

ABSTRACT

Title of Document: THE EFFECT OF CORRECTIONAL FACILITY PROGRAMMING ON NONVIOLENT BELIEFS

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To date, little research has made an effort to pinpoint measurable changes in beliefs resulting from correctional facility programming. Peace in Prisons studied the effects of the programs at the Montgomery County Correctional Facility on the inmates' beliefs regarding violence. It was hypothesized that inmates participating in programs would undergo a greater reduction in violent beliefs over time than those not in programs. The team administered the Nonviolence Test to inmates three times over a three-month period. The primary purpose was to observe differences between those in programs and those not in programs. The team also sought to analyze the effects of other factors, including type of program, age, education, and race. The results demonstrate changes in violent beliefs due to a variety of factors, including involvement in certain types of programs, age, and the jail setting itself. What is more, these findings suggest numerous avenues for further research.

THE EFFECT OF CORRECTIONAL FACILITY PROGRAMMING ON
NONVIOLENT BELIEFS

By

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Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Gemstone Program

University of Maryland

2011

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Acknowledgements

We would like to offer our sincere gratitude to Warden Green and the entire staff at the Montgomery County Correctional Facility for their incredible support and willingness in allowing us to perform this study. Needless to say, this study would have been impossible without the extraordinary access we were given and without continual correspondence with the staff. We would also like to acknowledge Dave Mazeika and Nadine Frederique, without whom we would not have findings to present to you today. Thanks also go out to Professor Kool for permitting us to use the Nonviolence Test, to Judy Markowitz for assisting with the literature review, and to the Gemstone staff for their constant advice throughout the project. We would also like to thank our discussants for joining us today and for their help in the completion of our thesis. Above all, we would like to thank our mentor Dr. Gaston, whose expertise, support, and encouragement have guided us through these past three years.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Violence has been an innate human response since well before the advent of the codification of law. Humans created contiguous societies, city-states and modern states with social regimes in order to inhibit the violent state of human nature. Dating back nearly four thousand years to the Babylonians, the code of Hammurabi is one of the first instances of a written civil code created for the purpose of deterring violent or unlawful behavior. Despite this Hobbesian response to naturally violent human behavior, the status of violence as a broad societal detriment has persisted throughout the ages, remaining a prominent concern both domestically and throughout the entire world. Systems of laws have grown and developed over the course of human history into the very criminal justice systems that are in place today. The very existence, prevalence and breadth of these legal structures attest to the pursuit for protection from the threat of violence. Despite vast improvements in the legal system, laws deterring violent behavior have been and will continue to be broken. Those individuals who are convicted for socially deviant behavior are often placed in correctional facilities, only to interact with many other behaviorally violent individuals.

Peace in Prisons seeks to evaluate violence, as well as inmates' beliefs regarding it, within the context of the American correctional system. The opportunity for mobility in free society allows people to choose safer surroundings when the possibility or occurrence of violence presents itself. Such flexibility does not exist within the confines of a correctional facility. The close proximity of other prisoners and strict rules limiting freedom of movement make it difficult for inmates to avoid

potentially violent settings. Along those lines, different racial and ethnic groups can feasibly cluster together homogeneously in free society. In the confines of a jail, however, engagement with different individuals is more difficult to avoid. Delineation within free society mitigates conflict that could stem from differing interests and values. Yet, in a jail or prison environment private space is limited, resulting in greater incidence of hostility and tension among an already socially aberrant population. Consequently, violence is a persistent problem that continues to be present within these individuals even after release, something exemplified by unsettlingly high recidivism rates among violent offenders (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2011).

It is generally accepted that jails and prisons are microcosms of the society that instituted them. Thus, the violent attitudes observed in individuals in the free society are reflected within the jail system. Similarly, features of free society such as education, which are known to reduce one's tendency to commit violent acts, may demonstrate comparable success within the correctional setting. It is the hope of Team Peace in Prisons that this is indeed the case and for that reason research was focused on education and program involvement within a jail. This study aims to evaluate the efficacy of treatment programs available in the Montgomery County Correctional Facility (MCCF) in altering the beliefs of the facility's inmates regarding violence. From the research, Peace in Prisons hypothesizes that by participating in one or more treatment programs, an inmate's beliefs regarding violence will change, measured by an increase in the inmate's score on the Nonviolence Test (NVT), the evaluative instrument being used in this study.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between treatment programs and the inmates' belief regimes. Some significant changes in the beliefs of the inmates were discovered, and the team hypothesizes that there are certain factors, particularly programs, which influence this result. The hypothesis was tested using a pretest-posttest methodology which will be elaborated upon below. The study's findings suggest important trends in the effects of the jail's programs, as well as the nature of the facility itself, on the inmates' beliefs regarding violence. However, the study was limited in scope because of temporal constraints as well as those resulting from the operational nature of the facility.

It is important to understand that the dearth of literature and extant research in this area makes this study a probative effort and an inferential study designed to generate significant heuristic value in the field of corrections research. The unprecedented access the team was granted to the MCCF gives hope that the work will prove to be seminal, providing new knowledge from which numerous further research efforts can spring.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This study is a probative effort to understand more fully the efficacy of programming in jails and its effect on the attitudes and beliefs of the inmates found therein. In order to gain an appreciation for the multiple factors that could influence an investigation of this nature, a thorough literature review of scholarly works relevant to the project was necessary. Within this proper context, it will be possible to glean more from the results of the study. This review will begin with an examination

of extant theories of violence and nonviolence, followed by a definitional exploration of attitudes and beliefs, along with an analysis of factors that generate or influence violent attitudes and beliefs. The review will then go on to explore the literature pertaining to theories of education and programming in jails, delving into topics such as the availability of programs and their evaluations.

