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A family affair: the effects of familial relations on offender recidivism

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A FAMILY AFFAIR: THE EFFECTS OF FAMILIAL RELATIONS ON OFFENDER RECIDIVISM

by

KENNETH T. KELSO

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

2012

MAJOR: SOCIOLOGY

Approved by:

Advisor  Date

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DEDICATION

For the love of my life;

My wife Marlynne

And our wonderful children

Marisia, Kendra, Keon and Trinity

And my strong, supportive mother:

Fay Stallworth

To the best role models a young man could ever have

My late father, Ben Kelso

My late stepfather, Sam Stallworth

And my favorite teacher

The late, Terrance Yankee
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The confinement and subsequent growth of the prison population in the United States has led to significant problems and is a major cause of concern on the national, state and local levels. Financially strained Criminal Justice systems continue to seek answers that will alleviate the financial burden associated with confinement, while at the same time offering a measure of protection to the public. Repeat offenders are perhaps the greatest strain on the system. Although many programs have attempted to curtail the rate of recidivism, one area that demands a closer examination is the importance and role of the family in the decision making process of offenders. Family dynamics, particularly offender’s relationships with their children, from the perspective of the offender, has been a neglected area of research.

Current policies and programs appear to have done little to reduce the swelling numbers of persons incarcerated, or under community supervision. According to a statistical analysis conducted by Glaze (2010:2), the author found that “the total number of offenders under correctional supervision at year end 2009 represented about 3.1% of adults in the U.S. resident population or 1 in every 32 adults.” This research further indicated that the total correctional population increased from 6,437,400 in the year 2000, to 7,225,800 in 2009 (up 788,400 offenders). In an effort to provide perspective, Glaze (2010) compared the growth rate since 2000 with that of the 1980’s and 1990’s. The author found that the number of offenders under correctional supervision was smaller than the increases observed during the 1990s (up 1,696,000)
and 1980s (up 2,215,200). Although the rate of growth has slowed, the fact remains that the corrections population continues to grow with no end in sight.

In Glaze’s examination of the correctional population, the research highlighted the number of offenders by category. As previously stated, the rate of growth of this population has slowed down, but there has been a positive percentage change every year with the exception of 2008 to 2009. Without examining the percentage change for each year, and simply exploring the number of offender in 2000 compared to 2009, Glaze discovered that in 2000 there were 1,316,333 offenders incarcerated in prison, however, in 2009 this number had increased to 1,524,513. The author also examined the total numbers of offenders under parole supervision. In 2000, there were 723,898 persons under parole supervision. In 2009 this number had increased to 819,308. Finally, the number of offenders under probation supervision also showed a noteworthy change. In 2000, there were 3,826,209 persons under probation status; conversely in 2009 these numbers had increased to 4,203,967. Again, although the rate of growth has slowed, nevertheless, growth continues.

At the very foundation of this research is the notion that the conventional focus and methods of dealing with incarcerated males and men under parole supervision, has done little to counteract the rates of recidivism for both, new convictions and technical rule violations. To highlight this point, research conducted by Glaze & Bonczar (2009), focused on the number of adults exiting parole in 2007. According to this study, in 2007 514,962 offenders’ exited parole between the state and federal jurisdictions. However, less than 50 percent (235,004) completed parole satisfactorily. These results revealed that 193,636 offenders were returned to prison or jail. Interestingly, when the categories of return to prison or jail (new convictions or technical) were examined, the research discovered that 51,121 were returned to prison with new sentences,
while 136,228 were returned after their parole was revoked. The remainder of this population exited unsuccessfully for non-specified reasons. These results seem to point toward the notion that the conventional methods of dealing with recidivism, whether it be new crimes or technical rule violations has not worked, and new areas of exploration must be identified and tested.


The conventional approach to supervision in this country emphasizes individual accountability from offenders and their supervising officers without consistently providing either with the skills, tools, and resources that science indicates are necessary to accomplish risk and recidivism reduction. Despite the evidence that indicates otherwise, officers continue to be trained and expected to meet minimal contact standards which stress rates of contacts and largely ignore the opportunities these contacts have for effectively reinforcing behavior change. Officers and offenders are not so much clearly directed what to do, as what not to do.

This statement highlights the standard focus and approach to supervision. During this author’s tenure as a Michigan Parole Officer, a standard pattern of dealing with offenders was observed. For example, if the offender had a history of alcohol or substance abuse, he was regularly sent to a drug or treatment program upon release from prison. These programs were frequently unsuccessful in curtailing the offenders’ use of a controlled substance. At various points in this researchers career and for extended time periods, officers and offenders could expect a standard decision to be made with regards to punishing the behavior of offenders who did not stop the use of alcohol or an illegal narcotic. Contrary to popular belief, depending on the severity of the violation and/or the number of violations, the parole officer did not make the final decision regarding sanctioning offender behavior. The final decision often rested with parole management. Based upon the directives of the presiding administration, parole management routinely followed a conventional line of decision making that ranged from sending
a person back to prison, to referring a person to a treatment program several times. Thus, all parties involved followed the standard approach in dealing with this behavior, and very little effort and creativity was generated.

### 1.2 Public Confidence in the Criminal Justice System

Despite the fact that this institution has not been successful in the integration of offenders back into society, the level of public confidence in the criminal justice system has remained consistent. According to the Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics (2010), 1,020 respondents were interviewed to determine their level of confidence in the criminal justice system. Categorical data was collected by race, age and income. This research provided some interesting results. Those respondent’s who classified themselves as white, had more confidence in the criminal justice system than those persons classified as black. 75% of white respondents informed that they had some to a great deal of confidence in the system, while 68% of black respondents had some to very little confidence in this structure. The age category also provided great disparity in responses. Those subjects who ranged from 18 to 29 years old, had a great deal of confidence in the system 46% of the time, while those persons 65 years and older had a great deal of confidence only 25% of the time. The variable, income also revealed some interesting results. Those subjects with an income level greater than $75,000 had a great deal of confidence in the system 36% of the time, while those subjects whose income ranged from $20,000 to $29,000 had a great deal of confidence only 13% of the time.

When these results were examined for the year 2011, the outcomes were similar, with the exception of income. Those respondents whose income exceeded $75,000 had lost a measure of confidence in the system (28% compared to 36% in 2010), while those subjects whose income ranged from $20,000 to $29,000 had a large increase in their level of confidence (31% to 13% in
2010) (Sourcebook of Criminal Justice, 2011). These results seem to indicate that public perception of the criminal justice system is impacted by factors other than the level of success generated by this structure.

One potential factor that might be related to the confidence levels expressed toward the criminal justice system, may be the attitudes towards approaches to lowering the crime rate in the United States. According to the Gallup Poll (2010), data results from 1989 to 2010 showed that the greater percentage of the public has consistently felt that the majority of resources should go toward attacking social problems, rather than investing in more law enforcement. Although this research did not specify what types of “social problems” should be dealt with, the destruction or crippling of a family due to the incarceration of a father is certainly a social problem worthy of attention.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to assess the familial orientations that include attitudes and perceptions by ex-offenders that are predictive of prison misconduct and recidivism among incarcerated offenders and persons under parole supervision. Through the perceptions of the relationships by these ex-offenders with their spouses, significant others and children, a better understanding of how these familial relationships impact the offenders’ prison and parole experiences will emerge. Chapter two of this research is an in-depth literature review that illustrates the financial and social cost associated with prison confinement. Chapter three discusses various theories that provide a framework for understanding the larger social issues associated with incarceration that impact family adjustment, and the interaction of these factors on prison and parole success.
In chapter four, methodological approaches are discussed. This chapter also covers data collection, instrumentation, data analysis techniques, limitations and assumptions. In addition, operational definitions for both the dependent and independent variables are provided.

Chapter five provides the results for the data analysis. This chapter is organized around three areas of interest: 1). Demographic/personal factors, 2). Spouse/significant other factors, and 3). Child/children factors that may have influenced the ex-offender’s behavior while incarcerated and/or during parole supervision. Chapter six discusses these results and attempts to explain these outcomes within the parameters of the framework of this study.

There were three research questions that helped form the basis and focus of this study. These questions were an attempt to add missing information to extant literature about the influence of familial factors on offender behavior during incarceration and parole supervision from the perspective of the offender. The research questions were:

1. What is the nature of the relationships between offenders and the families while under the supervision of the Criminal Justice system, as reported by the offenders?
2. To what extent were such relationships related to prison misconduct, recidivism or the commission of technical violations?
3. Do demographic factors, such as age, in-prison educational attainment, educational level when incarcerated, social ties before incarceration influence the relationship between family ties and prison misconduct, recidivism or the commission of technical violations?
1.4 Importance of the Study

Most of the literature surrounding the incarceration of a parent has centered on the effects of parental incarceration on the child, family and even community. There appears to be a substantial gap in literature that examines the impact of familial relations on the behavior of the offenders, from the perspectives of the offenders themselves. Previous research has shown that family relationships are a significant predictor of prison success and successful community re-entry. However, the quality of these relationships, and the level of importance that the offender places on these relationships is a missing element that can significantly add to the existing literature.

This study is focused on the male offender’s prison and parole experience. It is important to note that most of the extant literature on incarceration and familial/parental relationships does so from the perspective of the female offender and her children. The dynamics associated with the female offender’s relationships with their children is important literature that has advanced the understanding of the challenges that incarceration brings. However, the lack of the male offender perspective is a missing element that can have a significant impact in various ways: First, this research can be used to evaluate current prison policy, and to determine if the ‘importance of family,’ specifically children, can be incorporated into male prison culture similar to that of female prison practices. Second, this study can be used to analyze and strengthen the family reunification component of the Michigan Prisoner Re-entry Initiative (MPRI). It is expected that this study will reveal the level of significance of various family members, particularly children. In turn, these outcomes can be used as a tool to prepare the offender for his eventual release from prison.
Finally, the potential insight provided by this study may be used to develop new ways of supervising offenders who are under parole supervision. Instead of following the conventional methods of dealing with unsatisfactory behavior, Michigan Department of Corrections policies and procedures may be allowed to change to incorporate the family as a tool of recidivistic deterrence.
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Existing literature on specific aspects of incarceration, prison conduct, recidivism and the role that families, particularly children and spouses play within the context of the various states of confinement are reviewed and presented in this chapter. This review is necessary to learn about the familial relationships under study and to understand the themes underlying the hypotheses in question as outlined in extant literature.

2.1 The Social Cost of Incarceration

The financial effects of incarceration cannot be overstated. However, the social costs connected with this problem are equally detrimental. “When most families in a neighborhood lose father to prison, the distortion of family structure affects relationship norms between men and women as well as parents and children, reshaping family and community across generations” (Brahman, 2002:118). Many families never fully recover from the effects of incarceration and the use of incarceration as a means of control quite possibly may injure the family more than the criminal offenders themselves.

Although this study will examine familial effects in general, the impact of incarceration on children, the most vulnerable population, will be the primary focus since those effects are most evident.
According to a report from the Bureau of Justice Statistics (Mumola, 2000), 2.1 percent of the nation’s 72 million minor children had a parent in state or Federal prison in 1999. This figure represents 721,500 parents (667,900 fathers and 53,600 mothers), and about 1.5 million children. This figure is even more startling when combined with the fact that since 1991, the number of minor children with a parent in State or Federal prison rose by over 500,000; from 936,000 to 1,498,800 in 1999, with 22% of all minor children with a parent in prison being under the age of 5 years old (Mumola, 2000).

Although Bureau of Justice Statistics released in 2007, did not focus on the number of minor children with parents in prison, these statistics did inform that the number of persons incarcerated has increased:

The number of prisoners under Federal jurisdiction during 2006 increased by 2.9 percent. This increase was less than the average annual growth of 5.8% per year that occurred from 2000 through 2005. Conversely, the number of prisoners under the jurisdiction of State authorities increased more rapidly during 2006 than in the previous 5 years. The state prison population increased by 2.8% during 2006, compared to an average annual increase of 1.5% from 2000 to 2005 (Sabol, Couture, Harrison, 2007:1).

Given that these figures indicate an increase in the rate of incarceration, it can be assumed that the number of incarcerated parents has also increased.

Changes in the dynamics of relationships between children and their offending parents will most likely have an impact upon the children and the offenders as well. According to Mumola (2000), 44 percent of fathers and 64 percent of mothers reported living with their children prior to incarceration. These statistics begs the question: what happens to the relationship between parent and child when the parent is incarcerated? Although more research needs to be conducted to determine the effects of incarceration on both parent and child,
examining the impact of confinement on the relationship between parent and child from the perspective of the offender is especially limited.

Mumola’s (2000) research provides some insight into how these relationships are affected by the parental period of confinement. For instance, one of the most glaring results of his report informs that only 21 percent of incarcerated fathers and 24 percent of incarcerated mothers reported receiving a monthly visit from their child, with the primary method of communication for both fathers and mothers being via letters. Given that some offenders choose to refrain from contact with their children while incarcerated, whether this lack of physical contact with a child is voluntarily imposed or forced upon the prisoner, the results are similar. This lack of physical contact can be a significant factor in the offender’s decision to engage in negative behavior while he is incarcerated and when he returns to free society. According to Bennett (1987), research has shown that regular visits to incarcerated individuals may reduce the number of behavioral problems while incarcerated.

2.2 Race, Children and Incarceration

Race seems to play an important role when the relationship between child and incarcerated parent is examined (Mumola, 2000). Approximately 7 percent of African American children (767, 200 children) had a parent in prison in 1999. In other words, approximately 50 percent of incarcerated African Americans are parents of minor children. These children are growing up without a parent, primarily their fathers. Research conducted by Warren (2008), adds to the notion that race is an important factor when examining incarceration. This study informs that 1 out of every 100 adults in the United States is incarcerated. However, when this phenomenon is examined by race the results are shocking. 1 out of every 9 black men ages 20 to 34 years old and 1 out of 15 black men ages 18 or older are incarcerated. These numbers are
especially staggering when compared to white men, where only 1 out of every 106 white males is incarcerated. These numbers reveal a startling and disturbing phenomenon that cannot be ignored. According to Gabel (1992:5)

Many of these men worry about how their spouses and children are faring in their absence. Financial difficulties faced by their families figure largely in the concern of many of these men since a majority of them contributed in some fashion to the finances of their families prior to incarceration.

2.3 Family Ties and Social Control

Many offenders have relationships with family members that serve as a form of social control. The influence from these relationships may affect behavior in both, positive or negative directions. For example, a person with a lack of employable skills may resort to criminal activity in order to meet his families’ financial needs. This same relationship may be the primary factor in his decision to comply with the rules of incarceration and to refrain from any criminal behavior. Once the offender realizes the effects of his decision on his children, spouse or significant other, and his desire to not hurt his family emotionally, financially or socially again, this can act as a form of control in his decision to comply with societal rules. Travis & Waul (2003:10) highlight the importance of family contact during and after a period of confinement:

Several studies have shown that continued contact with family members during and following incarceration can reduce prisoner recidivism and foster integration into the community. A number of studies have compared outcomes of prisoners who maintained family ties during incarceration with those who did not. Each study found that in terms of recidivism, inmates with close ties to family or friends fared better upon release than those who did not have contacts with friends or family.

The impact that families, particularly children make upon a parolees decision to refrain from new criminal behavior or technical rule violations is often overlooked as a significant factor in reducing recidivism. If these relationships are not examined in a systematic manner, from
various perspectives, the confinement and subsequent recidivism rates will only increase, particularly within the African American community.

According to Hairston’s (1988, 1991) reviews of research on prisoners’ family relationships, two consistent findings were reached: male prisoners who maintain strong family ties during imprisonment have higher rates of post-release success than those who do not maintain such ties, and men who assume responsible husband and parenting roles upon release have higher rates of success than those who do not assume such roles.

The importance of the offender’s contact with his family, particularly his children during and after incarceration is further highlighted by a longitudinal study conducted by the Urban Institute (2006). This study examined the experiences of released prisoners returning to communities in Maryland, Ohio, Illinois and Texas. According to self reports from the Ohio study, 46 percent of released prisoners reported that spending time with their children was an important factor in keeping them from returning to prison.

Although the research is limited, the studies that concentrate on offenders and their children are usually centered on the relationships between the female offender and the child. These studies primarily examine the impact upon children when a *mother* is confined in prison. According to Martin (2001), most of the research conducted in this area seems to be guided by our society’s belief that mothers are the important and necessary parent. As a result, the majority of these studies have focused on incarcerated mothers (Dalley, 1997; Bloom, 1995; Johnson, 1995; Bloom and Stinehart, 1993; Pollock-Byrne, 1992). However, according to Mumola (2000), in 1999, State and Federal prisons held an estimated 667,900 fathers of minor children, 44 percent of whom lived with their children prior to incarceration. To examine the offender-
child relationship from primarily the perspective of how the incarceration of the mothers affects the child is extremely important, but provides only a partial understanding of this social problem.

2.4 The Effects of Incarceration on Spouse or Significant Other

The effects of incarceration on the spouses or girlfriends of convicted felons is equally challenging and disturbing and may create more problems than it solves. In fairness, this period of incarceration may be viewed as positive or negative depending upon the state of the relationship between the offender and his significant other prior to incarceration. According to Hairston (1991), if the offender was perceived as an asset, the loss of his role within the family will be experienced with a greater sense of loss and disruption. In a study conducted by Fishman (1990), women oftentimes exhibit a strong commitment to their male partner and put forth much effort to maintain ties while he is incarcerated. Some of the lives of the women in this study improved with the loss of their partner, while others deteriorated. However, for almost all the participants, they experienced a challenge to their resources and a significant interruption in their lives. According to Carlson and Cervera (1992), women had to rely upon family and friends to fill the role of the offender for such things as childcare, companionship and money. In addition, many of these women lose assistance with childcare, and bear all the expenses related to continued contact with their incarcerated mate (Braman, 2002).

In addition to the financial and practical problems caused by incarceration on the family, it can also affect the sexual behaviors of women connected to the offender and women and men in communities where incarceration rates are high in general. According to Braman (2002:123):

As men are removed from their neighborhoods, gender ratios are skewed. Men and women in neighborhoods where incarceration rates are high described this as both encouraging men to enter into relationships with multiple women, and encouraging women to enter into relationships with men who are already attached.
I believe this is one of the factors that cause some women to remain in a relationship with an offender in prison, despite the hardships faced. The lack of available mates and the challenges that starting a new relationship may present may cause some women to remain committed to these men.

2.5 Challenges Faced in Maintaining Familial Unions

The challenges that imprisonment presents to the maintenance and re-establishment of the family during and after confinement are equally difficult and vary depending on the parties involved. Research has shown that a few factors seem to play a substantial role in affecting the offender’s ability to reconnect with family members. One important factor is the psychological impact of incarceration. According to Haney (2003), the term ‘institutionalization’ is used:

to describe the process by which inmates are shaped and transformed by the institutional environments in which they live. In general terms, the process of prisonization (institutionalization) involves the incorporation of the norms of prison life into one’s habit of thinking, feeling and acting. Like most processes of gradual change, of course, prisonization is progressive or cumulative. Thus, all other things being equal, the longer persons are incarcerated, the more significant is the nature of their institutional transformation (p. 38).

The process of prisonization can affect the way an offender thinks, feels and acts. This process can leave an ex-offender struggling with a feeling of diminished self-worth and personal value, as well as a thought that he is ill-equipped to fulfill the role that they return to when reintegrated into the community. According to Haney (2003: 45), “prisoners may come to think of themselves as the kind of people who deserve no more than the degradation and stigma to which they have been subjected while incarcerated and carry this degraded sense of self with them upon release.”

This process of prisonization can and oftentimes does continue to affect the offender upon their return to the community, and in effect can hinder the relationship between the
offender and his family. According to Schmitz and Jones (1996), secondary socialization while incarcerated can be an important factor in the weakening of family ties. Haney (2003:55) found:

parents who return from periods of incarceration still dependent on institutional structures and routines cannot be expected to easily organize the lives of their children or exercise the initiative and autonomous decision-making that parenting requires. Those who still suffer the negative effects of a distrusting and hyper-vigilant adaptation to prison life may find it difficult to promote trust and authenticity within their families. Those who remain emotionally over controlled and alienated from others may experience problems being psychologically available and nurturant. Tendencies to socially withdraw, remain aloof, or seek social invisibility are more dysfunctional in family settings where closeness and interdependency are needed. Ex-convicts who continue to embrace many of the most negative aspects of exploitative prisoner culture or find themselves unable to overcome the diminished sense of self-worth that prison too often instills may find many of their social and intimate relationships significantly compromised.

According to King (1993), prisonization is linked to diminishing family ties and a rise in isolationist behavior, further decreasing the quality of relationships outside of prison.

A second factor that may contribute negatively to an offender’s ability to maintain contact with his family, particularly his children during and after the period of incarceration, is linked to the relationship that he has with the mother of his children. According to research conducted by Edin, Nelson and Paranal (2004), which examined the relationships of ninety formerly imprisoned men to the mothers of their children in Philadelphia and Charleston. The evidence suggested that the period of incarceration harmed these relationships if the father had strong to moderate family ties. This study found that nearly all of these relationships were dissolved over the period of confinement. Similar results were reported by Nurse (2004). This study examined juvenile offenders in California. This exploration highlighted the difficulties faced by inmates in maintaining relationships with the mothers of their children. The author points out that a long period of separation allowed women to form other romantic connections, and effectively prevented the offender from reuniting with his family upon release. According to
Nurse (2004:48), “there is generally a strong desire on the part of young fathers to maintain relationships with their children. Yet, this desire is heavily mediated by the relationship with the child’s mother.”

