaps more important than the supervisor's demographic characteristics.

#### 10. Interaction with Inmates

Supervisors want the interaction between inmates and correctional officers to be formal. In most cases, formal interaction is not only contrary to the life style of the correctional officer, but also contrary to his perceptions of his role in the rehabilitative process. The frequency of interaction between officer and inmate does not readily lend itself to a formalized structure.

Officers are often disciplined and, in some cases, fired because of a non-formalized style of interacting with inmates.

Policies governing the relationship between inmates and correctional officers should be carefully reviewed and modifications made based upon objective rather than impressionistic data.

#### 11. Uniforms

In correctional institutions where correctional officers are required to wear uniforms, the social stigma of representing a repressive aspect (i.e., the police) is a serious problem for some Black officers. They feel they are forced to act as policemen. As a result, they are often pejoratively referred to as "guards" or are not held in high esteem by peers and community because of their association with corrections.

Corrections should either make the wearing of uniforms optional, or provide empirical data on their beneficial effects.

#### 12. Counseling

A central career counseling service for potential and present minority correctional personnel should be established. Its goal should be to help minority and white correctional personnel develop and carry out both short- and long-range plans for advancement.

Counseling should also be provided to employees with job problems. Such employees should be given a clear understanding

of the conditions under which they may be terminated. This assumes that indepth counseling, additional training, or transfers have been considered.

#### 13. Transportation

Travel distance and distance from public information are negatively related to minority employee retention rates. Programs to assist minorities with finding housing accommodations in nearby communities, and a decision by state officials to build new correctional structures in areas that are easily accessible by public transportation will increase retention rates. Achievement of these two objectives should have a positive effect on retention rates among minorities. Correctional facilities might also consider providing vans or buses or helping to arrange car pools as interview measures.

#### 14. Equal Treatment

The callous and unconcerned manner in which some personnel employees interact with minority applicants, and the non-assurance that employees of all races will be judged fairly, are disincentives to enter and remain in corrections. These factors have strong negative effects on minority candidates and employees, and must be removed if increased retention rates are desired.

#### 15. Review Boards

A procedure for objectively reviewing all disciplinary

or punitive actions taken against employees should be established. A significant number of correctional officers, non-correctional officers, and ex-employees complained of unjust, arbitrary, and sometimes contrived actions taken against them. An interracial review board should be organized and empowered to sustain, reverse or modify personnel actions taken against minorities and other employees.

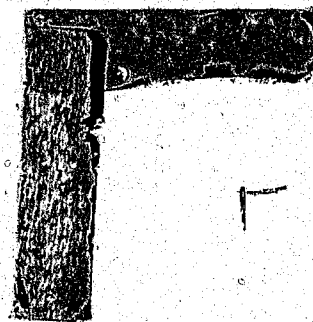
The appeals process now used in correctional institutions does not appear to be functioning effectively. Minorities find it extremely difficult to obtain a hearing before a warden, superintendent, or other official. As a result, they are apparently quite often fired without due process. A consistent and open appeals process is a critical need.

Correctional institutions should hold bi-annual conferences with minorities to review the status of equal employment programs. All components of equal employment programs should be critically assessed and decisions made to continue, terminate, or modify every individual program facet.

#### 16. Federal Subsidies

The Federal government should subsidize salaries over a limited period of years, and in diminishing amounts, to bring correctional salaries to a level of parity with those of other public servants such as firemen and police officers.





**END**