A qualitative study conducted by Hamer (1998), offers supports for the contention that noncustodial fathers relationship with his children can be inhibited by the relationship with the mother of the child. This research interviewed thirty-eight Black American non-custodial fathers. These findings revealed that there were elements that both inhibited and enhanced their social and emotional involvement in their children’s lives. One of the common responses by the participants to their ability to be active in the lives of their children was the relationship with the mother of their children. Whether or not the children inhibited or enhanced the father’s paternal involvement depended on the type of relationship that existed between the father and the custodial mother. These relationships fell into one of three categories: (1) friendly relationship; (2) intimate relationship; (3) antagonistic relationship. According to Hamer (1998:7), “antagonistic relationships between fathers and the mothers of their children primarily served to discourage and inhibit father’s involvement in the lives of their children.” The responses by fathers in this category ranged from feelings of being “tricked” by the mothers, who had purposely become impregnated in an effort to maintain a relationship with him to thoughts that all the mothers ever wanted was money. This factor may be intensified when the father is incarcerated. If there was any contact between the father and child prior to incarceration, and the relationship between the parents could be classified as ‘antagonistic,’ the mother may now have an acceptable reason to discontinue this communication.

A third factor that can have a negative effect on the relationship between the prisoner and his family can be linked to prison policies and location. The majority of state prisoners (62
percent) are held in facilities located more than 100 miles from their homes (Mumola, 2000). Hairston and Rollin (2003:7) found that:

the distance prisoners were from their homes influenced the extent to which they saw families and friends. The farther prisoners were from their homes, the higher the percentage of prisoners who had no visitors in the month preceding the survey…Those whose home were closest to the prison had the most visits.

Geographic distance not only inhibits families from visiting, but adds additional cost to a typically strained family budget. “Telephone contact is also burdened by prison regulations and by controversial relationships between phone companies and corrections departments” (Travis, 2005:8). “Most prisons allow prisoners to make only collect calls, and those calls typically cost between $1 and $3 per minute, even though most phone companies now charge less than 10 cents per minute for phone calls in the free society” (Petersilia, 2003:8). In order to maintain contact with a loved one while incarceration, families must bear the costs associated with incarceration, and many cannot afford to do so. The Florida House of Representatives Corrections Committee (1998) conducted a study to examine the cost to family members in maintaining phone contact with prisoners. This study revealed that although family members wanted to maintain telephone contact with their loved one, they were forced to remove their names from the inmates approved calling list because they could not afford the calls.

The study of the impact of incarceration on the attitudes and behaviors of male offenders when the relationship with family is considered is a neglected area of research, but one that may play a significant role in understanding the behavior of convicted felons and reducing recidivism. This lack of research is especially troubling in light of the fact that an overwhelming majority of prisoners are men, who at some point, will return to society and quite possibly resume their role as fathers, husbands or providers in some fashion. Accordingly, this investigation addresses this
deficiency by specifically examining the impact of familial relations in the lives of former offenders, while in confinement or otherwise.

2.6 Defining Recidivism

One of the central challenges in measuring and understanding recidivism is associated with how the term itself is defined. What constitutes recidivism varies from location to location, agency to agency. For example, should a person on parole, who is returned to prison for allegedly making threats against his girlfriend be classified as a recidivist? He has not been convicted of a new crime in a court of law, but because his behavior is believed to be unacceptable, he may very well be returned to prison to serve more time.

According to Willbach (1942:32) “recidivism has a variety of meanings which are frequently used interchangeably….Because of this, the findings become vitiated and tend to create a morass which lacks clarity and hinders progress.” Willbach (1942) adds that each of the standards used in defining recidivism provides a limited understanding of this term. For example, when recidivism is based on prior arrest, this measures the ability of the offender to conform to criminal law. However, it fails to take into account that a person may have been arrested, but was not convicted, or in fact may not have committed the offense at all. This definition does not take into account that charges may have been dropped.

Another meaning used in determining whether or not a person is a recidivist uses the standard of whether or not a person has previously been incarcerated. According to Willbach (1942:33), “In those early days each penal institution operated as a separate agency, distinct and apart from all others, and was unconcerned with what happened in other institutions……The term recidivist therefore came to mean one who came back to the same institution.” Today, there is much greater cooperation between federal, state and local agencies. Computer records allow
easy access to a person’s criminal history; however, the definition of recidivism continues to vary between these entities. For example, in Midland County, Michigan (2006) recidivism is defined as only cases where a new conviction has occurred, not allegations or charges. However, their definition of recidivism does include probation violations that would not be considered a crime if the person were not on probation. This same definition of recidivism is not used by state agencies, notably the Michigan Department of Corrections. A person is classified as a recidivist if a new conviction results in a return to prison. Although a parolee may be guilty of technical rule violations, such as testing positive for a controlled substance, he would be classified as a technical rule violator, not a recidivist if this violation does not warrant a return to prison.

A third standard used in measuring recidivism is based upon a person’s previous convictions. This definition would include all previous convictions, whether they were incarcerated or dealt with in some other manner. According to Willbach (1942:35), “this would omit from consideration those who were wrongfully arrested and would include all those found guilty of crimes.” Currently, the use of this definition as the standard used for recidivism would present practical challenges for agencies such as state corrections facilities, where the standard for returning parolees to prison is based upon his behavior without the need for a conviction in court.

According to Mandel et al (1965:59), “a uniform definition of what constitutes recidivism is the only firm base upon which recidivism rates can be determined and compared with any degree of confidence.” Mandel’s (1965) study sought to make a contribution toward uniformity by examining the recidivist behavior of inmates in the Minnesota Department of Corrections. As a result, nine operational definitions of recidivism were developed: (1.) Inmates convicted for the new commission of felony offense; (2.) Inmates returned to custody as violators of parole for
commission of an alleged felony offense. These inmates were not convicted of same; (3.) Inmates returned to custody as a violator of parole for the commission of a new misdemeanor, whether convicted or not; (4.) Inmates returned to prison as violators of technical rule violations of parole; (5.) Inmates convicted and sentenced for one or more misdemeanors (other than traffic); (6.) Inmates convicted of one or more traffic violations resulting in fines of $100 or more, or sentenced to 30 days or more or both; (7.) Inmates charged or fingerprinted or “wanted” for a felony, even though no record of conviction is available; (8.) Inmates charged or fingerprinted for one or more misdemeanors (other than traffic), even though no record of conviction is available; (9.) No finding of recidivism. Inmates whose actions fell under classifications 1 thru 6 were classified as engaging in recidivistic behavior, while inmates whose actions fit categories 7 thru 9 were classified as engaging in non-recidivistic behavior. When this distinction was made, one interesting finding was discovered. Inmates who were placed in the non-recidivistic category showed a significant tendency to come from more intact living situations than did those who were classified as recidivist.

I also take the position that to effectively measure recidivism there must be different categories that are used to measure this phenomenon. Evaluations based upon new criminal activity may yield different results than those which examine technical violations of those under supervision.

2.7 The Changing Face of Michigan Parole Recidivism

During the period that this writer served as a parole/probation agent, the criteria for determining whether or not a parole violator will be returned to prison dramatically changed. Previously, under the administration of Governor John Engler, if a person under parole supervision was convicted of a new felony offense, the offender was automatically returned to
prison. However, after the election of Governor Jennifer Granholm and the implementation of a new administration, the criteria for prison return was severely altered. Currently, a parole violator can be convicted of a new felony conviction and remain in the community under dual parole and probation supervision. Although a parole violator cannot be discharged from parole supervision while under circuit court probation, the status of being under dual supervision is deemed to be much more cost effective and may afford greater options for obtaining needed services, such as drug treatment and stable housing, as opposed to simply returning a person to prison.

A second change that this writer has observed while serving as a parole agent lies in the way that technical rule violations are reviewed and sanctions imposed. For example, under the Engler administration a person who absconds (fails to report) from supervision, may or may not have been given an opportunity to remain in the community under supervision. If given a second opportunity to remain under parole supervision, he may have been placed in a drug treatment facility or in a facility known as the Technical Rule Violation Center in order redeem himself. If he absconded a second time, he was more than likely returned to prison. Currently, a person may abscond from supervision several times. These violations are known as “nuisance” cases. The parolee has not committed a new offense, but simply will not comply with the technical rules of parole supervision. These violations are rarely (if ever) returned to prison. They are reinstated to parole, and continued under parole supervision, often over strong objection by the supervising parole agent.

2.8 The Financial Cost of Recidivism

The effects of recidivism vary from society to society, but without fail, each member is affected to varying degrees by this phenomenon. One area that recidivism exacts a heavy toil is
the cost associated with controlling this behavior. According to a study conducted by the United States Department of Justice, of the 272,111 persons released from prison in 15 states in 1994, an estimated 67.5% were rearrested for a felony or serious misdemeanor within 3 years. Further, 46.9% were reconvicted and 25.4% were re-sentenced to prison for a new crime. To add another perspective, research by the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2008) indicate that in 2000, there was a total of 581,487 new admissions into state prison alone, 203,569 were parole violators. In 2007, these numbers had increased tremendously. In 2007, there were 697,975 new admissions, with 248,923 of those being parole violators. Although the costs associated with confinement of a prisoner vary from state to state, these expenses are often a significant factor that affects the funding of other programs.

According to Warren (2008:17), “total state spending on corrections, including bonds and federal contributions topped $49 billion last year, up from $12 billion in 1987. By 2011, continued prison growth is expected to cost states an additional $25 billion.” This report reveals that five states (Vermont, Michigan, Oregon, Connecticut, and Delaware) spent as much or more in 2007 on corrections than they did on higher education. The cost associated with confinement of prisoners is having a tremendous impact on the programming budgets of each and every state. Unless alternative methods of crime control are not implemented, this problem will only get worse.
CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

There are a variety of “lenses” through which one can begin to understand the behaviors of offenders that can help to understand recidivism. Theorists have provided an array of explanations about how perceptions, roles, and behaviors come into existence. The most common of these explanations are rooted in the psychological, biological, criminological, and sociological realms. This research is heavily influenced by the sociological realm, although other perspectives may be examined.

3.1 Social Control

Symbolic Interactionists use differential association theory, control theory, and labeling theory to offer an explanation for deviant behavior. According to the control theory, people generally avoid deviance because of an effective system of inner and outer controls. According to the developer of the control theory sociologist Walter Reckless (2007:143) two control systems work against people’s inclination to deviate. People’s inner controls include their internalized morality – their conscience, religious principles, ideas of right and wrong, fears of punishment, feeling of integrity, and desires to be a good person. Peoples outer controls consists of other significant people in their lives, such as their family, friends, and police, who influence them not to deviate.

This theory was developed to show how people generally avoid deviance because of an effective system of inner controls (self-control) and outer controls. However, this insight is useful in examining recidivism, particularly when outer control associated with family is a missing component in the life of an offender.
Travis Hirschi further explores this theory by pointing out that the stronger an individual’s bonds are with social structures, such as family or school, the more effective their inner controls are. These bonds are based on attachments (feeling affection and respect for people who conform to the dominant norms of society), commitments (having a stake in society that you don’t want to risk, such as family, employment, and reputation), involvements (investing time and energy into legitimate activities), and beliefs (believing deviant behaviors are morally wrong). This theory provides a solid framework for understanding deviant behavior, or lack thereof by individuals who have committed offenses in the past. The strength of the bonds with family members, particularly children, and the unwillingness to risk further trauma to these relationships may serve as a major factor in the decision to refrain from criminal behavior. An offender’s inner control, particularly the need to do what society deems as right in terms of being a father who is active in the life of his children, or a husband may outweigh anything that acts as a barrier to the establishment or re-establishment of familial relationships.

A sub-category of the control theory is the life course perspective. According to Elder (1985:47) this perspective examines “pathways through the age differentiated life span, in which age manifest itself through expectations and options that impinge on decision processes and the course of events that give shape to life stages, transitions and turning points.” “Turning points” are key events that occur at a particular stage in an individual’s life course that may alter his trajectory. According to Elder (1985:47):

these turning points act as either a brake on or a spur to criminal involvement. The life course perspective recognizes that individuals differ in their adaptations to similar life events and that these responses can lead to different pathways. The change can lead an offender to desist completely, offend at a lower level, or trade one kind of offense for another.
Sampson and Laub (2003), examined trajectories of offending over the life course of 500 delinquent boys followed from the ages of 7 to 70. This study concluded that crime declines with age sooner or later for all offending groups. This study also made a distinction between the types of crimes committed: Violent, property, Alcohol/drug, and other. The results showed that in each category crime systematically declined as the person got older. Although, there was a spike in violent crime for the age category of 32 thru 39, this change was not significant, and declined in later years. This perspective is especially useful in understanding how age may play a significant role in the desistance of criminal activity and technical rule violations. Although this study informs that participation in criminal activity declines as a person gets older, it is believed that when this factor is accompanied by an offenders desire to reconnect with family members, particularly children, his desire to engage in crime or to place himself in a position where he cannot cultivate these relationships becomes too important, and not worth the risk.

3.2 Ecological Theory

Ecological theory, modeled from the work of Bronfenbrenner (1979), may help explain differences in a given social system. This ecological framework helps understand family life, obligations, and decisions in terms of the dynamic social, cultural, political and economic environments within which certain behaviors and expectations are developed and embedded (Hamer, 2001).

According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), there are five environmental systems ranging from direct interaction with social agents to more general influences of culture:

- Microsystem
- Mesosystem
- Exosystem
- Macrosystem
- Chronosystem

The setting in which an individual lives in known as the microsystem.

According to Hamer (2001: 5):

The microsystem is the pattern activities, roles and interpersonal relations experienced by the individual in a given setting. It is an environment in which fathers directly participate, and it consists of persons with whom he interacts on a face-to-face basis (e.g., children, close relatives, friends and coworkers), their connection with other persons in the setting, the nature of these links, and their direct influence on the individual.

For the purposes of this study, understanding the impact of the microsystem upon the ex-offender, including his interaction (or lack of) with his family can provide some basic insight into the level of influence on the offender’s behavior.

The mesosystem represents links between Microsystems. “Fathers may have varying types of relationships with their children’s mothers that may serve to encourage or hinder parental involvement” (Hamer, 2001:6-7). This relationship is extended when the parents moves into a new setting, such as marriage, remarriage or incarceration.

According to Bronfenbrenner (1979:7):

The exosystem is comprised of one or more settings that live-away fathers may never enter but in which events occur that affect what happens in their immediate environment….more specifically, it is the character and content of surrounding activities occurring in past and present economic, political, and social institutions

The inability on the part of some offenders to obtain employment due to various social, and economic factors can have a tremendous impact on his relationship with his family. The stigma attached to being classified as a convicted felon, coupled with a lack of marketable skills and the pressure to conform to the expected societal norms placed on fathers and husbands to provide
financially for the welfare of his family can impact the offenders decision to re-engage in
criminal activity, or use a controlled substance as a means of escape from societal pressures.

The macrosystem refers to “consistencies in the form and content of lower order systems
(micro, meso, and exo) that exist or could exist, at the subculture or the culture as a whole, along
with any belief systems or ideology underlying such consistencies” (Bronfenbrenner, 1979:8).
Hamer (2001:8) adds:

Put simply, there exist laws, policies, dominant customs and values that encourage
or discourage certain family forms over others. Belief systems, ideology, and
culture mostly justify and perpetuate the conditions of each environment. It helps
to institutionalize notions and ideals about fatherhood and family that exist.

Figure #1 provides a visual interpretation of some of the ecological factors within each
system that can contribute to the success or failure of family reunification, and may have a direct
or indirect effect on the offender’s ability to remain in the community. The impact of these
factors can often be felt by the offender in more than one of the systems. For example, the
characteristics of his wife or significant other, such as her socio-economic status can influence
the behavior of the offender while he is incarcerated, and his subsequent reintegration into
society. Next, examining the prisoner’s microsystem, it can be hypothesized that the amount of
contact and level of contact that prisoners have with their children, spouses or girlfriends can be
impacted by prison policies and the corrections environment in general.
Cultural ideologies regarding fatherhood and their importance may affect the level of importance that an offender places on his role as a father, husband or provider. Many offenders have been reared in environments without fathers. Therefore, the impact of a father may not carry as much significance as does the role of a mother. This fact, accompanied with what this researcher perceives as societal indifference toward the role and importance of fathers may contribute to the lack of societal concern toward the relationship between male offenders and their children.
CHAPTER IV
METHODOLOGY

4.1 Research Goal

The impact that offender behavior has on family dynamics has been widely studied and well documented. Although this behavior has been examined from various perspectives, such as the economic and social impact on families when an offender is incarcerated, the influence of these familial relations on offenders during confinement and subsequent return to the community, from the viewpoint of the offenders, themselves, are almost nonexistent. Hence, the purpose of this research is to assess the familial orientations that are predictive of recidivism among incarcerated offenders and persons under parole supervision.

This study therefore assesses the relationships between males, who were previously under parole supervision of the Michigan Department of Corrections and their families, specifically their significant others, such as wife or girlfriends, and their children. The objective is to understand the impact that these relationships may have in influencing the attitudes and behaviors of offenders toward the involvement in prison misconduct, new criminal activity or technical rule violations (“Definition of Key Terms” section to follow).

In addition to the collection and analysis of data, this study utilized this author’s 24 years experience as a corrections officer, probation and parole agent in the state of Michigan to provide additional insight in various sections of this paper and to assist in the explanation of research outcomes. For example, based on this writer’s knowledge of the decision making process in dealing with deviant behavior by offenders, the choice to return an offender to prison has often
been based on various factors beyond the behavior of the offender, such as the availability of bed space or the need to reduce prison overcrowding.

4.2 Data

The data analyzed in this study was collected and analyzed from two sources: First, a survey questionnaire was developed which contained 54 questions covering a variety of demographic, socio-economic, social- psychological, interpersonal, prison misconduct and parole violation features of the participants’ experience before, during and after incarceration. Although many of the participants had been to prison on more than one occasion, the questionnaire only solicited responses that centered on the ex-offenders most recent prison experience.

Second, the public records of the Michigan Department of Corrections were utilized. This data provided a wealth of information that was instrumental in validating the truthfulness of the responses by the participants and their actual prison and parole behavior. This data included participant’s criminal history, prison misconduct records and correctional release and prison return information, new felony or misdemeanor convictions while under parole supervision, types of parole violations committed and whether or not participants engaged in the use of any controlled substances while in prison or under parole supervision. Based upon the information obtained through these records, several variables were created. These variables focused specifically on the types of misconducts that occurred while in prison and types of violations while under parole supervision. Due to the lack of availability of information regarding the participants’ previous periods of incarceration, the data collected only examined the subjects’ most recent period of confinement.
4.3 Sampling

Given the social stigma attached to serving time in prison and the difficulties perceived by this writer with obtaining information on this study population, the nonprobability referral sampling technique was chosen. According to Sedlack & Stanley (1992: 144-145):

Referral samples are often the only way to do certain types of social research, particularly in the area of social deviance….One of the major advantages of almost all nonprobability sampling designs is that they are, generally, more economical in terms of effort, time and money than probability sampling designs…..Nonprobability sampling designs rest strongly on the research situation and ability to select typical elements for study. The major difficulty is with one’s ability to use established inferential statistics in a conventional manner. The researcher’s expertise-which has been gathered through a lifetime of study-should not be discounted. Such knowledge conscientiously applied can result in highly representative samples from which logically inductive extrapolation to sampling frames can be made.

The responses for this study come from a survey of participants who met the following criteria: 1. Male; 2. No longer under the supervision of the Michigan Department of Corrections; 3. If participant had children, he did not have court order or special parole condition barring contact with his children. Contact was made with the participants via the following procedure: First, a list of offenders who would be discharging from parole supervision each month was obtained via the Freedom of Information Act. This list included the date the subject was scheduled to discharge, the supervising parole officer and the parole office that the subject reported to. Second, three Wayne County Parole Offices were targeted for assistance with identification and communication with potential participants. These offices were selected because they supervised offenders representing every zip code in the Wayne County region, which provided a greater representation of the general population. Third, this writer obtained permission from parole authorities to request voluntary assistance from parole officers at each of these locations. Two parole officers from each of the three locations agreed to assist in the
research efforts. After writer received the monthly list of potential subjects who were discharging from parole supervision, contact was made with these agents to inform them of the pending discharge. These agents would then talk with the offender to see if he would be willing to participate in the research study upon parole discharge. If the subject was willing to participate, the parole officer would read a written description of the study to the participant. The offenders were informed that they were under no obligation to participate, and they would only be contacted once they completed their period of parole supervision. 

Upon completion of their parole period, this writer contacted those participants who expressed an interest in participating in the study. Arrangements were made to interview the subjects. Additionally, research flyers were placed at various locations in the Wayne County region, specifically community barber shops, churches, job placement agencies and recreation centers. However, these sites successfully solicited 1% (2) of the participants interviewed. The data was collected for approximately twelve months from 2009 through 2010.

Prior to the beginning the data collection process, permission to collect this data was granted by the Wayne State Institutional Review Board. A total of 105 surveys were completed, while 42 potential subjects refused to participate, or could not be reached after agreeing to participate. The sample consisted of 51 (48.6%) Caucasian American, 51(48.6%) African Americans, 2 (1.9%) Hispanic Americans and 1 (1%) was Arabic American. The respondents ranged in age from 22 to 70 years old. The mean age of all respondents was 37 years. All questionnaires administered were returned and retained (even though some amount of missing data was noted) and entered into a data set using the SPSS statistical software.
4.4 Instrument

The survey instrument used was a self-administered questionnaire that was administered to some participants, when necessary for understanding. A total of 54 questions comprised the questionnaire under 9 main sections: social background characteristics, education prior to incarceration, education/training accomplishments while incarcerated, factors important to education/training accomplishment, factors important to prison release, age and length of time incarcerated, age and length of time on parole, financial and home placement status while on parole, relationship with spouse or partner and relationship with children. Most of the responses were measured on a Likert scale with the strength of responses measured from “Very Important” (4) to “Not Important” (1), others were yes/no type responses (see Appendix A for a copy of the survey instrument).

4.5 Definition of Key Terms

The following sections will define both dependent and independent variables that were used in the analyses of the data.

Dependent Variables

Prison Misconducts

The first dependent variable, prison misconducts, examined only major rule violations committed by the participants while incarcerated. According to Michigan Department of Corrections Policy Directive 03.03.105, major misconducts are defined as behavior violations of written rules, identified by certain characteristics. These violations range from prison policy violations to felonies. Prison misconducts also had several nested categories. The dependent
variable analysis was done on the following nested categories of prison misconduct: assaultive
natured misconducts, theft related misconducts, drug/alcohol misconducts, prison disturbance
misconducts and possession of contraband/weapons misconducts. The definition of each variable
within each misconduct category was defined by the Michigan Department of Corrections Policy
Directive 03.03.105.

A. Assaultive Nature Misconducts

Within the category of assaultive nature misconducts were rule violations for the
following: (1) staff assault, (2) prisoner assault, (3) sexual assault/staff, (4) sexual
assault/prisoner, (5) fighting, (6) threatening behavior. According to Policy Directive
03.03.105, staff and prisoner assaults was defined as a physical attack on another person which
resulted or was intended to result in serious physical injury. Serious physical injury means any
injury which would ordinarily require medical treatment. In addition, it is also classified as
intentional, non-consensual touching of another person done either in anger or with the purpose
of abusing or injuring another; physical resistance or physical interference with an employee.
Injury is not necessary but contact is.

Policy Directive 03.03.105 defines sexual assault/staff and sexual assault/prisoner as non-
consensual sexual acts, meaning sexual penetration of, or sexual contact with, another person
without that person’s consent or with a person who is unable to consent or refuse; abusive sexual
contact, meaning physical contact with another person for sexual purposes without that person’s
consent or with a person who is unable to consent or refuse.

PD 03.03.105 defines fighting as physical confrontation between two or more persons,
including a swing and miss, done in anger or with intent to injure. Finally, threatening behavior
is described as words, actions, or other behavior which expresses intent to injure or physically abuse another person. Such misconduct includes attempted assault and battery.

**B. Theft Related Misconducts**

Within the category of theft related misconducts were the following: (1) theft: possession of stolen property (2) forgery. Again, using PD 03.03.105 to define these violations, theft, possession of stolen property was described as any unauthorized taking of property which belongs to another; possession of property which the prisoner knows, or should have known, has been stolen. Forgery was classified as knowingly possessing a falsified or altered document; altering or falsifying a document with the intent to deceive or defraud; unauthorized possession or use of the identification card, or prisoner store card, pass, or detail of another prisoner.

**C. Substance Abuse Misconducts**

The third category, substance abuse contained only one variable, substance abuse. According to PD 03.03.105, substance abuse was defined as possession, use, selling, or providing to others, or being under the influence of, any intoxicant, inhalant, controlled substance (as defined by Michigan statutes), alcoholic beverages, marijuana or any other substance which is used to cause a condition of intoxication, euphoria, excitement, exhilaration, stupefaction, or dulling of the senses or nervous system; unauthorized possession or use of prescribed or restricted medication; possession of narcotics paraphernalia; failure or refusal to voluntarily submit to substance abuse testing which is requested by the Department for the purposes of determining the presence in the prisoner of any substance included in this charge; possession of a tobacco product.
D. Prison Disturbance Misconducts

The fourth category, prison disturbance misconducts contained the following prison misconduct variables: (1) disobeying a direct order, (2) creating a disturbance, (3) Interference with administrative rules, (4) Insolence, (5) unauthorized occupation of a cell or room, (6) AWOL—out of place, (7) escape, and (8) destruction of property. Again, using PD 03.03.105 to define each variable, disobeying a direct order was classified as refusal or failure to follow a valid and reasonable order of an employee. Creating a disturbance was identified as actions or words of a prisoner which result in disruption or disturbance among others, but which does not endanger persons or property.

The third misconduct type within the category of prison disturbance was interference with administrative rules. Per PD 03.03.105, this variable was identified as acts intending to impede, disrupt, or mislead the disciplinary process for staff or prisoners, including failure to comply with a loss of privileges sanction imposed by a hearing officer. The variable insolence, was described as words, actions, or other behavior which is intended to harass, degrade, or cause alarm in an employee. The fifth variable within this category was unauthorized occupation of a cell or room. This variable was defined as being in another prisoner’s cell or room, or clearly defined living area, without specific authorization from staff; being present in any cell, room or other walled area with another prisoner or prisoners or a member or members of the public without authorization.

The sixth misconduct type within the category of prison disturbance, absent without leave (AWOL)—out of place was identified by PD 03.03.105 as being within the lawful boundaries of confinement and not attempting to escape, but in a location without the proper authorization to be there; absent from where one is required to be; breaking toplock without authorization; being
outside assigned housing unit without prisoner identification card; being absent from required location during count. Escape was characterized as leaving or failing to return to lawful custody without authorization; failure to remain within authorized time or location limits (a) while on a public works crew; (b) while under electronic monitoring; or (c) during an authorized absence from work, school, or other activity while residing in a community correction center. Finally, PD 03.03.105 defines the eighth variable, destruction or misuse of property with a value of $10 or more as any destruction, removal, alteration, tampering, or other unauthorized use of property which has a value of $10 or more; unauthorized possession of a component part of an item which has a value of $10 or more.

E. Possession of Dangerous Contraband/Weapons Misconducts

The fifth category, possession of dangerous contraband/ weapons contained the following misconduct variables: (1) possession of a weapon, (2) possession of dangerous contraband, and (3) smuggling. Again, using PD 03.03.105 to define each variable, possession of a weapon was described as unauthorized possession of any item designed or intended to be used to cause or threaten physical injury to another person; unauthorized possession of piece, strip, or chunk of any hard material which could be used as a weapon or in the creation of a weapon. Possession of dangerous contraband was described as unauthorized possession of an explosive, acid, caustic, toxin, material for incendiary device; escape material; detailed road map for any area within the state of Michigan, adjacent state or Ontario, Canada; bodily fluid stored in a container within a cell or room; tattoo device; cell phone or other electronic communication device or accessory; a critical or dangerous tool or other item needing to be strictly controlled as “tool control,” including failure to return any item covered by the definition which is signed out for a work or school assignment or any other purpose. Finally, smuggling was classified as bringing or
attempting to bring any unauthorized item into or out of a correctional facility or a specialized area or unit within a facility, such as segregation.

**Recidivism**

The standards for returning an offender to prison that is under parole supervision often change over the course of time. Currently these standards are more stringent than in times past. In light of these fluctuations in parole standards, the second dependent (outcome) variable, recidivism, was measured by the following four operational definitions: (1.) Respondents convicted of a new felony offense while under supervision; (2.) Respondents convicted of a new misdemeanor, excluding traffic offenses while under supervision; (3.) Participants convicted of one or more traffic violations resulting in fines of $100 or more, or sentenced to 30 days or more or both while under supervision; (4.) Participants found guilty of (1) one or more technical rule violations while on parole.

**Independent Variables**

The independent (predictor) variables for the predictive model will be divided into three broad categories: quality of relationship with child factors, quality of relationship with wife/significant other factors and demographic/personal factors. Each of these variables contains several indicators and these are detailed below.

**Child Quality**

The quality of the relationship between the offender and his children is comprised of various questions that measure the importance and strength of these relationships. Child quality is measured with eighteen questions:
1. Did your child or children live with you full-time, part-time or not at all prior to your most recent period of confinement?

2. Did your child or children live with you full-time, part-time or not at all while you were on parole supervision?

3. How would you classify the bond between you and your child prior to prison? Responses were on a 5-point Likert scale from (1) Very Weak (2) Weak (3) Average (4) Strong (5) Very Strong.


5. Prior to going to prison, did you support your child or children financially? Yes No Sometimes

6. Prior to going to prison, how often did you express your support to your child or children for the positive things they did? (1) Never to (5) Very Often

7. How would you classify the bond between you and your child or children while in prison? (1) Very Poor (2) Poor (3) Average (4) Good (5) Very Good

8. How often did your child or children visit you while in prison? (1) Never to (5) Very Often

9. How often did your child or children speak to you by telephone in prison? (1) Never to (5) Very Often

10. How often did your child or children write to you while in prison? (1) Never to (5) Very Often

11. While in prison, how often did you express your support to your child or children for the positive things they did? (1) Never to (5) Very Often
12. How important was the relationship with your child or children to your successful release from prison? (1) Not Important (2) Somewhat Important (3) Important (4) Very Important

13. How would you classify the bond between you and your child while on parole? (1) Very Poor (2) Poor (3) Average (4) Good (5) Very Good

14. How important was the relationship with your child or children in you not committing any new crimes? (1) Not Important (2) Somewhat Important (3) Important (4) Very Important

15. How important was the relationship with your child or children in you not committing technical rule violations? (1) Not Important (2) Somewhat Important (3) Important (4) Very Important

16. While on parole, how much time did you spend with your child or children?

17. While on parole, did you support your child or children financially? Yes No Sometimes


Spouse Quality

The quality of the relationship between the offender and his spouse or significant other is comprised of various questions that measure the importance and strength of these relationships. Spouse quality is measured with nine questions:

1. How would you classify the bond between you and your spouse or partner prior to prison? 1) Very Weak (2) Weak (3) Average (4) Strong (5) Very Strong.
2. How would you classify the bond between you and your spouse or partner while in prison? 1) Very Weak 2) Weak 3) Average 4) Strong 5) Very Strong.


5. While in prison, how often did your spouse or partner write to you? 1. Never 2. rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Very Often

6. How important was the relationship with your spouse or partner to your successful release from prison? (1) Not Important (2) Somewhat Important (3) Important (4) Very Important

7. How would you classify the bond between you and your spouse or partner while on parole? (1) Very Weak (2) Weak (3) Average (4) Strong (5) Very Strong

8. How important was the relationship with your spouse or partner in you not committing any new crimes? (1) Not Important (2) Somewhat Important (3) Important (4) Very Important

9. How important was the relationship with your spouse or partner in you not committing technical rule violations? (1) Not Important (2) Somewhat Important (3) Important (4) Very Important

Demographic/Personal Factors

From the review of literature and an examination of the theoretical perspectives used in previous research on offender behavior and family relations, five demographic variables are used in this study: Race, age at sentencing, age at parole, level of education before incarceration, level
of education/training obtained during incarceration. Each item is measured by a single item. Six racial categories were provided (1) African-American (2) Caucasian-American (3) Hispanic-American (4) Asian-American (5) Bi-racial American and (6) other (please specify). Respondents were asked what they considered themselves to be.

For age respondents were asked to fill in the question “What year were you born?” Respondents were also asked “At what age were you sentenced to prison for your most recent conviction?” This question was useful in examining prison behavior when age was examined. Finally, respondents were asked, “At what age were you placed on parole?” This question was used to examine parole behavior when age was taken into account.

Level of education was measured using a single item. Respondents were asked: “What was your highest level of education completed before going to prison on your most recent conviction?” Responses ranged from (1) less than 12 years to (6) Bachelor’s Degree. This writer assumed that some respondents who had not completed a minimum of a GED, high school diploma or training program would do so while incarcerated. Therefore, education or training obtained during incarceration was examined. Respondents were asked the question, “If you completed an education or training program while incarcerated, what type of program did you complete?” Responses included: (1) GED (2) high school diploma (3) Associate’s Degree (4) Bachelor’s Degree (5) training program (please specify).

Personal background factors were comprised of the following factors, which examined the subject’s status after being placed on parole: amount of time to obtain full-time employment, home placement and financial contribution to home placement. The respondent’s were asked, “When placed on parole, how long did it take you to obtain steady employment (30 hours or
more per week)?” Responses ranged from (1) 0 – 3 months to (7) did not find steady employment.

The home placement of an offender during community supervision often fluctuates over the course of supervision. Offenders are allowed to relocate to an alternative from their original home placement. This research examined with whom the subject resided during his parole period, and allowed for the subject to inform of an alternative placement in chronological order. The respondents were asked, “While on parole, who did you live with?” The responses ranged from (1) wife to (11) other, please specify. Finally, the respondent’s were questioned about their financial contribution to their home placement. They were asked, “Did you contribute financially to your home placement while on parole?” The responses were: (1) yes (2) sometimes and (3) no.

4.6 Research Questions and Hypotheses

Previous research regarding the relationship between prisoners and their families has often focused on the impact of the offender’s behavior on his family. This research takes an alternate position, and examines the impact of these relationships upon the behavior of prisoners and parolees. It is assumed that these relationships are significant predictors in the success while incarcerated and during the subsequent parole period. Therefore, the following research areas are presented: The quality of the relationship between an offender and his wife or significant other may be related to his behavior while incarcerated and while under parole supervision. The quality of the relationship between the offender and his children may be related to his behavior while incarcerated and while under parole supervision. The quality of the relationship between an offender and his wife or significant other may intervene with demographic/personal variables and, may be related to his behavior while in prison and under parole supervision. The quality of
the relationship between an offender and his children may intervene with demographic/personal variables to influence his behavior while in prison and under parole supervision.

Research Hypotheses

The literature review discussed previously revealed some pertinent familial factors that affect offender behavior while incarcerated and under parole supervision. In this study, some of these factors have been selected and are hypothesized to predict offender behavior while incarcerated and during their parole supervision period.

General Hypotheses

Family quality (the level of commitment to and importance of family relations with child, wife or significant other), demographic/personal factors (age, race, level of education) will be important predictors of offender behavior while incarcerated and while under parole supervision.

Specific Hypotheses

Spouse Hypotheses for Prison Misconduct

**Hypothesis 1:** The demographic variables of race, age and education at time of sentencing will be significant predictors of prison misconducts.

**Hypothesis 2:** Marital status while incarcerated will be a significant predictor of prison misconducts.

**Hypothesis 4:** The strength of the bond with spouse or partner prior to prison will be a significant predictor of prison misconducts.

**Hypothesis 5:** The strength of the bond with spouse or partner while in prison will be a significant predictor of prison misconducts.

**Hypothesis 6:** The amount of contact with spouse or partner while in prison will be a significant predictor of prison misconducts.
Hypothesis 7: The importance of the relationship with spouse or partner while in prison will be a significant predictor of prison misconducts

Child Hypotheses for Prison Misconduct

Hypothesis 8: Having children prior to incarceration will be a significant predictor of prison misconduct

Hypothesis 9: The amount of time spent with child(ren) prior to prison will be a significant predictor of prison misconducts

Hypothesis 10: The amount of contact with children while in prison will be a significant predictor of prison misconducts

Hypothesis 11: The strength of the bond with child(ren) prior to prison will be a significant predictor of prison misconducts

Hypothesis 12: The strength of the bond with child(ren) during prison will be a significant predictor of prison misconducts

Hypothesis 13: The importance of relationship with child(ren) while incarcerated will be a significant predictor of prison misconducts

Spouse Hypotheses for Recidivism

Hypothesis 14: The demographic variable, age will be significant predictors of recidivism

Hypothesis 15: Educational attainment while incarcerated will be a significant predictor of recidivism

Hypothesis 16: Marital status while under parole supervision will be a significant predictor of recidivism

Hypothesis 17: The strength of bond with spouse or partner while on parole will be a significant predictor of recidivism

Hypothesis 18: The importance of the relationship with spouse or partner will be a significant predictor of recidivism

Child Hypotheses for Recidivism

Hypothesis 19: Having child(ren) will be a significant predictor of recidivism.
Hypothesis 20: The residence of child(ren) while on parole will be a significant predictor of recidivism

Hypothesis 21: The bond with child(ren) while on parole will be a significant predictor of recidivism

Hypothesis 22: The importance of the relationship with child(ren) while on parole will be a significant predictor of recidivism

Hypothesis 23: The amount of time spent with child(ren) while on parole will be a significant predictor of recidivism

4.7 Data Analysis

Variables were first cleaned in preparation for analysis. Upon completion, univariate and bivariate analyses were conducted. Bivariate correlation matrix was requested through the use of the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) to evaluate the degree of relationship between all interval-ratio variables in the study. Correlation analysis examines the measurement of size and direction of the linear relationship between two quantitative variables.

Hierarchical linear multiple regression allows for prediction of the relationship that exists between several quantitative independent variables and a single quantitative dependent variable. It also allows for identifying the best predictor of a dependent variable. This is determined by the assumptions that the relationship between the independent and dependent variable is linear, normality, lack of multicollinearity (redundancy of variables), fixed independent variables, lack of measurement error, residual errors are independent of any error on the dependent variable, constant variance across all values of the independent variables, normal distribution of errors and the mean of the residuals for each observation on the dependent variable over many replications is zero (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005).

Determining model fit of the regression model depends on how well the indicators of the independent variables can predict the outcome or dependent variables. These
Determinants are the multiple correlation, \( R \) the squared multiple correlation \( (R^2) \), and the adjusted squared multiple correlation \( (R^2_{adj}) \) the degree of variance explained by the independent variable. The contribution of each independent variable is accounted for by the change in the \( R^2 \) that is calculated at each step. The significant F-test is another indicator of how significantly the model predicts the dependent variable. The coefficient table uses the Beta (B) and tolerance statistics to allow interpretation of the importance of each independent variable at each increment to the model and the testing of linearity respectively (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005).

The limitation of the technique is that “It often depends on cross-sectional data thus model validity is limited merely to that sample at that point in time. Further, while several techniques exist for entering data into a regression equation, one methodological flaw, is the temptation to allow technology to drive the variable selection process instead of theory and findings from previous research” (Marshall, 2010:104). Multiple Regression analysis is considered a fitting statistical technique for testing the hypothesized model of familial influence on offender behavior and is therefore employed for this study.

Factor analysis was used to determine the level of shared variance among the variables. According to Mertler & Vannatta (2005: 17) “Factor analysis allows the researcher to explore underlying structures of an instrument or data set and is often used to develop and test theory.” Therefore, the focus is on determining whether or not the different variables are really measuring the same thing or not. The use of factor analysis allows for the reduction of variables based on group clustering i.e., variables that measure the same thing. These factor loadings are interpreted, using Pearson correlation coefficient ranging between 0 to +1.00. Principal component rotation to analyze the variance and derive components from the variables is used in this study. To determine the number of components to select, components with eigen values
greater than 1 are retained. Determination is also made based on the scree plot, the attaining of 70% criterion, and the assessment of model fit using the reproduced correlation produced in SPSS. The main purpose for using factor analysis is to derive linear uncorrelated combinations of the independent variables. The derived components will make up the independent variables and are used in a series of hierarchical linear regression models that will later be estimated.

This research also examined the significance of group differences. According to Mertler & Vannatta (2005:14), “a primary purpose of testing for group differences is to determine a causal relationship between the independent and dependent variables.” This research utilized both univariate and multivariate techniques for assessing group differences. “Multivariate analysis of variance is the multivariate extension of the univariate techniques for assessing the differences between group means. The univariate procedures include the t test for two-group situations and ANOVA for situations with three or more groups defined by two or more independent variables” (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998:331).

According to Hair et al (1998:331), “The t-test assesses the statistical significance of the difference between two independent sample means.” This research specifically utilized the Independent samples T-test, because with this test, each case must have scores on two variables, the grouping variable and the test variable. The grouping variable is then divided into exclusive categories or groups, while the test variable describes each case on some quantitative dimension (Green & Salkind 2008). This test makes the following assumptions: 1. the test variable is normally distributed in each of the two populations (as defined by the grouping variable); 2. the variances of the normally distributed test variable for the populations are equal; and 3. the cases represent a random sample from the population, and the scores on the test variable are independent of each other (Green & Salkind 2008). Therefore, since many of the independent
variables met the assumptions for this test, this procedure represented an appropriate procedure to use.

According to Mertler & Vannatta (2005:15), the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), “test the significance of group differences between two or more means as it analyzes variation between and within each group. ANOVA is appropriate when the independent variable is defined as having two or more categories and the dependent variable is quantitative.” The ANOVA represented an appropriate procedure, particularly because it allowed for more categorical variance in the independent variables. This in turn provided a more complete picture of the data results.

This research used the One-Way ANOVA test specifically. According to Green & Salkind (2008), for this test to be used properly, each case must have scores on two variables: a factor and a dependent variable. The factor divides individuals into two or more groups or levels, while the dependent variable differentiates individuals on a quantitative dimension. The ANOVA $F$-test evaluates whether the group means on a dependent variable differ significantly from one another. Green & Salkind (2008) further add that the One-Way ANOVA has three assumptions: 1. the dependent variable is normally distributed for each of the populations as defined by the different level of the factor; 2. the variances of the dependent variable are the same for all populations; and 3. the cases represent random samples from the populations and the scores on the test.
This research utilizes, univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analyses. All assumptions (e.g., variability, levels of measurement, normality, and linearity) and criteria for the different techniques were taken into consideration prior to analyses.

Initially, univariate analyses were conducted to observe the patterns of the data. These analyses consisted of descriptive statistics (frequencies, measures of central tendency, and dispersion). Graphical analyses (i.e., bar charts, tables) were used to provide a visual observation of the distribution of the variables.

Second, a series of bivariate analyses (i.e., independent samples t-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to test differences across the demographic/personal factors, relationship domains of spouse or significant other and children. The goal of these tests was to see if there were significant mean differences along these domains with regard to the number of prison misconducts received while incarcerated and recidivism (i.e., number of technical rule violations and/or new misdemeanor or felony convictions while under parole supervision).

Finally, where data permits, multivariate analyses tests were conducted, specifically linear regression models. These models were estimated to incorporate selected predictor variables, along with demographic variables of age and education to evaluate the dynamics of these demographic variables on the outcome variables of the number of prison misconducts and recidivism.

Additionally, as previously indicated earlier in chapter three on methodology, several of the issues included in the following analysis are included based on the author’s 24 years experience as a correction officer, probation and parole agent in the state of Michigan.
5.1 Demographic/Personal Factors

The first section of this chapter examines the demographic/personal factors of the study population. Next, univariate analysis results are presented and discussed. The sample used in this study is representative of male ex-offenders, who were previously incarcerated within the Michigan Department of Corrections and then completed a parole supervision period. Table 1 presents a general summation of the sample characteristics of this group. Each of these variables was analyzed on a more in-depth basis to provide greater details. An original total of 105 respondents comprised the sample, and of these, 48.6% (51) were African American, 48.6% (51) Caucasian American, 1.9% (2) Hispanic American and 1% (1) Arabic American. Due to the small number of Hispanic and Arabic Americans represented in the sample, and the possibility that these small numbers may impact the study outcomes, these groups were removed from the study. After the removal of these groups, the total number of participants was reduced to 102.

This study examined the age of the respondents at two different points: 1. Age at the time of sentencing, and 2. Age at the time of release to parole supervision. The mean and median ages of the sample at the time of sentencing were 30.6 and 28 years old. The mean and median ages at the time of release to parole supervision were 36.8 and 32.5 years old. Most of the respondents in the study (54.9%) did not have a high school diploma or GED prior to being incarcerated, and the majority (56.4%) classified themselves as single. Table 1 informs that 72.3% of the participants had children at some point, either before or during incarceration, and/or while under parole supervision.
Table 1: Sample Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(N = 102)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Caucasian-American</td>
<td>50.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>African – American</td>
<td>50.0</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Education Prior to Incarceration</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than high school diploma</td>
<td>54.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>High school diploma</td>
<td>17.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>GED</td>
<td>15.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Some college</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate’s degree</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>2.0</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status at Time of Sentencing</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single (Including divorced prior to sentencing)</td>
<td>56.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced while incarcerated</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married and/or separated</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not married, in relationship</td>
<td>22.8</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Relationship Status While on Parole</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse or partner while on parole</td>
<td>79.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No relationship while on parole</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parental Status</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had children</td>
<td>72.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not have children</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**Age of Participants at Time of Sentencing**

At the time of sentencing for their crimes, the respondents ranged in age from 17 to 67 years old. Due to the small number of age outliers, the mode output was examined. The mode result was 29 years old. This variable was recoded into incremental age categories to examine the age groupings of the participants. Table 2 indicates that approximately 55% (56) of the participants in this study were 29 years of age or less at the time of their sentencing, while approximately 45% (46) of the study population were 30 years or older at the time of sentencing.
Table 2: Frequency Distribution by Age Categories at Time of Sentencing
(N = 102)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age At Sentencing Categories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid 20 years and younger</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years to 24 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 years to 29 years</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 years to 34 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>66.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>35 years to 39 years</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>79.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 years to 44 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>86.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>45 years to 49 years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 years and older</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Age of Participants by Ethnicity at Time of Sentencing

When the ages of the participants were examined in comparison to their ethnicity, the results indicated that approximately 55% (28) of the Caucasian participants were 29 years of age or younger, while approximately 45% (23) were 30 years of age or older at the time of sentencing. For those respondents who classified themselves as African American, 55% (28) were 29 years of age or younger, while 45% (23) were 30 years old or greater. Therefore, the sample population for each group was identical when the distribution for age by race/ethnicity was examined.

Age of Participants at Time of Parole

The participants ranged in age from 19 to 68 years old at the time they were placed under parole supervision. This variable was recoded by age categories. Table 3 shows that 41.2% (42) of the participants were 29 years old or younger, while 58.8% (60) were 30 years old or greater at the time they were released to parole supervision.
Table 3: Frequency Distribution by Age Categories at Parole (N=102)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age at Parole Categories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 years and younger</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years to 24 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 years to 29 years</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>41.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>30 years to 34 years</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>53.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>35 years to 39 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>65.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>40 years to 44 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>74.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>45 years to 49 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>86.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 years and older</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Education Levels Prior to Incarceration

When the education levels of the participants prior to incarceration were examined, the results indicated that 54.9% (56) of the respondents had less than a high school diploma or GED, while 17.6% (18) had a diploma and 15.7% (16) had a GED. Additionally, 8 (7.6%) had some college, while 2 (2%) had an associate degree and 2 (2%) had a bachelor’s degree.

Education/Training Program Completed by Type during Incarceration

The level of education was also measured after the respondents’ periods of incarceration. Michigan prisoners are currently not afforded an opportunity to obtain a level of education beyond a GED. Therefore, this research examined whether or not the participants completed a GED program or secured some form of training while confined.

Prisoners are afforded opportunities to complete a wide array of training programs while incarcerated, which can range from substance abuse counseling and assaultive offenders programs to some form of parenting classes.

A cross-tabulation analysis was performed to examine whether or not the participants completed their GED or some type of training while incarcerated. These results show that out of
the 56 participants who had not completed a GED prior to incarceration, 64.3% (36), earned their GED and 12.5% (7) completed some type of training program, while 23.2% (13) did not complete a GED or training program. Of those respondents with a high school diploma, 50% (9) completed a training program, while 50% (9) did not. Of those participants who had a GED prior to incarceration, 56.3% (9) completed some type of training program, while 43.8% (7) did not complete a training program. Interestingly, those participants with some college, associate degree or bachelors’ degree were less likely to have completed a training program than those with less education. Out of the eight respondents who had some college education, 62.5% (5) did not complete a training program, while 37.5% (3) did complete a training program. Of the two participants with an associate degree, neither completed a training program, while the one participant with a bachelor’s degree completed a training program and the second participant did not. The examination of the types of training programs that the participants completed while confined would seem to indicate that being incarcerated had a significant impact on the respondents’ educational attainment.

**Education Levels by Race Prior to Incarceration**

Prior to analysis, the Education Prior to Incarceration variable was recoded into two categories: (1) did not obtain high school diploma or GED, (2) obtained high school diploma, GED or higher. A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether there was a difference in the education levels by ethnicity in the study participants prior to prison. Next, a cross-tabulation analysis was performed to determine the following: (1) Does there appear to be a relationship between race/ethnicity and education level prior to prison? (2) How strong is the relationship? (3) What is the direction of the relationship? Chart 1 provides a graphic visual, which shows that 53% (27) of the Caucasian respondents did not have a high
school diploma or GED before incarceration, while 47% (24) had obtained their high school diploma. In addition, 57% (29) of African American respondents did not have a high school diploma or GED prior to incarceration, while 43% (22) had obtained their high school diploma or GED. These results indicate that ethnicity and the level of education prior to incarceration were not significantly related. The Cramer’s V result was .691, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, these results suggest that there is no relationship between the race/ethnicity of the participants and their educational levels prior to prison.

Chart 1: Education Levels by Race/Ethnicity Prior to Prison

Marital Status Prior to Incarceration

The frequency distribution for the participants’ marital status was examined in the same way that the question was asked of the participants without recoding the results. Table 4 indicates that only 12.7% (13) of the respondents were married, while 6.9% (7) were separated at
the time of incarceration. Eight respondents (7.9%) were divorced prior to confinement and 1% (1) was divorced while in prison. The vast majority (48.5% or 49) of the participants were single, while 22.8% (23) were in a relationship, but were not married.

Table 4: Frequency Distribution by Marital Status Prior to Incarceration (N=101)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents Marital Status while in Prison</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced prior to prison term</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced while in prison</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>28.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>77.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In relationship, not married</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>99.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relationship Status While On Parole

The relationship status of the respondents during parole supervision was dichotomized into whether or not the subject was involved in a relationship. Table 5 shows that approximately 79% (80) respondents indicated that they were in a relationship with a spouse or partner while under parole supervision. This number stands in stark contrast to the status of the participants while incarcerated. These results suggest that the majority of participants did not have the support of a spouse or partner while incarcerated, but enjoyed the benefits of these relationships while under parole supervision.
Table 5: Frequency Distribution by Relationship Status While on Parole (N=101)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did respondent have a spouse or partner while on parole</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>78.4</td>
<td>79.2</td>
<td>79.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>99.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Parental Status

The majority of the participants were parents while under the jurisdiction of the Michigan Department of Corrections. In table 6, percent distributions and a summary of the subjects’ parental status prior to incarceration, during confinement, and while under parole supervision are provided. Participants were classified as “Not Applicable” if they did not have children. The results indicate that a majority of participants, 72.3% (72) were parents at some point during their period of supervision under the Michigan Department of Corrections. In addition, 55.4% (56) had children prior to incarceration, while 9.9% (10) became fathers for the first time while incarcerated, and 16.8% (17) experienced fatherhood for the first time while under parole supervision.
Table 6: Frequency Distribution by Parental Status Before, During and After Incarceration Period
(N=101)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Name</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Not Applicable</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did respondent have children?</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>72.3%</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td></td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did respondent have children prior to incarceration?</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>55.4%</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First child born while incarcerated?</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>63.4%</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First child born while on parole?</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.8%</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>56.4%</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Home Placement of Child Prior to Father’s Incarceration

The home placement of the participants’ children was examined and provided some interesting results. Given the possibility that some participants may have had children by different women, this variable examined the placement of each of the subject’s children on an individual basis. This variable examined whether or not the child resided with the father full time, part time or not at all prior to incarceration. The results only included those children who were eighteen years old or younger and/or still residing in the parental home. Additionally, the respondents listed their children in order, from the youngest to the oldest.

The results indicate that out of 42 participants with at least one child prior to incarceration, the majority of these fathers resided with at least one of their children full time prior to incarceration (57% or 24), while 19% (8) resided with their children part-time, and 24% (10) did not reside with their first child at all. Twenty six participants had at least two children eligible for study inclusion. These results showed that 58 % (15) resided with a second child full time, 15% (4) resided with this child part-time and 27% (7) did not reside with this child at all.
Seventeen participants had at least three children eligible for analysis. Of those respondents with at least three children, 53% (9) resided with a third child full time, while 23.5% (4) resided with this child part time and 23.5% (4) did not reside with a third child at all. Eleven participants had at least four children, and 55% (6) resided with a fourth child full time, while 45% (5) did not reside with a fourth child at all prior to incarceration. Seven participants had at least five children that met study eligibility. 43% (3) resided with a fifth child full time, while 57% (4) did not reside with the fifth child at all. Finally, these results reveal that the respondents were more likely to reside with their most recent children.

### Table 7: Frequency Distribution of Father/Child Home Placement Prior to Incarceration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total Number of Full Time Placement</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Part-Time Placement</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Did Not Reside with Child</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child One</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Two</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Three</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Four</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Five</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Home Placement of Child While Father Is on Parole**

Similar to the previous variable of home placement prior to incarceration, this variable also examined whether or not the child resided with the father full time, part time or not at all while the father was under parole supervision. The results only included those children who were eighteen years old or younger and/or still residing in the parental home. 55 participants out of the total of 102 had at least one child who was eligible for analysis. The other participants
either did not have children, or their children were above the age of consideration and were not included. Table 8, provides total and percentage distribution for the placement of the respondents and their children after incarceration. The results show that approximately 24% (13) of participants had at least one child, and resided full time with their first child while under parole supervision, while 38% (21) resided with this child part time, and 38% (21) did not reside with this child at all while under parole supervision. Thirty participants had at least two children who fit the criteria for analysis. These results showed that approximately 37% (11) participants resided full time with their second child, while 30% (9) resided with the second child part time, and approximately 33% (10) did not reside with this child at all during the parole period.

The results indicate a shift for those participants with three or more children. Those participants with two children or fewer, eighteen years or younger, tended to reside full time or part time with these children, while those with three or more children typically did not reside with the third, fourth or fifth child. This may be explained by a participant having children by different women. Seventeen participants had at least three children who were eligible for study inclusion. Approximately 24% (4) resided with a third child on a full time basis, while 24% (4) resided with this child on a part time basis, and approximately 53% (9) did not reside with the third child all. Thirteen participants had at least four children who were eligible for inclusion in the study. The results indicated that 23% (3) participants resided with a fourth child on a full time basis, while 12% (2) resided with this child on a part time basis, and 47% (8) did not reside with the fourth child at all while under parole supervision. Finally, eight participants had five children who were eligible for inclusion in the analysis. 25% (2) resided with a fifth child on a full time basis, while 13% (1) resided with his child on a part time basis, and 62.5% (5) did not reside with this child at all while under parole supervision.
Table 8: Frequency Distribution of Father/Child Home Placement while under parole supervision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Child</th>
<th>Total Number of Full Time Placement</th>
<th>Total Number of Valid Part-Time Placement</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Did Not Reside with Child</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child One</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Two</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Three</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Four</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Five</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Amount of Time Incarcerated

The variable “yearsconfined” (actual number of years confined) examined the amount of time the participants were incarcerated within the Michigan Department of Corrections. The results indicated that the mean number of years incarcerated for the study participants was 3 years 9 months, while the median number of years confined was 2 years 3 months, with a mode of 1 year 10 months. This variable was also recoded into categories for data analysis: (1) 6 months or fewer; (2) 6 months 1 day to 12 months; (3) 12 months 1 day to 18 months; (4) 18 months 1 day to 24 months; (5) 2 years 1 day to 4 years; (6) 4 years 1 day to 7 years; (7) 7 years 1 day to 10 years; (8) 10 years 1 day to 15 years; (9) 15 years to 20 years; (10) 20 or more years. Table 9 provides a visual output of the category results and shows that 68% (68) of the participants were confined in prison four years or fewer.
Table 9: Frequency Distribution by Number of Years Incarcerated (N=100)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Years Incarcerated</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid 6 months or less</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 months to 12 months</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 year to 18 months</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 months to 24 months</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years to 4 years</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>68.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 years to 7 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>87.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 years to 10 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years to 15 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>96.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 years to 20 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>99.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 years or more</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Missing                     | No Information available | 2 | 2.0 |
| Total                       |                          | 102 | 100.0 |

5.2 Summary of Univariate Distributions

Background and Structural Variables

Age at Time of Sentencing/Parole

The demographic/personal factors provided a portrait of the participants in this study. The majority of the respondents (54.9%) were below the age of thirty when they were sentenced to prison. When this variable was recoded by categories, the largest group (20.6%) was made up of respondents who were 20 years or younger when they were sentenced to a term in prison. These numbers stand in contrast to the age of the participants at the time of placement on parole. Approximately 59% of the respondents were thirty years old or greater when they were returned
to the community. However, when the variable - Age at Parole was recoded by categories, the largest percentage (28.4%) was between the ages of 25 to 29 years old.

**Education**

The majority of the subjects did not have a high school diploma or GED prior to incarceration. Conversely, it appears that confinement had an influence on the participants’ educational attainment, as 76.8% (43) of the 56 subjects who did not have a GED prior to incarceration, completed their GED or some form of training while incarcerated. Additionally, of the 34 participants who already had a high school diploma or GED prior to incarceration, approximately 53% (18) completed a training program.

When the participants were asked what was the primary reason for the completion of their GED or training program, of the 65 respondents who answered this question, 58.4% (38) indicated the primary reason was a desire to improve self or to regain control of their lives.

**Relationship Status While In Prison & Parole Supervision**

The largest percentage (48.5%) of the participants classified themselves as single during their period of incarceration. However, the number of respondents who had gotten married, or were in a relationship while under parole supervision had increased to 79%. Therefore, it appears that the period of confinement may have had some effect on the participants’ views and numbers of marriages and/or relationships upon release from prison.

**Parental Status/Home Placement of Children**

Seven two percent of the participants were parents before, during or after confinement. Interestingly, the results indicated that for those participants who had children
prior to incarceration, the majority of them resided with one or more of their children on a full or part-time basis. These outcomes were partially true when the children’s home placement was examined while the participants were on parole. The frequency of respondents’ residing with their children on a full or part –time basis was less while under parole supervision. In addition, it appears that if a subject had three or more children while under parole supervision, the less likely he was to reside either full or part-time with all his children. These results may indicate that the period of confinement acts as a deterrent to keeping families together, and may impact whether or not an offender reunites his home placement with his children. Additionally, these results may be affected by the ability of the children’s mother to move forward with her life, and enter into new relationships, or not desire to reunite with the offender for whatever reason.

**Dependent Variables**

**Number of Prison Misconducts by Categories**

Table ten shows that approximately 46% (45) participants did not receive any major misconduct reports with approximately 83% (81) respondents receiving 4 or less misconduct reports during their period of incarceration. In addition, 17% (17) participants received 5 or more misconducts, with 11% (11) of those receiving 11 or more reports during their period of confinement.
Table 10: Frequency Distribution of Number of Prison Misconducts Received (N=98)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Misconduct Reports By Categories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid No Major Misconducts</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 4 Major Misconducts</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 to 10 Misconducts</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>88.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 or More Misconducts</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>96.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of Technical Rule Violations by Categories

The dependent variable recidivism was defined by two different measures, the number of technical rule violations received and the number of technical rule violation, misdemeanor and felony convictions combined. The first measure, number of technical rule violations received assessed the number of technical violations the respondents received, without the inclusion of new felony and misdemeanor convictions. Given the fact that this study examined those respondents who successfully completed parole supervision, it was assumed that the number of new felony and/or misdemeanor convictions would be relatively small. Therefore, it was determined that the number of technical rule violations would provide greater insight into the behavior of this population. 48% (47) of the respondents did not receive a technical rule violation during their period of parole (see Table 11). However, given the fact that this research defined recidivism as one or more technical rule violations, 52% (51) of the participants committed one or more rule violations that ultimately could have led to their return to prison.
Table 11: Frequency Distribution of the Number of Technical Rule Violations Received (N=98)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Technical Rule Violations by Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Technical Rule Violations</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 5 Technical Rule Violations</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>80.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 or More Technical Rule Violations</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>96.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of Felony and Misdemeanor Convictions by Categories

Table 12 reveals the fact that 95% (94) and 91% (90) of the study participants did not have any new felony or misdemeanor convictions while under parole supervision. Table 13 shows that although approximately 55% (54) respondents committed an act that was classified as recidivism in this study, when compared with the results found in table 11, the largest proportion of recidivistic behavior was based upon technical rule violations.

Table 12: Frequency Distribution of the Number of New Felony & Misdemeanor Convictions received while Under Parole Supervision (N=99)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Felony &amp; Misdemeanor Convictions by Category</th>
<th>Zero</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>1 or More Convictions</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Felony Convictions</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misdemeanor Convictions</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13: Frequency Distribution of Number of Technical Rule Violations, Felony & Misdemeanor Convictions by Category (N=99)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Technical, Felony and Misdemeanor Convictions by Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Technical, Misdemeanor or Felony Convictions while on Parole</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 5 Technical, Misdemeanor or Felony Convictions</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>78.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 or Technical, Misdemeanor or Felony Convictions While on Parole</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>97.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3 Data Reduction and Modification

This study seeks to examine whether the personal factors and hypothesized relationships explain prisoners’ and parolees’ attitudes toward the involvement in prison misconducts and/or new criminal behavior once released from prison. As previously suggested, certain data reductions and modifications are necessary for analysis and these changes are listed below.

Race

The six racial categories (African-American, Caucasian-American, Hispanic-American, Asian-American, Bi-Racial and other) were grouped into two categories for further analysis. After the frequency distribution revealed that the data set only had three cases that fell outside of the African-American or Caucasian-American sample, retaining these three respondents was not statistically sound. Therefore, these cases were eliminated from analysis.

Age

The age of the sample was analyzed at two different points in the study. First, the age at time of sentencing was examined. The ages of the sample ranged from 17 – 67 years. The
frequency distribution of respondents in the sample revealed the presence of some extreme outliers in the population. In order to minimize the effects of these outliers, eight groups were created to reflect respondents whose ages fell in the following categories: 1. 20 years or younger; 2. 21 to 24 years; 3. 25 to 29 years; 4. 30 years to 34 years; 5. 35 years to 39 years; 6. 40 years to 44 years; 7. 45 years to 49 years; and 8. 50 years and older. The variable, age at time of sentencing, was also recoded into two categories to reflect younger respondents (29 years or less) and older respondents (30 years and greater).

Second, the age at the time of placement on parole was examined. The ages of the sample ranged from 19 to 68 years. This variable was treated identically to the variable Age at Time of Sentencing. The frequency distribution of respondents in the sample revealed the presence of some extreme outliers in the population. In order to minimize the effects of these outliers, eight groups were created to reflect respondents whose ages fell in the following categories: 1. 20 years or younger; 2. 21 to 24 years; 3. 25 to 29 years; 4. 30 years to 34 years; 5. 35 years to 39 years; 6. 40 years to 44 years; 7. 45 years to 49 years; and 8. 50 years and older. The variable, Age at Time of Parole, was also recoded into two categories to reflect younger respondents (29 years old and less) and older respondents (30 years and greater).

**Education**

The education level of the respondents was originally grouped into six categories: 1. less than 12 years education; 2. high school diploma; 3. GED; 4. some college; 5. associates degree; and 6. bachelors degree. This variable was reduced to two categories: 1. those subjects with a high school diploma, GED or greater, and 2. those subjects without a high school diploma or GED.
Most Important Factors that Led to Successful Prison Release

The most important factors, perceived by the respondent, that led to his successful release from prison was originally grouped into eight categories: 1. programs offered in prison; 2. desire to reunite with family; 3. desire to reunite with family, particularly children; 4. desire to regain control of life; 5. fear of prison; 6. desire to accomplish personal goals; 7. health related issues; 8. earn money to pay bills. This variable was reduced to three categories: 1. self improvement/self preservation, 2. family – non children, and 3. family – particularly children.

Marital Status Prior to Incarceration

The marital status of the respondents’ prior to incarceration was originally grouped into six categories: 1. Married; 2. Separated; 3. divorced prior to prison term; 4. divorced while in prison; 5. single and 6. in relationship, not married. This variable was reduced to three categories: 1. married, 2. single and 3. not married, but in relationship. Those respondents’ who were originally classified as separated, were re-coded into the married category, while those participants’ that originally classified themselves as divorced prior to prison or divorced while in prison were re-coded into the category of single.

Conduct While In Prison

A factor analysis was conducted to explore the underlying structure associated with the independent variables that defined the quality of relationship offenders perceived with their children and spouse or significant other prior to prison and while incarcerated. Originally, the following fifteen variables were used in this evaluation: Education level prior to incarceration,
age of respondent at time of sentencing, classification of bond with spouse or partner prior to prison, classification of bond with spouse or partner while in prison, how often spouse or partner visited subject while incarcerated, how often respondent spoke to spouse or partner on telephone while incarcerated, how often respondent wrote or received letter from partner while in prison, importance of relationship with spouse or partner to subjects release from prison, classification of bond with child or children prior to incarceration, classification of bond with child or children while in prison, amount of time spent with child before prison, how often child or children visited subject while in prison, how often did respondent speak to the child or children on the telephone while in prison, how often did respondent communicate with child or children by writing, and how important was the relationship with child or children to successful release from prison. These variables were useful in providing structures for the assessment of the respondents’ views toward their prison conduct.

According to Mertler & Vannatta (2005:260), factors should be retained based on the following criterion, “1. Eigenvalue – components with eigenvalues greater than 1 should be retained. This criterion is fairly reliable when the number of variables is <30 and communalities are >.70 or the number of individuals is >250 and the mean communality is ≥ .60.” Principal component analysis was conducted utilizing a varimax rotation. The first iteration produced a communality score of .55 for the level of education achieved prior to prison. Given the fact that the number of variable used in this analysis was less than 30, this variable was removed from analysis and a second principal component analysis was conducted. Upon the removal of the education level variable, the second iteration output indicated that the age at sentencing had a communality score of .057. This variable was removed from analysis. The third iteration retained two components. The first component labeled as **Child Quality-Prison** included the
following measures: Classification of bond with child before prison, the amount of time spent with children before prison, the frequency that child wrote to offender, the frequency of visits with children while incarcerated, the frequency of contact with child via telephone, classification of bond with child while in prison and the relationship importance of child to successful prison release.

The second component labeled as *Spouse/Significant Other Quality-Prison* included the following measures: Classification of bond with spouse or partner before incarceration, classification of bond with spouse or partner while incarcerated, frequency of visits with spouse or partner while incarcerated, frequency of contact with spouse or partner via letter while incarcerated, frequency of contact with spouse or partner via telephone while incarcerated, relationship importance with spouse or partner to successful prison release.

Tables 14 & 15 describe the rotated factor analysis solution and sample adequacy. After rotation, the first component accounted for 47.06% of the variance, while the second component accounted for 42.19%, and together, they accounted for approximately 89% of the variance of ex-offender attitudes toward prison conduct. Further, since the Kaiser-Olkin (.90) and Bartlet’s test of sphericity (2079.414, p < .05) both indicate that the sample is adequate; both factors are retained and used in the analyses.
Table 14: Variance Explained for Composite Measures of Child Quality – Prison and Spouse/Significant Other - Prison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
<td>Cumulative %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.557</td>
<td>58.130</td>
<td>58.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.045</td>
<td>31.116</td>
<td>89.246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.366</td>
<td>2.812</td>
<td>92.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>1.562</td>
<td>93.621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>1.253</td>
<td>94.874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>1.181</td>
<td>96.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>1.004</td>
<td>97.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>.918</td>
<td>97.977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>.666</td>
<td>98.643</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.468</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>.196</td>
<td>1.000E2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 15: Sample Adequacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KMO and Bartlett's Test</th>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</th>
<th>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</th>
<th>Approx. Chi-Square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.899</td>
<td></td>
<td>2079.414</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conduct While Under Parole Supervision

A factor analysis was conducted to explore if an underlying structure existed among the independent variables that defined the quality of relationship offenders perceived with their children, spouse or significant other while under parole supervision. Eight items were useful in providing structures for the assessment of the respondents’ parole conduct. The eight items
were: relationship status while under parole supervision, classification of bond with spouse or partner while on parole, importance of relationship with spouse or partner in not committing new crime, importance of relationship with spouse or partner in subject not committing technical rule violations, classification of bond with children while on parole, importance of relationship with children in subject not committing new crimes, importance of relationship with children in subject not committing technical rule violations and frequency of contact with child or children while on parole.

Principal component analysis was conducted utilizing a varimax rotation. The analysis retained two components. The first component labeled **Child Quality – Parole**, consisted of the following measures: Classification of bond with children while on parole, importance of relationship with children in not committing new crimes, importance of relationship with children in not committing technical rule violations and frequency of contact with children while on parole.

The second component labeled **Spouse Quality – Parole**, consisted of the following measures: relationship status while on parole, classification of bond with spouse or partner while on parole, importance of relationship with spouse or partner in not committing new crime, importance of relationship with spouse or partner in not committing technical rule violations.

Tables 16 & 17 describe the rotated factor analysis solution and sample adequacy. After rotation, the first component accounted for 54.81% of the variance, while the second component accounted for 38.06%, and together, they accounted for approximately 92% of the variance of ex-offender attitudes toward parole conduct. Further, since the Kaiser-Olkin (.86) and Bartlet’s test of sphericity (1018.257, p < .05) both indicate that the sample is adequate; both factors are retained and used in the analyses.
Table 16: Variance Explained for Composite Measures of Child Quality – Parole and Spouse/Significant Other - Parole

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
<td>Cumulative %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.165</td>
<td>59.497</td>
<td>59.497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.336</td>
<td>33.368</td>
<td>92.865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.238</td>
<td>3.399</td>
<td>96.264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>1.791</td>
<td>98.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.529</td>
<td>1.000E2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.760E-17</td>
<td>1.109E-15</td>
<td>1.000E2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 17: Sample Adequacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KMO and Bartlett's Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Prison Misconduct Outliers

The dependent variable, Prison Misconducts, was examined for outliers using the Descriptive and Explore procedures in SPSS. The output revealed some outlier problems with this variable. According to Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black (1998:66), “There are many philosophies among researchers as to how to deal with outliers. Our belief is that they should be retained unless there is demonstrable proof that they are truly aberrant and not representative of any observations in the population. But if they do represent a segment of the population, they should be retained to ensure generalizability to the entire population.” Descriptive analysis of
this variable was observed, and revealed that scores for this variable ranged from a minimum of 0 to a maximum score of 63 misconducts received during incarceration. The degrees of skewness and kurtosis were investigated. The results showed a high level of positive skewness (3.89) and leptokurtosis (19.05), making this variable unacceptable for analysis. The boxplot was inspected, and exposed 15 cases that clustered together as outliers, with a 16\textsuperscript{th} case falling well above (63 misconducts) these 15 extreme scores. This score was re-coded as missing data, and the remaining 15 cases were retained for analysis. These cases were retained on the following basis: In order to address the hypothesis that age is a significant factor in prison misconducts, it is necessary to include these outliers. These cases may assist in supporting the research view that these scores represent a significant proportion of the prison population, specifically younger prisoners, and the belief that they incur more prison misconduct violations than older prisoners.

In order to address the skewness and kurtosis problem with the dependent variable, prison misconducts, the re-code command found in SPSS was utilized. The subject’s scores were re-coded, and the square root of each case was obtained. A new variable containing the results of this procedure was created. As a result, the degree of skewness was reduced to 1.51, and the level of kurtosis was also reduced to 1.67. These results fall above the conventional level of acceptance of +1 to -1; therefore, the results obtained through the use of this variable must be interpreted with caution.

**Recidivism Outliers**

The dependent variable, the number of technical rule violations, was examined for outliers using the Descriptive and Explore procedures in SPSS. The output revealed some outlier problems with this variable. This variable was examined for outliers, using the Explore procedure in SPSS. The output revealed some outlier problems with this variable. Descriptive
analysis of this variable was observed, and revealed that scores for this variable ranged from a minimum of 0 to a maximum score of 18 technical rule violations received while under parole supervision. The degrees of skewness and kurtosis were investigated. The results showed a positive skewness level of 1.83 and a leptokurtosis score of 2.65. The boxplot was inspected, and exposed 10 cases that clustered together as outliers, with two of those scores being classified as extreme outliers (17 & 18 technical rule violations). These cases were retained on the following basis: In order to address the hypothesis that age is a significant factor in recidivism, it is necessary to include these outliers. These cases may assist in supporting the research view that these scores represent a significant proportion of the parole population, specifically younger parolees, and the belief that they incur more technical rule violations than older parolees.

In order to address the skewness and kurtosis problem with the dependent variable, recidivism, the re-code command found in SPSS was utilized. The subject’s scores were re-coded, and the square root of each case was obtained. A new variable containing the results of this procedure was created. As a result, the degree of skewness was reduced to an acceptable level of .779, and the level of kurtosis was also reduced to -.551. Although the kurtosis level falls below the level of acceptance of +1 to -1, it does not do so in a significant manner; however, the results obtained through the use of this variable must also be interpreted with caution.

The second definition of the dependent variable, recidivism, which included the number of technical rule violation, felony and misdemeanor convictions combined, was also examined for outliers using the Descriptive and Explore procedures in SPSS. The output revealed some outlier problems with this variable. Descriptive analysis of this variable was observed and revealed that scores for this variable ranged from a minimum of 0 to a maximum score of 18
technical rule violations received while under parole supervision. This variable is strongly
influenced by the number of technical rule violations the subject received while under parole
supervision. The degrees of skewness and kurtosis were investigated, the results showed a
positive skewness level of 1.78 and a leptokurtosis score of 2.52. The boxplot was inspected and
again exposed 10 cases that clustered together as outliers, with two of those scores being
classified as extreme outliers (17 & 18 technical rule violations). These cases were retained on
the basis of the two reasons discussed previously: 1. This study utilized random sampling to
obtain cases, and 2. In order to address the hypothesis that age is a significant factor in
recidivism, it is necessary to include these outliers. These cases may assist in supporting the
research view that these scores represent a significant proportion of the parole population,
Specifically younger parolees, and the belief that they incur more technical rule violations than
older parolees.

In order to address the skewness and kurtosis problem with the dependent variable,
recidivism, the re-code command found in SPSS was utilized. The subject’s scores were re-
coded, and the square root of each case was obtained. A new variable containing the results of
this procedure was created. As a result, the degree of skewness was reduced to an acceptable
level of .715, and the level of kurtosis was also reduced to -.644. Although the kurtosis fell
below the level of acceptance of +1 to -1, it did not do so in a significant manner. However, the
results obtained through the use of this variable must also be interpreted with caution.

5.4 Bivariate Analysis

Correlation

A correlation analysis was conducted on the linear relationships between the measures that
described the views of the participants regarding the importance of their spouse or significant
other and their children and their level of success during incarceration. Table 18 examines the measures used to produce the two components labeled as *child quality-Prison* and *spouse/significant other quality-Prison*. This table shows that all but two of the correlations between the measures used to produce the two components were significant at the .01 or .05 level. The only correlations that were not significant were the relationship between [BPP] the bond with spouse/significant other prior to prison and the [CW] frequency of contact with child/children via writing while incarcerated (-.187), and the [BWP] bond with spouse/significant other and [CW] frequency of contact with child/children via writing while incarcerated (-.196).
Table 18: Correlations between measures of child quality-prison and spouse/significant other quality-prison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CB</th>
<th>CT</th>
<th>CBP</th>
<th>CV</th>
<th>CC</th>
<th>CW</th>
<th>CIMP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BPP</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.333**</td>
<td>.317*</td>
<td>.308**</td>
<td>.309**</td>
<td>.273**</td>
<td>-.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.062</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BWP</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.302**</td>
<td>.287**</td>
<td>.290**</td>
<td>.305**</td>
<td>.269**</td>
<td>-.196</td>
</tr>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.004</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>SV</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.397**</td>
<td>.380**</td>
<td>.367**</td>
<td>.414**</td>
<td>.337**</td>
<td>-.227</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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<td>100</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>PC</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.438**</td>
<td>.443**</td>
<td>.435**</td>
<td>.402**</td>
<td>.415**</td>
<td>-.266</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.390**</td>
<td>.381**</td>
<td>.394**</td>
<td>.366**</td>
<td>.361**</td>
<td>-.227</td>
</tr>
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<td>.000</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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<td>100</td>
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<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RI</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.389**</td>
<td>.376**</td>
<td>.366**</td>
<td>.355**</td>
<td>.349**</td>
<td>-.235</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
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<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

BPP = Bond with spouse/significant other prior to prison, BWP = Bond with spouse/significant other while in prison, SV = Spouse/significant other visits while incarcerated, PC = Contact with spouse/significant other via telephone while incarcerated, PL = Contact with spouse/significant other via letter while incarcerated, RI = Importance of spouse/significant other to subjects release from prison, CB = Bond with child prior to prison, CT = Amount of time spent with child prior to prison, CBP = Bond with child while incarcerated, CV = Amount of visits with child while incarcerated, CC = Amount of contact with child via telephone while incarcerated, CW = Frequency of contact with child via letter writing while incarcerated, CIMP = Importance of child to successful release from prison

A second correlation analysis was conducted to examine the linear relationship between the views of respondents regarding the importance of their spouse/significant other to their period under parole supervision. Although the number of correlations between the measures child quality-parole and spouse quality – parole were not as frequent as the components, child
quality-prison and spouse/significant other quality-prison, the number of significant relationships between these measures were still relatively high. Table 19 provides a visual analysis of these correlations. The measure, relationship status of parolee while on under supervision [RS], was significantly correlated with all seven of the remaining measures in the analysis at the .01 or .05 level of significance. [BWP] bond with spouse/significant other while on parole significantly correlated with all measures except [CIC] importance of child/children in parolee not committing any new crimes (.159), and [CIT] importance of children/children in parolee not committing technical rule violations. [IC] the importance of the relationship with spouse/significant other in parolee not committing new crimes correlated at the .01 or .05 level of significance with all of the remaining seven measures. [IT] importance of spouse/significant other in parolee not committing technical rule violations did not correlate with [CB] bond with child/children while under parole supervision (.187), [CIC] importance of child/children in parolee not committing new crimes (.136) and [CIT] importance of child/children in parolee not committing technical rule violations (.136). [CB] bond with child/children while under parole supervision correlated with all measures except [IT] importance of relationship with spouse/significant other in parolee not committing technical rule violations (.187). Finally, [CTP] importance of child/children in parolee not committing technical rule violations correlated with all remaining seven measures.
### Table 19: Correlations between measures of child quality- parole and spouse/significant other quality - parole

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>RS</th>
<th>BWP</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>IT</th>
<th>CB</th>
<th>CIC</th>
<th>CIT</th>
<th>CTP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS</td>
<td></td>
<td>.827**</td>
<td>.899**</td>
<td>.784**</td>
<td>.273**</td>
<td>.228</td>
<td>.228</td>
<td>.301**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.022</td>
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<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
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<tr>
<td>BWP</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.827**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.841**</td>
<td>.763**</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>.159</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.014</td>
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<td>101</td>
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<td>.196</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.010</td>
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<td>.049</td>
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<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.784**</td>
<td>.763**</td>
<td>.859**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.187</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.136</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>.030</td>
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<td>101</td>
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<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CB</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.273**</td>
<td>.204*</td>
<td>.257**</td>
<td>.187</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.934**</td>
<td>.934**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.061</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIC</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.228*</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>.196*</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.934**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIT</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.228*</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>.196*</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.934**</td>
<td>1.000**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTP</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.301**</td>
<td>.245*</td>
<td>.299**</td>
<td>.216*</td>
<td>.962**</td>
<td>.934**</td>
<td>.934**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.030</td>
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<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

RS = Relationship status while under parole supervision, BWP = Bond with spouse/partner while under parole supervision, IC = Importance of relationship with spouse/partner in not committing new crimes, IT=Importance of relationship with spouse/partner in not committing technical rule violations, CB=Bond with child/children while under parole supervision, CIC =Importance of child/children in subject not committing new crimes, CTP = Importance of child in subject not committing technical rule violations.

5.5 Difference in Means - Prison Misconducts Based on Race, Age and Education Levels

The analysis of demographic/personal characteristics, relationships spouse or significant other and a child or children provided some disparities in prison misconduct patterns. In order to
determine if these differences and/or similarities were significant, this research used specific tests, namely Independent Sample’s T-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine importance.

**Race and Prison Misconducts**

Initially, the variable race was examined to determine whether there was a significant difference in means by race and number of prison misconducts. T-test results determined that the respondents’ race was not statistically significant.

**Age and Prison Misconducts**

An Independent samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that younger prisoners (29 years and younger) commit more misconducts than older prisoners (30 years and older). Table 20 indicates that the difference in means in the number of prison misconducts committed by respondents 29 years and younger was significantly different from those respondents 30 years and older, \( t(96) = 2.68, df = 77.74, p < .05 \). Those respondents 30 years and older were significantly less likely to commit major misconducts while incarcerated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prison Misconducts</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age At Sentencing</td>
<td>29 years and &lt;</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>77.74</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30 years and &gt;</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Probability is significant at \( p < .05 \) level

**Educational Attainment Prior to Incarceration**

In order to determine if there was a significant difference in means in the education level of the respondents at the time of incarceration and the number of prison misconducts, an
independent samples t-test was conducted. The test results suggest that those prisoners with a high school diploma or GED at the time of sentencing differ significantly in the number of misconducts received while incarcerated from those prisoners who did not have a high school diploma or GED at the time of sentencing. Table 21 indicates that the differences in means in the number of prison misconducts received by respondents who did not have a high school diploma or GED at the time of sentencing and those who did was significant, \( t(96) = 2.36, \text{ df} = 80.35, p < .05 \). Those respondents who had a high school diploma or GED prior to incarceration were less likely to receive prison misconducts than those who did not have a high school diploma or GED.

Table 21: T-test for Education Level Prior to Incarceration Differences in Number of Prison Misconducts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education Level Prior to Incarceration</td>
<td>No Diploma or GED</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>80.35 .021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma or GED</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Probability is significant at p<.05 level**

Completion of Education or Training Program while Incarcerated

In order to evaluate whether there was a significant difference in means in those respondents who attained education during incarceration, and the number of misconducts received, an independent sample’s t-test was conducted. Table 22 indicates that the difference in means in the number of prison misconducts received by respondents who completed an education or training program while incarcerated was significantly different from those respondents who did not, \( t(96) = 3.51, \text{ df} = 71.21, p < .05 \). However, these results seem to
suggest that those prisoners who did not pursue an education or training program while incarcerated were less likely to receive prison misconducts.

Table 22: T-test for Completion of Education or Training Program during Incarceration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prison Misconducts</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Completed Education or Training Program</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>8.70</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>71.21</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Probability is significant at p<.05 level

Most Important Factors in Successful Release from Prison

It was important to investigate the hypothesis that the offenders desire to reunite with his family would be a significant predictor of prison misconduct. In order to do so, the subjects were asked to rank the factors that they felt were most important to their successful release from prison. Given the fact that all of the respondents did not have children, this variable was categorized into two groupings: 1. non-family; and 2. family factors as the most important reasons for prison release. An independent samples t-test was conducted. The results of this analysis were not statistically significant. A frequency distribution was performed, which showed that the respondents selected the desire to reunite with family 63.6% (63) of the time, while selecting non-family factors 36.4% (36) of the time. Clearly, respondents believed family to be an important factor in their prison release.

In an effort to further analyze this hypothesis, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine the relationship between the perception of the most important factors to the respondents that led to their successful release from prison and the number of prison misconducts received. This variable was coded into three categories: Self-Improvement/Self-
Preservation, Family/non-children and Family – particularly children. Although the results indicated that there were no significant mean differences between these categories (p=.112), it is worth noting that the p value for the post hoc test, Dunnett’s t indicated that the difference in means between the respondents who selected self-improvement/preservation to be the primary reason and those who selected family-particularly children was .06. Figure two provides a profile plot for visual examination of these results. This plot reveals a difference between self-improvement/preservation and both family –non children and family – particularly children. These results show that if an offender felt that his family, particularly his children were more the most important factor that led to his successful release from prison, he was less likely to commit prison misconducts.
5.6 Spouse/Significant Other and Prison Misconduct

This section analyzes the variables used to define and evaluate the respondents’ marital status and the number of misconducts received while incarcerated.

As mentioned in the Data Reduction Section (5.3), marital status prior to and during prison was re-coded into three categories: 1. Married; 2. Single; and 3. Not married, but in relationship. An ANOVA was conducted to determine if there was a significant difference in means between these categories. The ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference between these categories, F (2, 98) = 3.64, p = .03 (see Table 23). The strength of the relationship between marital status prior to prison and prison misconducts, as assessed by \( \eta^2 \), was weak, with marital status accounting for 7% of the variance of the dependent variable.

Follow-up tests were also conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variance was significant; therefore the Dunnett C post hoc test was examined, which does not assume equal variance among the three groups. There was a significant difference in the means between the single group and those respondents who indicated that they were single, but in a relationship. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard deviations for the three marital status groups are reported in table 24.
Table 23: Marital Status Prior to and During Incarceration by Number of Prison Misconducts P-Value Results

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects
Dependent Variable: Number of Misconduct Reports by Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>11.514a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.757</td>
<td>3.636</td>
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<td>.069</td>
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<td>Intercept</td>
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<td>197.040</td>
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<td>.559</td>
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<tr>
<td>R_MarStatPris</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>5.757</td>
<td>3.636</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>155.179</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>1.583</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>417.000</td>
<td>101</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>166.693</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. R Squared = .069 (Adjusted R Squared = .050)

Table 24: Post Hoc Results for Marital Status Prior to and During Incarceration by Prison Misconducts

Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Number of Misconduct Reports by Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) Marital Status While In Prison</th>
<th>(J) Marital Status While In Prison</th>
<th>Difference (I - J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Lower Bound</th>
<th>Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>Tukey HSD</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>-.5850</td>
<td>.32820</td>
<td>.181</td>
<td>-1.3661</td>
<td>.1960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Married But In Relationship</td>
<td>.1398</td>
<td>.35564</td>
<td>.918</td>
<td>-.7066</td>
<td>.9882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>.5850</td>
<td>.32820</td>
<td>.181</td>
<td>-1.960</td>
<td>1.3661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Married But In Relationship</td>
<td>.7248</td>
<td>.28878</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.0376</td>
<td>1.4121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Married But In Relationship</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>-.1398</td>
<td>.35564</td>
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<td>-.9862</td>
<td>.7066</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>-.7248</td>
<td>.28878</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>-1.4121</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunnett C</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>-.5850</td>
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<td>.181</td>
<td>-1.3805</td>
<td>.2104</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Not Married But In Relationship</td>
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<td>.26847</td>
<td>.5351</td>
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<td>.8146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
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<td>.32117</td>
<td></td>
<td>-2.104</td>
<td>1.3805</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.25940</td>
<td>.0942</td>
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<tr>
<td>Not Married But In Relationship</td>
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<td>.26847</td>
<td>.8146</td>
<td>-1.3554</td>
<td>.5351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>-.7248</td>
<td>.25940</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.3554</td>
<td>-.0942</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dunnett t (2-sided)*</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Not Married But In Relationship</td>
<td>.1398</td>
<td>.35564</td>
<td>.941</td>
<td>-.6585</td>
<td>.9381</td>
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<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Not Married But In Relationship</td>
<td>.7248</td>
<td>.28878</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>.0766</td>
<td>1.3730</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 1.583.

*, The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.
Classification of Bond with Spouse/Significant Other prior to Prison

Next, this research examined the variable, classification of bond with spouse or significant other before incarceration to test the hypothesis that those participants who classified their bond with their spouse or significant other to be strong prior to prison would have significantly fewer prison misconducts than those who did not. This variable was re-coded from the original six categories of: 1. No relationship; 2. Very weak; 3. Weak; 4. Average; 5. Strong and 6. Very strong. The new categories were: 1. No relationship; 2. Very weak to average relationship and 3. Strong to very strong relationship. Again, the ANOVA technique was employed. The p value results of .08 did not demonstrate a significant difference in means between the three groupings. Figure three provides the profile plot for visual examination. The plot reveals a difference in prison misconduct means between those who did not have a relationship prior to and during incarceration and those who classified the bond in their relationships as very weak to average or strong to very strong, specifically, those offenders who did not have a relationship during incarceration were more likely to commit prison misconducts than those who classified these relationships as strong to very strong.
Classification of Bond with Spouse/Significant Other during Incarceration

In order to examine the relationship between those respondents’ who did not have a relationship with a spouse or significant other while incarcerated and those who did, and to test the hypothesis that those who had a relationship with a spouse or significant other while incarcerated were less likely to receive prison misconducts, the ANOVA technique was employed. The results indicated that there was no significant difference in the means of those who were married or in a relationship that they classified as strong and those participants who
were not in a relationship or classified their relationship as weak to average. Similar to the previous spousal/significant other analyses, the p. value was not significant (.08).

**Spouse/ Significant Other Visits during Incarceration**

The relationship between the frequency of prison visits by spouse or significant other and the number of prison misconducts received was examined through the use of an ANOVA. The p value was not significant (.08). Follow–up tests were also conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variance was significant; therefore, the post hoc Dunnett C post hoc test, which does not assume equal variance was examined. These results showed a significant difference in the means between those respondents who were not in a relationship while incarcerated and those who were in a relationship, but did not receive visits or received visits only sometimes from their spouses or significant others. Table 25, provides a visual interpretation of these results.
Table 25: Post Hoc Results for Spouse/Significant Other Visits and Prison Misconducts

Multiple Comparisons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable: Number of Major Misconduct Reports</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(I) How Often Spouse or Partner Visited Subject while Incarcerated</td>
<td>(J) How Often Spouse or Partner Visited Subject while Incarcerated</td>
<td>Tukey HSD</td>
<td>Dunnett C</td>
<td>Dunnett t (2-sided)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>No Visits or Visits Sometimes With Spouse or Partner</td>
<td>4.6429</td>
<td>2.26863</td>
<td>.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits with Spouse Often to Very Often</td>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>3.7826</td>
<td>2.57491</td>
<td>.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Visits or Visits Sometimes With Spouse or Partner</td>
<td>Visits with Spouse Often to Very Often</td>
<td>-4.6429</td>
<td>2.26863</td>
<td>.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>-8603</td>
<td>2.94768</td>
<td>.954</td>
<td>-7.8799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits with Spouse Often to Very Often</td>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>-3.7826</td>
<td>2.57491</td>
<td>.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Visits or Visits Sometimes With Spouse or Partner</td>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>8603</td>
<td>2.94768</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Visits or Visits Sometimes With Spouse or Partner</td>
<td>Visits with Spouse Often to Very Often</td>
<td>4.6429</td>
<td>1.73572</td>
<td>.4279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits with Spouse Often to Very Often</td>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>3.7826</td>
<td>1.97798</td>
<td>-.1136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits with Spouse Often to Very Often</td>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>-4.6429</td>
<td>1.73572</td>
<td>-.8268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits with Spouse Often to Very Often</td>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>-8603</td>
<td>1.46201</td>
<td>-4.6006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Visits or Visits Sometimes With Spouse or Partner</td>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>-3.7826</td>
<td>1.97798</td>
<td>-8.6788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Visits or Visits Sometimes With Spouse or Partner</td>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>8603</td>
<td>1.14201</td>
<td>-2.8800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Visits or Visits Sometimes With Spouse or Partner</td>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>-3.7826</td>
<td>1.257491</td>
<td>.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits with Spouse Often to Very Often</td>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td>-8603</td>
<td>2.94768</td>
<td>.931</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 86.465.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

Importance of Relationship with Spouse or Significant Other to Release from Prison

The relationship between the respondents’ perception of the importance of their spouses or significant others to their release from prison and the number of prison misconducts received were examined through the use of an ANOVA. The p value was not significant (.08). Follow-up tests were also conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variance was significant, therefore, the post hoc Dunnett C post hoc test, which does not assume equal variance was examined. These results showed a significant difference in the means between those respondents who did not have a relationship while
incarcerated and those who classified their relationships as not important to somewhat important while incarcerated. Table 26, provides a visual interpretation of these results.

### Table 26: Post Hoc Test Results for Spouse/Significant Other Importance to Successful Prison Release by Prison Misconducts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multiple Comparisons</th>
<th>Dependent Variable: Number of Major Misconduct Reports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean Difference (I-J)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tukey HSD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>4.2040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>2.9818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>-1.2222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>-2.9818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>1.2222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunnett C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>4.2040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>2.9818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>-4.2040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>-1.2222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>-2.9818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>1.2222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunnett t (2-sided)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Relationship</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>2.9818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important or Very Important</td>
<td>-1.2222</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 51.812.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

### 5.7 Children and Prison Misconducts

The analysis of variables that focused on the respondent’s thoughts and behaviors toward their child/children provided some interesting results. Through the use of bi-variate statistical techniques, this research tested the hypotheses that the relationships (or lack of relationships) that the respondents had with their children prior to and during incarceration are significant predictors of prison misconduct.
Children Prior to Incarceration

In order to test the hypothesis that having children prior to incarceration was a significant factor in the number of prison misconducts that the participants received, an independent samples t-test was conducted, and 98 respondents were evaluated. Table 27 indicates that the difference in means in the number of prison misconducts received by respondents who had children prior to incarceration was significantly different from those respondents who did not, \( t(96) = 2.00, \text{df} = 59.65, \ p < = .05 \). These results suggest that having children may reduce the number of prison misconducts received while incarcerated.

Table 27: T-test for Respondent’ Having Children Prior to Incarceration and Prison Misconducts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prison Misconducts</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children Prior to Incarceration</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>59.65</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Probability is significant at \( p < = .05 \) level

Amount of Time Spent with Children Prior to Incarceration

The research hypothesis states that respondents who often spent time with their children would be less likely to receive prison misconducts than those who did not have children, or did not spend much time with their children. The amount of time spent with children prior to incarceration was grouped into three categories: 1. no children; 2. rarely to sometimes spent time with their children and 3. often to very often spent time with their children. An ANOVA was conducted on 97 participants. The p value was not significant (.09). Follow-up tests were also conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variance was significant; therefore, this author examined the post hoc Dunnett
A post hoc test, which does not assume equal variance. These results showed a significant difference in the means between those respondents who did not have children while incarcerated and those who stated they never to sometimes spent time with their children. Table 28 provides a visual interpretation of these results.

Table 28: Post Hoc Test Results for Amount of Time Spent with Children Before Prison and Prison Misconducts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multiple Comparisons</th>
<th>Dependent Variable: Number of Major Misconduct Reports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(I) Amount of Time Spent with Children Before Prison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tukey HSD</td>
<td>No Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never to Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never to Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often to Very Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunnett C</td>
<td>No Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never to Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never to Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often to Very Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never to Sometimes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Next, this research examined the hypothesis that there is difference between those respondents who received visits from their children often and those who did not or those who did not have children during incarceration. An ANOVA was conducted. The results were that there was no significant mean difference between these groups.
Classification of Bond with Child Prior to Prison

The hypothesis that the respondents’ view of the bond with their children prior to incarceration would impact the number of prison misconducts received while incarcerated was examined. The variable, classification of bond with children before prison [chldbond] was evaluated. An ANOVA was conducted and produced a p value result of .051. Although this result was right at the significance level of .05, this outcome was not significant. Follow–up tests were also conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variance was not significant; therefore, the post hoc Tukey HSD test, which assumes equal variance among the three groups were examined. The test did not reveal any significance, but the Dunnett C post hoc test pointed out that there was a significant difference in the means between those subjects who did not have any children and those who classified their relationships with their children as very weak to average. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as the means and standard deviations for the three child bond groups are reported in table 29.
Table 29: ANOVA results for Difference in Means for Child Bond Prior to Incarceration

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: Misc_sqr

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>13.367a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.683</td>
<td>3.078</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>67.493</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>67.493</td>
<td>31.081</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R_Childbond</td>
<td>13.367</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.683</td>
<td>3.078</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>204.125</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>2.172</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>346.000</td>
<td>97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>217.492</td>
<td>96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. R Squared = .061 (Adjusted R Squared = .041)

**Multiple Comparisons**

Dependent Variable: Misc_sqr

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) Child Bond</th>
<th>(J) Child Bond</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
<th>Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
<td>Upper Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tukey HSD</td>
<td>No Children</td>
<td>Very Weak to Average</td>
<td>.9783</td>
<td>.49912</td>
<td>-.2103</td>
<td>2.1669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strong to Very Strong</td>
<td>.6602</td>
<td>.31789</td>
<td>-.0969</td>
<td>1.4172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very Weak to Average</td>
<td>No Children</td>
<td>-.9783</td>
<td>.49912</td>
<td>-2.1669</td>
<td>.2103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strong to Very Strong</td>
<td>-.3181</td>
<td>.49676</td>
<td>-1.5011</td>
<td>.8648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strong to Very Strong</td>
<td>No Children</td>
<td>-.6602</td>
<td>.31789</td>
<td>-1.4172</td>
<td>.0969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Very Weak to Average</td>
<td>.3181</td>
<td>.49676</td>
<td>-.8648</td>
<td>1.5011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunnett C</td>
<td>No Children</td>
<td>Very Weak to Average</td>
<td>.9783</td>
<td>.33560</td>
<td>.1181</td>
<td>1.8385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strong to Very Strong</td>
<td>.6602</td>
<td>.33306</td>
<td>-.1491</td>
<td>1.4695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very Weak to Average</td>
<td>No Children</td>
<td>-.9783</td>
<td>.33560</td>
<td>-1.8385</td>
<td>-.1181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strong to Very Strong</td>
<td>-.3181</td>
<td>.30649</td>
<td>-1.1111</td>
<td>.4748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strong to Very Strong</td>
<td>No Children</td>
<td>-.6602</td>
<td>.33060</td>
<td>-1.4695</td>
<td>.1491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Very Weak to Average</td>
<td>.3181</td>
<td>.30649</td>
<td>-.4748</td>
<td>1.1111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunnett t (2-sided)**</td>
<td>No Children</td>
<td>Strong to Very Strong</td>
<td>.6602</td>
<td>.31789</td>
<td>-.0590</td>
<td>1.3794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very Weak to Average</td>
<td>Strong to Very Strong</td>
<td>-.3181</td>
<td>.49676</td>
<td>-.14420</td>
<td>.8058</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 2.172.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.
Classification of Bond with Children during Incarceration

In order to test the hypothesis that the participant’s who classified their bond with their children as strong during incarceration, would receive fewer prison misconducts, an ANOVA was conducted and 98 respondents were appropriate for evaluation. The results showed that there was no significant difference in means between those respondents who classified their bond with children during prison as strong or very strong and those who classified this relationship as weak to average, or did not have children during incarceration.

Importance of Relationship with Child/Children to Successful Release from Prison

The respondents’ view of the importance of their relationship with their children to their successful release from prison [R_ChldImp] was examined through the use of an ANOVA. Ninety seven participants were examined. The results point out that there was a significant difference between these categories, F (2, 94) =3.14, p = .048 (see Table 30). The importance of the child/children to the participants’ successful release from prison and prison misconducts, as assessed by η2, was weak, with child importance accounting for 6% of the variance of the dependent variable.

Follow–up tests were also conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variance was not significant; therefore, the Tukey HSD post hoc test, which assumes equal variance among the three groups were examined. This test did not reveal any significant mean differences between these groupings.
Table 30: ANOVA results for Difference in Means for Importance of Relationship with Child/Children to Successful Release from Prison

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>13.636$^a$</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.818</td>
<td>3.144</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>66.660</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>66.660</td>
<td>30.738</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R_ChldImp</td>
<td>13.636</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.818</td>
<td>3.144</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>203.856</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>2.169</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>346.000</td>
<td>97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>217.492</td>
<td>96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. R Squared = .063 (Adjusted R Squared = .043)

5.8 Demographic/Personal Factors and Recidivism

The concept of recidivism was analyzed on two different levels. First, recidivism was tested by examining the number of technical rule violations received [techviol_sqr]. Second, the outcome variable was evaluated by the summation of the number of technical rule violations, misdemeanor and felony convictions combined [recidivism_sqr]. The relationship between demographic factors and recidivism provided some interesting results.

Age of Respondent at Parole

In order to test the research hypothesis that the older a person is when placed under parole supervision, the less likely he is to engage in recidivism, the variable age at parole [ageparole] was categorized into 29 years and younger or 30 years and older. An Independent samples t-test was used to analyze this hypothesis. The results did not demonstrate a significant difference in means between those participants 29 years and younger, and those subjects over the age of 30 in the number of technical rule violations received or technical rule violations and new convictions combined.
Education or Training Program Completed while Incarcerated

Studies have shown that offenders who earn an education or complete a training program during incarceration improve their chances to remain in the community upon release. This hypothesis is supported by a study conducted by the National Corrections Association (2009). This study found that inmates who earned a GED while incarcerated were 25% less likely to recidivate, and those who earned a vocational certificate during incarceration were 14.6% less likely to recidivate. An independent samples t-test was completed to test this hypothesis and 98 respondents were evaluated. Table 31 indicates the mean difference in number of technical violations received by respondents who completed a GED or training program while incarcerated and those who did not. The results show a significant difference in means between the two groups, $t(96) = 2.01$, $df = 93.23$, $p < .05$. These results suggest the opposite direction of the hypothesized relationship, and indicated that those participants who completed an education or training program had higher levels of technical rule violations. This quite possibly could be explained by the way this research has operationalized recidivism. The mere fact that recidivism is being defined as technical rule violations in addition to new felony and misdemeanor convictions has increased the probability that a participant would be classified as a recidivist while under parole supervision.
Table 31: T-test for Mean Differences Between Respondents’ Who Completed Education or Training Program while Incarcerated and Technical Rule Violations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technical Rule Violations</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Completion of Education or Training Program While Incarcerated</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>93.23</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Probability is significant at p < .05 level

5.9 Spouse or Significant Other and Parole

The variables used to evaluate the relationship between the respondents’ spouses or significant others and their parole adjustment did not produce any significant results.

Did Respondent have Spouse or Partner while on Parole

An independent samples t-test was conducted to test the hypothesis that those participants who had a spouse or partner while under parole supervision would be less likely to recidivate. The outcome of this test did not show a significant difference in means between those respondents’ with a spouse or partner and those who did not have a relationship on either measure of recidivism.

Classification of Bond with Spouse/Significant Other during Parole

An ANOVA test was conducted to test the hypothesis that those respondents who classified their bond with their spouse or significant other during parole would be less likely to recidivate than those who did not classify these relationships as strong or those who did not have a relationship during this time period. The results of this test did not show a significant difference in means between these groups.
Importance of Relationship with Spouse or Partner and Recidivism

Finally, an ANOVA was conducted to test the hypothesis that the importance of the relationship with the spouse or significant other to the respondent would influence the number of technical rule violations received and new criminal behavior. The outcome of this analysis did not show any significant difference in means between those respondents who classified this relationship as strong and those who did not have a spouse or significant other.

5.10 Children and Recidivism

Various analyses were conducted on the following variables used to examine the relationship between participants and their children and the dependent variable, recidivism:

1. Did respondent have children; 2. Classification of bond with child/children while on parole; 3. Importance of the relationship with child/children while on parole; 4. Amount of time spent with children while on parole and 5. Home placement of child/children while on parole. The outcomes of these tests did not show a significant difference in means between those participants who had children and those who did not and recidivism on any of these measures.

5.11 Multivariate Analysis


Regression analysis is used to test hypotheses and predict values on a particular outcome [dependent] variable. This analysis may be used to provide explanations about causal relationships among three or more variables at a time. Specifically, it can help determine how well a particular dependent variable can be explained by knowing the value of the independent or predictor variable(s). Moreover, it assesses which independent variable or subset of variables is/are the best predictor(s) for a particular outcome…..This statistical technique allows one to move beyond the limitations of univariate and bivariate analysis by opening doors to an array of possibilities to other variables in the data set that may influence a particular outcome.
Data on relationships with children, spouses/significant others and personal factors are presented to assess the relationship between age, level of education, relationship status with spouse/significant other and children on the number of prison misconducts received. Prior to conducting the regression analysis, table 18 reveals high levels of multicollinearity within the measures that defined the composites of *spouse quality-prison* and *child quality-prison*. According to Mertler & Vannatta (2005) one method of combating multicollinearity is to combine the variables to create a single measure that addresses a single construct. According to the authors, this method should be considered with intercorrelations of .80 or higher. Several of the correlations were at or above .80, and therefore it was appropriate to use these constructs for the analysis. Consequently, the regression analysis was conducted using the two components labeled *spouse quality-prison* and *child quality-prison* and the variables of education prior to prison and age. As previously discussed, the variables, age at sentencing and level of education prior to incarceration, did not correlate with the variables used to create the two components, so they were added to the regression model.

For the purpose of this study, incremental models are constructed to assess the impact of the personal factors and child and spouse/significant other relationships on the number of prison misconducts received.

**Model Analysis #1**

For the personal factors, the adjusted R² for model 1 explains 13.4% of the variance in the number of prison misconducts by the independent variables, age at sentencing and education level prior to incarceration. The addition of the composite variable, quality of relationship with spouse while in prison, increased the explained variance to approximately 16%. The R² change from model 1 to 2 is significant. Therefore, the variables age at time of sentencing, education
prior to prison, and spouse quality-prison, contribute significantly to the variance explained in number of prison misconducts. The standardized beta coefficients for prison misconducts indicates that age at the time of sentencing is the best predictor of the number of prison misconducts received while incarcerated.

The addition of the composite variable, quality of relationship with child/children during incarceration, decreased the explained variance from 16% to 15%. The $R^2$ change from model 2 to 3 was not significant. The addition of the child quality-prison composite variable did not change the results of the standardized beta coefficients. The age at the time of sentencing continued to be the best predictor of the number of prison misconducts received. However, the quality of relationship with spouse composite measure was no longer significant.

| Table 32: Age at Sentencing, Education Prior to Incarceration, Spouse Quality-Prison Composite and Child Quality –Prison on Number of Prison Misconducts |
|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| Variables              | Model 1                | Model 2                | Model 3                |
|                        | Beta       | t       | Sig    | Beta       | t       | Sig    | Beta       | t       | Sig    |
| Age                    | -.286      | -2.194  | .004*  | -.364      | -2.850  | .005*  | -.284      | -2.643  | .010*  |
| Education              | .210       | -2.142  | .035*  | -.197      | -2.042  | .044*  | -.199      | -2.039  | .044*  |
| Spouse Quality-Prison  | -          | -1.986  | .052*  | -1.186     | -1.874  | .064   | .022       | .192    | .848   |
| $R^2$                  | .153       |        |        | .187       |        |        | .187       |        |        |
| Adjusted $R^2$         | .134       |        |        | .160       |        |        | .151       |        |        |
| $R^2$ Change           | .153*      |        |        | .034*      |        |        | .000       |        |        |
Model Analysis #2

Given the fact that the composite measure of child quality-parole reduced the variance explained in model 1, a second model was conducted with the removal of spouse quality-prison to examine the amount of variance explained by this model, and to see if the $R^2$ change was significant. Table 33 indicates that with the removal of the spouse quality measure, approximately 13% of the variance found in the number of prison misconducts was explained. These results confirm that the child quality composite measure was an insignificant predictor of prison misconduct, and the inclusion of this measure actually reduced the amount of variance explained on the dependent variable.

**Table 33: Age at Sentencing, Education Prior to Incarceration and Child Quality –Prison Composite on Number of Prison Misconducts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Sig</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Sig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.286</td>
<td>-.2194</td>
<td>.004*</td>
<td>-.205</td>
<td>-.2082</td>
<td>.04*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
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<td>-2.142</td>
<td>.035*</td>
<td>-.259</td>
<td>-2.359</td>
<td>.019*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Quality-Prison</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.063</td>
<td>-.588</td>
<td>.558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.156</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>.134</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$ Change</td>
<td>.153*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.558</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model Analysis #3 - Parole

Similar to the analysis of factors found in the previous model, children, spouse/significant others, and personal factors are presented to assess the relationship between age, education program completed during incarceration, relationship status with spouse and children on technical rule violation recidivism. Again, prior to conducting the analysis, table 19 revealed high levels of multicollinearity within the measures that defined the composites of *spouse*
quality – parole and child quality – parole. Given this fact, it was determined that it was appropriate to use these composite measures for the analysis. Since age at parole and education completed during incarceration did not correlate with the variable used to create the two components, they were added to the regression model.

Table 34 provides the results for the incremental model that was constructed to access the impact of personal factors on technical rule violation recidivism.

Table 34: Age at Parole, Education Completed during Incarceration, Spouse Quality – Parole Composite and Child Quality- Parole Composite on Recidivism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Model 1 Beta</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Model 2 Beta</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Model 3 Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age at Parole</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.948</td>
<td>.346</td>
<td></td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>.371</td>
<td></td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.563</td>
<td>.575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-.217</td>
<td>-2.156</td>
<td>.034*</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.209</td>
<td>-2.044</td>
<td>.044*</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.230</td>
<td>-2.251</td>
<td>.027*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse Quality-Parole</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.062</td>
<td>-.601</td>
<td>.549</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.927</td>
<td>.356</td>
<td>-.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Quality-Parole</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>1.642</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td></td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.027</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the personal factors of age and education, the adjusted R² for model only explains approximately 4% of the variance in technical rule violations – recidivism. The age of the respondents at parole was not a significant predictor of technical rule violation recidivism, while the completion of an education or training program during incarceration was significant. The addition of the composite variable, quality of relationship with spouse during parole, actually decreased the amount of explained variance to approximately 3%. The R² change from model 1
to 2 is not significant, while the completion of a training program during incarceration continued to be a significant predictor of recidivism. The addition of the composite measure, quality of relationship with child while under parole supervision, slightly increased the amount of variance explained to approximately 5%. Again, the $R^2$ changed from model 2 to 3 was not significant. The addition of this composite variable did not change the results of the standardized beta coefficient. The completion of education program during incarceration continued to be the best predictor of technical rule violation recidivism.

Given the small amount of variance in the numbers of respondents who did not commit new felony and/or misdemeanor convictions while under parole supervision, the analysis of new felony or misdemeanor recidivism was not conducted. The frequency distribution showed that less than 10% of the study population was convicted of new felony or misdemeanor offenses while under parole supervision (see Table 12).
CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the actual and perceived differences in three distinct domains: 1. demographic/personal factors; 2. The importance of spouses/significant others relationships; and 3. the importance of child relationships to the successful release of the offender from prison and parole supervision. Univariate statistical analyses focused on the summarization of demographic and personal differences in race, age at sentencing, age at parole placement, education, marital status, parental status and parent/child home placement before and after incarceration. Next, bivariate relationships were investigated. Analyses were conducted examining each of the demographic/personal factors, variables that defined the relationships between the participants and their spouses/significant others and their children individually on the dependent variables. Finally, multivariate analyses (i.e., regression analyses) focused on the collective impact from variables of each of the three domains on the dependent variables, number of prison misconducts received during incarceration and recidivism (the number of technical rule violations, misdemeanor and felony convictions while under parole supervision). This section of the dissertation provides an integrative discussion of each of the specific domains analyzed. Limitations of this study and directions for future research are outlined.

6.1 Importance of Race

The first issue dealt with was the importance of race and its relationship to the number of misconducts received while incarcerated or level of recidivism while under parole supervision.
The research question examined was, does race impact the number of prison misconducts received and/or levels of recidivism committed? The analysis indicated that African American or Caucasian American prisoners and parolees did not differ significantly with respect to the number of prison misconducts they received or levels and/or type of recidivism committed. These results seem to contradict previous research outcomes. According to research conducted by Jung, Spieldnes & Yamatani (2010), recidivism was compared across race among male ex-inmates released from the Allegheny County Jail in Pennsylvania during 2003. These ex-offenders were tracked for three years. The results concluded that the overall recidivism rate was 55.9% (N=12,545), and black men recidivated at a significantly higher rate than white men. This study also concluded that black men recidivated in a shorter period of time than their white peers, when age and length of time in jail were controlled for. The difference between this study and the study of Jung, et al (2010) is that their focus was on jailed inmates rather than persons who had been to prison.

Prison-based studies have also concluded that race is a predictor of recidivism. A study conducted by Langan and Levin (2002) concluded that within three years of release, 72.9% of black ex-inmates were rearrested compared with 62.7% of white ex-inmates. These results were supported by the outcome of research conducted by Mears, Wang, Hay & Bales (2008). This study concluded that the effects of race on recidivism remained after controlling for individual level risk factors, including prior criminal history, length of prison time and type of offense.

The differences between the current research and previous studies may be found in the way that recidivism is defined. As previously stated, this research defines recidivism as the commission of one technical rule violation, and/or the commission of one or more felony or misdemeanor acts that result in a conviction, that may or may not result in the offender’s return
to prison or new police contact. Although previous studies have examined recidivism from the perspective of technical rule violations, typically, these studies limit their definition of recidivism to a person being returned to prison, whether the behavior is for technical rule violations or a new criminal conviction. This study defined recidivism as the commission of a technical rule violation that may or may not result in the offenders return to prison. When recidivism is examined from this perspective, the differences in race appear to be non-existent.

6.2 Importance of Age

The age of the respondent at the time of sentencing and age at time of parole placement served as the two points of examination for age analyses. The research examined the question does age during incarceration and parole placement influence the number of prison misconducts received and the level and/or type of recidivistic actions committed? The outcomes indicated that age at time of sentencing was a significant predictor of the number of prison misconducts received. Mean differences between the number of prison misconducts received by those subjects who were 29 years and younger were, on average, greater than those subjects 30 years old and greater.

The examination of the results of age at time of parole and recidivism (the number of technical rule violations received and/or the number of new felony or misdemeanor convictions received) did not prove to be significant in the context of this study. Again, this outcome appears to contradict existing literature. According to a study conducted by Gendreau, Little & Goggin (1996), they examined 131 studies to determine which assessment instruments were the best predictors of adult offender recidivism. The study, involving a total of 61,312 subjects, concluded that age was a significant predictor of recidivism in 56 of the studies. The existing correlation between age and recidivism is well established in extant literature. The current study
may have produced contrary results for two reasons: 1. Several studies that have examined the effects of age on recidivism have done so in the context of a longitudinal study. The levels and types of recidivism were tracked over a significant time period. This study only examined recidivism within the time frame that the subjects were under the jurisdiction of the Michigan Department of Corrections. Any instances of recidivism after this time period were not considered in this study. 2. As previously stated, the classification of recidivism as one or more technical rule violations without the return to prison may also be an important factor in differing results, as many studies place recidivism within the framework of a subject being returned to prison, or a new arrest.

6.3 The Importance of Education

The level of education prior to incarceration and educational attainment during incarceration served as the two variables used to examine the questions: 1. Does the level of education prior to incarceration impact the number of prison misconducts received? 2. Does the completion of an education or training program influence recidivism? The level of education prior to incarceration was a significant predictor of the number of prison misconducts received. The average number of prison misconducts received by those subjects who did not have a high school diploma or GED were significantly higher than those subjects who did. These results support the hypothesis that the amount of education that a person has prior to incarceration will have an impact on the number of misconducts he receives during his period of confinement. In addition, these results are supported by research conducted by Newman, Lewis and Beverstock (1993: 293). According to these authors, “appropriate education leads to a more humane and more tolerable prison environment in which to live and work, not only for the inmates but also for the officers, staff and everyone else.”
The completion of an education or training program during incarceration was also a significant factor of recidivism. Interestingly, these results seem to indicate that an offender who completes an education or training program while incarcerated is more likely to engage in recidivism. This outcome also seems to contradict existing literature. According to Vacca (2004: 293), in the summation of the Newman et al., (1993) study, Vacca states

Prisoners who attend education programs while they are incarcerated are less likely to return to prison following their release. Since 1990, literature examining the return rates of prisoners, or recidivism, has shown that educated prisoners are less likely to find themselves back in prison a second time if they complete an educational program and are taught skills to successfully read and write. The "right kind" of education works to both lower recidivism and reduce the level of violence.

The results of the current study may not be contradictory to existing literature at all, but may be influenced by the way that recidivism has been operationalized, and the lack of a robust sample size (N=98). In addition, these results may be affected by the expectations for opportunities following the achievement of prison education. In a qualitative study conducted by Case & Fasenfest (2004), the authors examined the perceptions of ex-offenders regarding the usefulness of the education they received while in prison. Interestingly, the focus group interviews revealed that these perceptions varied along racial lines. White males reported higher levels of self esteem post education, and were unlikely to perceive hindrances to employment. Black males experienced lower levels of self esteem post education and reported more barriers in the obtainment and retaining of employment. Therefore, the results of the current study seem to indicate that if an offender completes a GED or training program during incarceration, but his expectations upon release are not met, he is more likely to engage in recidivism in the form of technical rule violations.
6.4 Most Important Factors to Successful Prison Release

This section addressed the question of what factors were significant predictors of prison misconduct. In order to investigate the hypothesis that the offender’s desire to reunite with his family would be a significant predictor of prison misconduct, the subjects were asked to rank the factors that they felt were most important to their successful release from prison. Given the fact that all of the respondents did not have children, this variable was initially categorized into two groupings; non-family or family factors as the most important reasons for prison release. Although the results were not statistically significant, respondents selected the desire to reunite with family 63.6% (63) of the time, while selecting non-family factors 36.4% (36) of the time. Clearly, respondents believed family to be an important factor in their prison release.

A closer examination of this hypothesis was conducted, in which this variable was categorized into three groupings: 1. Self improvement/preservation, 2. Family –non children and 3. Family –particularly children. Again, these results were statistically non-significant (.06). The post hoc test, Dunnett’s t was also examined, and likewise the difference in the means between the groups was not significant. Those participants who selected self-improvement/preservation had higher levels of prison misconducts than both categories of family. The lack of statistical significance can possibly be attributed to the small sample size (N=99).

6.5 Marital Status and Prison/Parole Behavior

This part of the dissertation examines the importance of the marital status prior to incarceration and during parole supervision, and its impact on decision making. The marital status of the respondents prior to incarceration was the variable used to analyze the hypothesis that marital status while incarcerated would be a significant predictor of prison misconduct. The
marital status of the respondent was a significant predictor of the number of prison misconducts received during incarceration. These results were supported by several previous research studies. According to Kruttschnitt, Uggen & Kelly (2000, Para. 6),

Sampson and Laub found that despite differences in the early childhood experiences of delinquents and nondelinquents, adult bonds to work and family produced similar outcomes in both groups. Strong adult attachments to work and marriage were associated with reduced criminal behavior and desistence from crime. Similar longitudinal findings have appeared in other longitudinal analyses of adult offenders (see, e.g., Farrington 1995, Farrington and West 1995; Horney, Osgood & Marshall 1995).

A closer examination of this hypothesis was also conducted through the use of an ANOVA. These results also informed that marital status was a significant predictor of the number of prison misconducts received. The examination of the post hoc test, Dunnett C, specifically suggested that there was a significant mean difference between those who were single and those who were single, but in a relationship.

The results appear to indicate that the marital status of the subject during incarceration is a significant factor to his prison success. Furthermore, it is quite possible that those subjects in this study who were in a relationship but were not married, viewed the relationship as a stabilizing factor, without the pressures that come with being married and away from one’s spouse or the loneliness of being single and incarcerated. According to Lopoo & Western (2005, para. 7), “Separation from communities reduces the opportunity to form relationships and also contributes to strain among those who are already married.” Those subjects who were in a relationship may enjoy the benefits of being in a relationship while incarcerated without the strain associated with marriage.

Study results showed that simply having a spouse or significant other while under parole supervision was not a statistically significant predictor of the commission of recidivistic
behavior. Moreover, this outcome indicated that those subjects who did not have a relationship with a spouse or significant other during their parole period, engaged in recidivism at a similar level as those who were in a relationship. Again, these results appear to deviate from extant literature. Yet again, this may be related to the way recidivism is operationalized, specifically the fact that for the purposes of this research, recidivism includes the commission of at least one technical rule violation. In addition, the amount of time that recidivism was examined in this study (during period of parole supervision only) may be unique in comparison to many studies.

6.6 Bond with Spouse/Significant Other –Prison and Parole

The subject’s own assessment of the bond with his spouse or significant other before, during and after his confinement was a unique component to the existing research. The research hypotheses stated that those subjects who classified their relationships with their spouses or significant others as strong would have less misconduct reports and would engage in recidivism less than those who did not have a relationship or classified their relationship as weak. The outcomes did not indicate a significant difference in the number of prison misconducts received between these groupings (p. = .08). The small number of cases evaluated (N=97) may be a factor in the determination of significance, and a larger sample size quite possibly could lead to a different conclusion.

The results of the analysis of the bond with spouse/significant other during parole supervision and recidivism were not statistically significant. This outcome may be explained by various factors. The mere fact that the participants had completed a period of parole supervision indicates that a blend of factors may have combined to lead to this outcome. These reasons may include less dependency on the spouse or significant other after release from prison to the possibility that the dynamics of these relationships changed over the course of time.
6.7 Spousal Contact during Incarceration

Data was collected on the frequency and types of contact with the offender’s spouses or significant others during incarceration, which included the frequency of visits, telephone calls and letter-writing between the parties. The initial analysis examined the frequency of prison visits by the spouses or significant others. The research hypothesis stated that the amount of contact with the spouse or significant other during incarceration would be a significant predictor of the number of prison misconducts received.

The initial evaluation did not show a significant difference in the number of misconducts received between the following three categories; 1) those subjects who were not in a relationship; 2) those participants who were in a relationship but never or only sometimes received a visit; and 3) those subjects who received visits often to very often. This analysis produced a probability value of .08. However, the analysis of the post hoc test, Dunnett C, did produce significant results, specifically between those ex-offenders who were not in a relationship during incarceration and those who never or only sometimes received a visit from their spouses or significant others.

Interestingly, those subjects who were in a relationship, but did not receive visits had the lowest mean average number of misconducts received of the three groupings (1.37), followed by those who frequently received visits (2.23). Those subjects who did not have a relationship had the highest mean number of prison misconducts (4.98). Once again, these results may be influenced by the sample size (N=96). Given the fact that the ANOVA results were not significant, while the post hoc test, Dunnett C were significant, this outcome neither supports, nor contradicts extant literature that frequency of contact with family will assist the offender to
adjust to the prison environment and/or reduce the number of misconducts received (Bennett, 1987; Carlson and Cervera, 1992; Clark, 2001).

6.8 Spousal Importance during Incarceration and Parole

The offender’s relationship with his spouse or significant other appears to be of greater significance and importance to the offender during his period of incarceration than during his parole phase. The research hypotheses stated that the level of importance that an offender places on his relationship with his spouse or significant other during incarceration will be a significant factor to the offender’s successful release from prison. And, second, the level of importance placed on this relationship will influence the involvement in recidivism. Similar to previous analyses, this variable was categorized into three groupings: 1) Those subjects who did not have a relationship. 2) Those subjects who classified this relationship as their relationship as not important to somewhat important. 3) Those subjects who classified their relationship as important to very important.

Similar to previous outcomes, the initial results did not show a significant difference between those participants who did not have a relationship and those who did. However, the post hoc test, Dunnett C, did show a statistically significant difference in means between those subjects who did not have a relationship while incarcerated and those who classified their relationships as not important to somewhat important during incarceration. Again, the perceived level of importance of these relationships by the offender, were not statistically significant during the participant’s period of parole.

The examination of the relationship between the children and ex-offenders produced some interesting results. Similar to the relationships between the ex-offenders and their spouses,
the participants’ relationships with their children seemed to be important during incarceration, but less important while under parole supervision.

6.9 The Importance of Children Prior to Incarceration

This section of the research examines the question of whether having children prior to incarceration affects the decision making of offenders during incarceration. The first analysis examines the research hypothesis that having children prior to incarceration was a significant predictor of the number of prison misconducts an offender would receive while incarcerated. The Independent samples t-test outcome indicated that having children prior to incarceration was a significant predictor of the number of prison misconducts received. The results specifically show that those subjects who did not have children prior to incarceration had a higher average number of misconducts. Previous research that has examined the importance of the relationship between incarcerated fathers and their children is extremely limited. According to Rudolph (2005: abstract):

Typically, discussions about the effect of imprisonment upon incarcerated parents and their children involve women (Beckerman, 1994; Beckerman, 1998; Boudin, 1998). During a period when more attention was given to women offenders, an increase in publications occurred in the scholarly literature about mothers in prisons (Baunach, 1985; Leflore & Holston, 1989; Sametz, 1980). Then, the unanimous view of these writers was that men, in general, had no primary responsibility for children, and when men went to prison, they were unaffected by separation from their children (Baunach, 1985). If fathers were studied, the purpose was to investigate the extent to which criminogenic fathers passed on their criminal tendencies to their children (Morris, 1967). Virtually dismissed were fatherhood issues of incarcerated men (Boswell, 202; Browning, Miller & Spruance, 2001).

The study conducted by Rudolph (2005) indicates that having children does affect the behavior of incarcerated fathers. The results of my study also support the hypothesis that having
children prior to incarceration is a significant predictor of the number of prison misconducts an offender will commit while incarcerated. My experience as a corrections and parole officer has afforded many opportunities to discuss the relationships between the offender and his children. Frequently, an offender would acknowledge his love for his children, and the importance that they play in his behavior, particularly his prison adjustment.

6.10 Time Spent with Children Prior to Incarceration & During Parole

Next, the research examined the hypothesis that the more time that an offender spent with his children prior to incarceration, the less likely he would be to receive prison misconducts. Similar to previous results, the probability value for this analysis was not significant (.09). When the post hoc test, Dunnett C, was examined, these results showed a significant difference in the means between those respondents who did not have children while incarcerated and those who stated they never to sometimes spent time with their children. Again, these results may be influenced by the limited number of cases in the sample (N=97). Although this outcome did not overwhelmingly support the hypothesis that the amount of time that an offender spends with his children would influence his prison behavior, these results did indicate that further investigation of this relationship is needed.

The research hypothesis that the more time that an offender spent with his children while under parole supervision, the less likely he would be to engage in recidivism was also analyzed. These results did not show any statistical significance in the level and type of recidivism between those participants who did not have children, those who never to sometimes spent time with their children, and those who often to very often spent time with their children.
6.11 Bond with Children Prior to Incarceration

The subjects’ evaluations of the strength of the bonds with their children during incarceration provided some noteworthy results. The research hypothesis stated that an offender who classifies his relationship with his child/children as strong would engage in significantly less prison misconduct. The results of this analysis indicated that there was a significant difference between the assigned categories and the number of misconducts received, specifically those subjects who did not have children and those who classified the strength of the bond with their children prior to incarceration as very weak to average. These results supported the contention by Rudolph (2005) that the incarcerated fathers’ parenting relationships with their children were very important to these men, and should be examined extensively.

6.12 Bond with Children during Incarceration and Parole Supervision

This research sought to examine the hypotheses that the stronger the bond an offender has with his children during incarceration and while under parole supervision, the less likely he will engage in prison misconduct and recidivism. The results for both tests did not demonstrate a significant difference in the number of misconducts received and recidivism committed between any of the categories analyzed, e.g., those subjects who did not have children and those subjects who classified these relationships as weak or average too strong to very strong.

These results indicated that a change possibly occurred in the importance of the bond with their children in a proportion of the subjects while incarcerated. One possible explanation lies in the fact that being separated from a family member can potentially weaken the relationship. The examination of the frequency distribution of the bond with children prior to incarceration reveals that 10% of the respondents classified this bond as very weak to average. During incarceration, this number increased to 19%. A second potential explanation speaks to
the crux of this research. The relationships between the offender and his children during incarceration may not have received any support from those persons, policies and procedures that populate the subjects’ meso or microsystems (see Figure 1). For example, prison policies and procedures may have played a pivotal role in the subject’s inability to maintain a bond with his children. The inability of mothers or guardians to drive to visit the offender due to the distance of his confinement would be an important factor that contributes to weakening the bond between father and child.

6.13 Child Importance during Incarceration and Parole

This research examined the hypotheses that the level of importance that an offender places on his children during incarceration and while under parole supervision will reduce the number of prison misconducts and level of recidivism. The outcome of this study found that the importance that the offender places on his children during incarceration was statistically significant in determining the number of misconduct reports he received. The results of this analysis can be summed up by comments found in a study conducted by Turner & Peck (2002, Para. 12):

Guys stop me with pictures or their first letters from their children and they can’t wait to show me….One tough inmate went to the prison library to research ballet for his daughter. Another heard about a hot breakfast program at his daughter’s grade school. He corresponded with school staff and arranged to pay for that benefit by giving up the money deducted monthly from his inmate account for cable TV. One recently released LDD graduate gained custody from foster care of his three boys – by three different mothers – and, for the first time, has them all under the same roof.

These results suggest that children are important to a parolee during his parole period. However, the importance of the child may compete with other factors while under supervision.

According to Shover (1985, 1996) in his model of the exiting process from a life of crime,
priority is assigned to good relationships, such as with spouses, children and peers. Additionally, the offender often deals with the development of a new sense of self, a growing awareness of time and a change in his aspirations and goals. This process causes the ex-offender to examine his life closely, and although the relationship with his children is important, the course of action that will enhance self, such as the obtainment of a good job and the unwillingness to continue to compete with the criminal justice system also serves to influence his behavior.

6.14 Model Summaries

The results of the regression analyses provide outcomes that are informative and worthy of discussion. The examination of composite measures that were used to analyze prison misconducts revealed that an offender’s age at sentencing, education level prior to incarceration and those composite variables that defined the quality of relationship with spouse prior to and during incarceration were significant predictors of the number of misconducts received during incarceration. Additionally, the variables that defined the quality of relationship that an offender had with his children prior to and during incarceration were insignificant. In fact, the addition of the child quality measure in the model reduced the level of explanation on the dependent variable, technical rule violation – recidivism from 16% to 15%. These results are noteworthy because it was the position of this research that familial factors would be the greatest predictors of significance.

These results do support the original hypotheses that age, education and spousal relationships are important to prison success. However, the insignificance of the composite measure of child quality may be influenced by factors beyond the control of the offender or child. Outcomes revealed that three of the five composite variables (having children prior to incarceration, classification of bond with children prior to prison and the importance of the
relationship with child/children to successful prison release from prison) were significant in previous analyses. However two of the composite variables were insignificant (amount of time spent with children prior to incarceration, frequency of contact during incarceration). Both of these factors focused on the amount of time the subjects spent with their children. According to Hamer (2001), the microsystem and mesosystem environment to which one belongs helps reinforce certain relations. The amount of time spent between the fathers and their children prior to and during incarceration, may have been severely hindered by the offenders’ relationship with the mother or guardian of the child/children. Although this study has shown that having children is important to the offender’s thought process, a lack of contact with his children, whether purposely or not, may reduce the level of importance in the decision making process by the offender.

Table 33 provides regression models that may offer support for the previous contention. Model 1 showed that 13.4% of the variance was explained by the variables of age and education. Model 2 revealed that the removal of the spouse-quality composite measure from the analysis reduced the amount of variance explained from 16% (table 32) to 12.8%. Although the $R^2$ change in table 33 was not significant, these results did indicate that the child quality measure did not contribute to the understanding of the dependent variable.

Finally, table 34 confirms previous outcomes in this study. These models showed that the completion of an education or training program while incarcerated is a significant predictor of technical rule violation recidivism. The age of the subject or familial factors of child and spouse/significant other were less important in the explanation of this dependent variable.

As one can see from this research, familial relations and their importance to the adjustment of offenders during incarceration and parole supervision are important to the
offender. However, despite the fact that an offender may classify these relationships as important to his success, the level of importance seems to be influenced by his confinement status, i.e., when the offender is confined the influence of these relationships is significant, but when he is released, the level of influence decreases. This exploration has attempted to provide research based explanations for these outcomes, but further investigation is necessary.

Personal factors, specifically age and education, were important in understanding offender behavior. However, similar to familial factors, age appeared to be important during incarceration, but not so while under parole supervision. Education was the only variable in the study that was significant during and after incarceration. As previously noted, the completion of an education or training program during incarceration was a significant predictor of technical rule violation recidivism. Conversely, these results were surprising, because the outcome showed that those subjects who completed a GED or training program were more likely to commit technical rule violations. Based on previous research, this may be explained by the unfulfilled expectations that the offender had when he returned to society after completing a program. This leads to another important aspect of this research, the impact of the ecological systems on offender behavior.

6.15 Theoretical Implications

As one may deduce from this research, the offender’s personal or familial factors are not independent of the systems that surround them. These systems interact or intersect with one another to affect familial relations and impact offender behavior. To examine these relationships from an ecological approach may offer a much fuller understanding of the intersection of various factors that influence these relationships. For example, the results of this research inform that the familial relations examined in this study are important while the offender is incarcerated, but are
not significant while under parole supervision. This research has also briefly examined parole policies and procedures. Although these policies and procedures were not analyzed from a statistical perspective, this writer assumes that these policies and procedures play an important role, but may or may not be a statistically significant factor in the offender’s success. This begs the questions, what factors are significant to an offender’s success while under parole supervision? Are these factors significant when family interaction is examined? The examination of the offender’s behavior using an ecological approach may offer insight not gleaned from this study.

This research also used the Social Control theory as a foundation for understanding offender behavior. The results indicate that the family is a significant factor that heightens an offender’s inner controls while incarcerated. Unfortunately, the limited scope of this research doesn’t allow for exploration of multiple factors that also may be contributing to offender behavior while incarcerated. This leads to further inquiry, why are these relationships important while incarcerated, but not as important when the offender is released?

This exploration has offered research supported explanations to understand some of these outcomes, but it is apparent that a greater understanding cannot be obtained without further investigation.

6.16 Limitations of the Research

The first limitation of this research was the small amount of previous exploration from the perspectives of the offenders themselves. Several studies have offered statistics regarding various aspects of an offender’s re-adjustment to society upon prison completion, such as recidivism rates, but the existence of the literature that probes deeply into the challenges that an
offender faces upon societal return is limited. Therefore, this study was limited in its ability to explain some of the outcomes.

The second limitation of this research was the sample size. Although the number of cases in this research would be classified as sufficient in many studies, the fact that outcomes often approached significance leads to the conclusion that a larger sample size may have provided a greater number of significant results.

A third limitation in this research was the reliance upon self-reports by respondents, particularly in the area of their perceived level of closeness with their children, spouses, or significant others. Although this research was able to confirm the responses of the participants with regards to prison misconduct, commission of new criminal activity and/or technical rule violations, this study was totally reliant upon the thoughtful and honest answers by the respondents in all other areas. For instance, this exploration did not survey the families and children of the participants in order to validate their responses.

A fourth limitation revolved around the fact that participants may have more than one child by different mothers. The offender may have had a close knit relationship with one of the children, while not having a relationship at all with subsequent children.

A fifth limitation revolved around measurement issues. This data set was a forced-choice design. Depending on certain questions, some respondents may have answered in a “socially desirable” manner, especially since the researcher was present for most of the data collection.

A final limitation is related to the generalizability of the research results. Although this researcher attempted to include measures that provided potential participants with an equal chance at being selected for study inclusion, the social stigma attached to being labeled an offender and the difficulties in finding qualified subjects presented a significant challenge.
Therefore, this research utilized the non-probabilistic referral sampling procedure. The primary benefit that this technique offers is the ability to provide potential subjects that would otherwise not be available. However, this procedure typically lacks generalizability to the target population. Therefore, all results should be used with caution.

6.17 Future Directions for Research

Although this research provided a limited scope of answers regarding family relations and personal factors that may influence prison and parole behavior, it did not establish all the answers about these relationships. It did allow for an enhanced empirical understanding of the familial phenomena. This research also established the importance of family to the offender, but it did not evaluate ecological factors that may enhance or hinder the importance of these relationships. Therefore, prospective researchers should evaluate these relationships within the context of current ecological factors, such as the relationship between joblessness and familial relations and the impact on recidivism. Furthermore, qualitative analyses that allow for the offenders’ perspectives should be considered to provide greater insight into an offender’s prison and parole experience.
NOTICE OF EXPEDITED APPROVAL

To: Kenneth Kelso
Sociology
2233 Faculty/Administration Bl

From: Ellen Barton, Ph.D.
Chairperson, Behavioral Institutional Review Board (B3)

Date: July 21, 2009

RE: HIC #: 0540953E
Protocol Title: A Family Affair: The Effects of Familial Relations on Offender Recidivism
Sponsor:
Protocol #: 0905007102

Expiration Date: July 20, 2010
Risk Level / Category: Research not involving greater than minimal risk

The above-referenced protocol and items listed below (if applicable) were APPROVED following Expedited Review (Category 7*) by the Chairperson/designee for the Wayne State University Behavioral Institutional Review Board (B3) for the period of 07/21/2009 through 07/20/2010. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals that may be required.

• Flyer
• Telephone Script with Oral Consent
• Information Sheet (dated 7/13/09)

* Federal regulations require that all research be reviewed at least annually. You may receive a *Continuation Renewal Reminder* approximately two months prior to the expiration date; however, it is the Principal Investigator's responsibility to obtain review and continued approval before the expiration date. Data collected during a period of lapsed approval is unapproved research and can never be reported or published as research data.
* All changes or amendments to the above-referenced protocol require review and approval by the HIC BEFORE implementation.
* Adverse Reactions/Unexpected Events (AR/UE) must be submitted on the appropriate form within the timeframe specified in the HIC Policy (http://www.hic.wayne.edu/nicpol.html).

NOTE:
1. Upon notification of an impending regulatory site visit, hold notification, and/or external audit the HIC office must be contacted immediately.
2. Forms should be downloaded from the HIC website at each use.

*Based on the Expedited Review List, revised November 1998
APPENDIX B

Letter to Participants

Letter to Participants with Consent Form

Potential Participants Name
Address
City, State

Dear Mr. ______________________________

My name is Kenneth Kelso and I am a Ph.D. candidate in the Sociology Department at Wayne State University. I am currently working toward the completion of my dissertation research, and I would like your help in doing so. I am currently conducting research that examines the factors associated with a person’s successful release from prison and his successful completion of his parole supervision. You were identified as a person who successfully completed a period of incarceration and period of parole. Mr.___________ your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Although the findings will not benefit you, they may benefit others in the future.

So, Mr. __________ if you fit this criteria; are no longer under the jurisdiction of the Michigan Department of Corrections and you did not have any formal orders preventing you from having contact with your children while incarcerated or under parole supervision, please fill out the attached questionnaire.

I am sending you a copy of the Consent Form which I will need for you to sign and return in the self addressed envelope provided. Please review the form and if you have any questions please call me at 734-536-6636.

I will contact you soon upon receipt of your Consent Form, regarding the next steps in your participation.

Sincerely,

Kenneth T. Kelso
Researcher
APPENDIX C

Consent Form

Consent Form/Information Sheet

Title of Study: A Family Affair

Principal Investigator (PI): Kenneth Kelso
Department of Sociology

Introduction/ Purpose: I understand that Kenneth T. Kelso is asking me to participate in a research study about my prison and parole experiences.

Study Procedures: I further understand that I will be participating in an interview in which these experiences will be the topic. The interview is likely to last 10 to 15 minutes. I understand that the survey questionnaires will be used and later, the information will be analyzed, after which the questionnaires will be destroyed. This is agreeable to me.

Risks: There are minimal risks associated with this particular study. The only risk is to possibly recall unpleasant family memories. I understand that Kenneth T. Kelso will assist me in dealing with any unpleasant memories, and that I may discontinue the interview at any time.

Benefits: I may experience a better understanding of the factors that helped me complete my prison and parole terms.

Compensation: In the unlikely event of any injury resulting from the research study, no reimbursement, compensation, or free medical care is offered by Wayne State University. No funds are available to pay respondents in this study.
Voluntary Participation/Withdrawal: Kenneth T. Kelso has explained to me the details of the study and the interview; I understand that I can discontinue the interview at any time.

Questions: If I have any questions concerning my participation in this study now or in the future, Kenneth T. Kelso can be contacted at (734) 536-6636. If I have any questions regarding my rights as research subject, ____________________________Chairperson of the Behavioral Investigation Committee can be reached at (313) 577-5174.

Confidentiality: I understand that all surveys collected will remain confidential. No names will be attached to the survey. After the surveys have been analyzed, they will be destroyed. Whenever the data is presented in the research it will be in summary form.

Consent to Participate in Research Study: I have read or had read to me all the above information about this research study, including experimental procedures, possible risks, and the likelihood of any benefits to me. The content and meaning of this information has been explained and is understood. All of my questions have been answered. I hereby consent and voluntarily offer to follow the study requirements and take part in this study. I will receive a signed copy of this consent.

Participant’s Signature  Date
APPENDIX D

Research Assessment Survey

1. What is your racial status?
   a. [ ] African-American
   b. [ ] Caucasian-American
   c. [ ] Hispanic-American
   d. [ ] Asian American
   e. [ ] Bi-racial
   f. [ ] Other

2. What year were you born? __________________

3. What was your highest level of education completed prior to going to prison?
   a. [ ] less than 12 years
   b. [ ] High school diploma
   c. [ ] GED
   d. [ ] Some college
   e. [ ] Associates Degree
   f. [ ] Bachelors Degree

4. Did you complete an education or training program while in prison?
   Yes____________ No __________________

5. If you completed an education or training program while under parole supervision, what did you complete?
   a. [ ] GED
   b. [ ] High school diploma
   c. [ ] Associates Degree
   d. [ ] Bachelors Degree
   e. [ ] Other training program, please specify______________________________________
   f. [ ] did not complete an education or training program while under parole supervision.
   g. [ ] Not applicable
6. What factors do you attribute to your successful completion of this education program while under the supervision of the Criminal Justice system? (check all that apply)
   a. [ ] ordered as a condition of release by Parole Board
   b. [ ] desire to reunite with family
   c. [ ] desire to reunite with family, particularly children
   d. [ ] desire to improve self
   e. [ ] desire to regain control of life
   f. [ ] fear of prison
   g. [ ] religion
   h. [ ] other______________________________________________________
   i. [ ] NA

7. Please rank your answers to question #6 in order of importance. Please place letter next to # (Ex. 1= most important; 4= least important.)
   1. _______
   2. _______
   3. _______
   4. _______

8. At what age were you sentenced to prison for your most recent conviction?
   ___________________

9. On your most recent period of confinement within an MDOC prison facility, how much time did you spend in confinement?
   a. [ ] less than 6 months
   b. [ ] 6 months to 12 months
   c. [ ] 1 year to 18 months
   d. [ ] 18 months to 24 months
   e. [ ] 2 years to 4 years
   f. [ ] 4 years or more

10. What factors do you attribute to your successful release from prison? (check all that apply)
    a. [ ] programs offered while in prison
    b. [ ] desire to reunite with family
    c. [ ] desire to reunite with family, particularly children
    d. [ ] desire to regain control of life (i.e., when to go to bed, what to eat)
    e. [ ] fear of prison
    f. [ ] desire to accomplish personal goals (i.e., attend college, start a career)
    g. [ ] health related issues
    h. [ ] other______________________________________________________
11. Please rank your answers to question #10 in order of importance. Please place letter next to # (Ex. 1= most important; 4= least important.)
   1. _______
   2. _______
   3. _______
   4. _______

12. During your most recent period of confinement within an MDOC prison facility, how many bondable tickets did you receive?
   a. [ ] zero
   b. [ ] 1 – 2
   c. [ ] 3 – 5
   d. [ ] 6 – 10
   e. [ ] 11 or more

13. During your most recent period of confinement within an MDOC prison facility, how many non-bondable tickets did you receive?
   a. [ ] zero
   b. [ ] 1 – 2
   c. [ ] 3 – 5
   d. [ ] 6 – 10
   e. [ ] 11 or more

14. How long were you on parole?
   a. [ ] 0 – 6 months
   b. [ ] 6 – 12 months
   c. [ ] 12 – 18 months
   d. [ ] 18 – 24 months
   e. [ ] greater than 24 months

15. When placed on parole, how long did it take you to obtain steady employment (30 hours or more per week)?
   a. [ ] 0 – 3 months
   b. [ ] 3 – 6 months
   c. [ ] 6 – 9 months
   d. [ ] 9 – 12 months
   e. [ ] longer than one year
   f. [ ] have not found steady employment
16. While on parole, who do you live with?
   a. [ ] wife
   b. [ ] girlfriend
   c. [ ] male partner
   d. [ ] parents
   e. [ ] reside alone
   f. [ ] child/children
   g. [ ] other family members
   h. [ ] friend/friends
   i. [ ] homeless
   j. [ ] community placement
   k. [ ] Other________________________________________________________

17. Did you contribute financially to your home placement while on parole?
   Yes_________ No_________ Sometimes_________

18. During your most recent period of confinement within an MDOC facility, what was your marital status?
   a) [ ] married
   b) [ ] separated
   c) [ ] divorced prior to prison term (skip to question #26)
   d) [ ] divorced while in prison
   e) [ ] single  (skip to Question #26)
   f) [ ] In relationship, not married
   g) [ ] divorced while incarcerated

20. How would you classify the bond between you and your spouse or partner prior to prison?
   V. Weak (1) Weak (2) Average (3) Strong (4) V. Strong (5)

21. How would you classify the bond between you and your spouse or partner while in prison?
   V. Weak (1) Weak (2) Average (3) Strong (4) V. Strong (5)
22. How often did your spouse or partner visit you while in prison?

   Never (1) Rarely (2) Sometimes (3) Often (4) Very Often (5)

23. How often did your spouse or partner speak to you by telephone in prison?

   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

24. How often did your spouse or partner write to you while in prison?

   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

25. How important was the relationship with your spouse or partner to your successful release from prison?

   Not important (1) Somewhat important (2) Important (3) V. important (4)

26. While on parole did you have a spouse or partner?

   Yes_________ No_________

   If you answered “no” to question #26, please skip to question #30

27. How would you classify the bond between you and your spouse or partner while on parole?

   V. Weak (1) Weak (2) Average (3) Strong (4) V. Strong (5)

28. How important was the relationship with your spouse or partner in you not committing any new crimes?

   Not important (1) Somewhat important (2) Important (3) V.important (4)

29. How important was the relationship with your spouse or partner in you not committing technical rule violations?

   Not important (1) Somewhat important (2) Important (3) V.important (4)
Now, I would like to ask you some questions about your children. If you did not have children while incarcerated or on parole you have completed the questionnaire. Thank you.

30. Did you have any children prior to incarceration? Yes_______ No_______

31. During your most recent period of confinement within the Michigan Department of Corrections, did you have children? Yes_______ No_______

32. Child(ren) born while on parole Yes__________ No _________

33. Could you provide us with some information about your children? Begin with the oldest.

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<th>33 (M) male or (F) female</th>
<th>34b Lived with you full-time prior to your most recent period of incarceration</th>
<th>34c Lived with you part-time prior to your most recent period of incarceration</th>
<th>34d Did not live with you at all prior to incarceration</th>
<th>35a Lived with you full-time while you were on parole</th>
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If your only or oldest child was born while on parole, please skip to question #49

37. While in prison, did you ever receive any type of parental training? Yes_______ No_______
38. If you answered yes to question #37, do you feel this training helped in your role as a parent?

Yes_________ No__________ NA___________

39. How would you classify the bond between you and your child or children prior to prison?

V. Weak (2) Weak (3) Average (4) Strong (5) V. Strong

40. Prior to going to prison, how often did you spend time with your child or children?

Never (1) Rarely (2) Sometimes (3) Often (4) Very Often (5)

41. Prior to going to prison, did you support your child or children financially?

Yes_________ No__________ Sometimes________

42. Prior to going to prison, how often did you express your support to your child or children for the positive things they did?

Never (1) Rarely (2) Sometimes (3) Often (4) Very Often (5)

43. How would you classify the bond between you and your child or children while in prison?

V. Poor (1) Poor (2) Average (3) Good (4) V. Good (5)

44. How often did your child or children visit you while in prison?

Never (1) Rarely (2) Sometimes (3) Often (4) Very Often (5) NA (6)

45. How often did your child or children speak to you by telephone in prison?

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6)
46. How often did your child or children write to you while in prison?

47. While in prison, how often did you express your support to your child or children for the positive things they did?

48. How important was the relationship with your child or children to your successful release from prison?

49. How would you classify the bond between you and your child or children while on parole?

50. How important was the relationship with your child or children in you not committing any new crimes?

51. How important was relationship with your child or children in you not committing technical rule violations?

52. While on parole, how much time did you spend with your child or children?
53. **While on parole,** did you support your child or children financially?  
   Yes________ No________ Sometimes________

54. **While on parole,** how often did you offer support to your child or children for the positive things they did?

   Never (1)  Rarely (2)  Sometimes (3)  Often (4)  Very Often (5)
REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

A FAMILY AFFAIR: THE EFFECTS OF FAMILIAL RELATIONS ON OFFENDER RECIDIVISM

by

KENNETH TAREZ KELSO

May 2012

Advisor: Dr. Mary Cay Sengstock
Major: Sociology
Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

Prisoner recidivism has and continues to impact families and communities. Traditional methods aimed at reducing this phenomenon have had little success in curtailing this problem. One obvious but often overlooked tool that may play a significant role in dealing with this issue is the importance of family relationships. This dissertation quantitatively examines offender’s perceptions of the importance of family relations, specifically the relationships with the offender’s children, spouse or significant other. These relationships are analyzed to determine their level of impact on prison misconduct and parole recidivism.

Response data from 102 male ex-offenders from the years of 2009 to 2010 are used to test the originating question of this dissertation: To what extent are the relationships between offenders and their families related to prison misconduct or recidivism? Variations in perceptions towards familial important are ascertained via sub-group analyses. These subgroups analyses use demographic/personal factors (age, race, marital status, educational attainment prior to incarceration, educational attainment during incarceration), and family background/structural factors (residence of children before incarceration and during parole
supervision, strength of bond with children and spouse or significant other prior to and during incarceration, and while under parole supervision).

This analysis found that differences in prison misconducts does exist between offenders who had children prior to incarceration, or were married or in a relationship during incarceration and those offenders who did not have children or were not in a relationship during this time period. The results show that offender’s who have children, are married or in a relationship are less likely to engage in prison misconduct. However, these relationships are not significant predictors of recidivism.

Some linear regression models indicate that factors or variables such as age, educational attainment prior to prison, composite measures of the quality of the relationship with spouse or significant other help predict prison misconduct, but only the variable of educational attainment during incarceration helps to predict parole recidivism.
AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Kenneth Tarez Kelso is a graduate of Eastern Michigan University (B.S. Criminal Justice 1991 and M.A. Sociology, 1998). While pursuing his doctoral degree at Wayne State University, Mr. Kelso worked as a Parole/Probation Agent with the Michigan Department of Corrections. He also served as a graduate teaching assistant, and taught various courses at Wayne State University, Henry Ford Community College and Oakland Community College. He currently serves as an Assistant Professor at Siena Heights University.

His areas of interest in academia lie at the heart of sociology of the family, with particular interest in parent and children relations, as well as current social issues that revolve around family dynamics and their impact on communities. Additionally, Mr. Kelso is interested in youth and delinquency issues and the familial and/or community structures and norms present that impact delinquent behavior.

Mr. Kelso’s goal as a future academician is to add to the dearth of literature that exists on various aspects of a community and the relationship to family. His primary objective is two-fold. First, to contribute to the discipline in such a manner that awareness of various cultural social problems associated with family and/or community dysfunction is identified, and secondly, to be able to research these issues and provide solutions that respect culture, while exposing ecological factors that contribute to familial and/or community dysfunction.