Violence and Crime as Problems in Society

The FBI classifies crime into two categories: violent and property crime. Violent crime consists of murder, forcible rape, robbery, burglary, and larceny. According to the 2009 Unified Crime Report, which is distributed annually by the FBI, over nine million violent crimes were reported, over 15,000 being murder, and 88,000 being forcible rape (Violent, 2010).

When the public asks the government to clean up the streets, politicians, in turn, push for harsher criminal punishments. The results of these policies are not always comforting. In 2000, David Garland published a study reviewing the effects of crime on social order and contemporary society. Garland's study showed how increasing criminal rates are linked to expanded imprisonment, limited civil liberties and minority underclass mistreatment. His study not only considered changing public conceptions of criminals, but also asked the public whether criminal offenders should be deprived of fundamental liberties. Garland placed most of the change on the shoulders of lawmakers, as he pointed out former New York City Mayor Rudolph Giuliani's style of campaigning for more aggressive policing based on quality of life standards (Garland, 2000).

But it is not solely the government's responsibility to reduce incidents of violence and crime. Robert Merton laid the groundwork for studies on deviant behavior in society. Merton said social structures and institutions force people to alter their behavior to best fit into society (Lista, 2009). In Merton's research on his strain theory, he defined deviance as "the characteristics of behaviors of individuals which violate group norms, including cultural norms and moral standards" (Lista, 2009). However, according to Merton, a negative reaction from society is necessary for a criminal's behavior to be considered deviant. His strain theory suggests societal norms are the reason for most criminal behavior. In order to conform to societal pressures, individuals must either become working members of society or adjust to a new subculture of deviant behavior.

Theories of Violence

There are several theories regarding the causes of aggression; these include biological, drive and social learning theories. Biological theories are associated with genetic and evolutionary causes of aggressive behavior. This approach, as described by E.O. Wilson (1975), states that aggression increases survival rates, thus increasing 'fitness' for natural selection. This means that aggression is used to meet the survival goal of a species. According to Wilson's theory, humans have adopted aggressive behavior over time as a result of natural selection (Wilson, 1975). The biological theories also explain predispositions to aggressive behavior, based on physical components such as testosterone levels. While the biological component of violence is important in understanding individual behavior, it is not instrumental for

understanding beliefs and behavior among groups or useful in efforts to change beliefs and behavior.

“Drive theories” of violence state that humans are driven to aggression in response to a deprived state or a need for something such as nourishment. When the deprived state continues and the desired goal is not achieved, humans become frustrated, leading to aggression (Kool, 2008). Social learning theories of aggression posit that all behaviors are learned through reinforcement and that behaviors can be shaped (Shaffer, 1953). Children can be trained to become cooperative and social through rewards; likewise, they can be trained to be violent through the same techniques. Albert Bandura, another believer of the social learning theory, states that the social learning of aggression involves acquisition, instigation, and regulation. As early as the age of six months, infants feel anger but do not have the capacity to understand its complexities or to express the emotion. Aggressive behavior arises later, usually after two years of age. Children are taught to express nonviolence through the management of negative emotions (Bandura, 1997).

There exists a spectrum of philosophies which posit that humans are either inherently violent or peaceful. However, Sigmund Freud believed there is a natural balance between the two extremes within each human. More specifically, he claimed each person has equal leanings towards life and death. The death side must somehow be released, and the way it is released leads to violence. If the death leaning is turned inward, the person hurts him or herself, either subconsciously through illness or more directly with physical personal harm. When the leaning is turned outward, the violence is targeted toward others. The key for peace is to expel the death side in a

way that promotes health and follows all laws, such as through sports or physical and non-interpersonal means (Baker, 1999).

The simple theory underlying the more complex idea is that within each individual exists two parts to a whole psyche. These parts are the eros instinct, which represents life and peace, and the thanatos, a death instinct that will win out most of the time. Freud believed there was no true way to stop the death instinct from being expressed, and that eventually it would take over the individual and lash out in an act of violence. This does not necessarily equate to causing death, but certainly does not exclude this possibility either. This theory builds off of Freud's view of man as a natural, wild beast, one essentially forced to live within the unnatural rules of society. In fact, Freud believed society's laws placed the individual under such stringent restrictions that the death instinct would be released at the first favorable instance (Baker, 1999). Basically, the death instinct is subdued so long by society that at a point when harming another is favorable to one's position, as in protecting family in a way that is acceptable, the death instinct will be released in a physical action.

Delving further into Freudian theory, there are three defined parts of the psyche, each of which can satisfy one of these two instincts. These three parts which make up the psyche are the ego, the superego, and the id (Baker, 1999). Freud believed the ego is the part of the person which attempts to be good and moral in all of the person's action. The superego takes this to an extreme, and tries to be supermoral, thereby sometimes striving too hard and doing immoral and bad acts in a failed attempt to be good. Finally, the id counters both of these and acts in a completely immoral manner, directly doing bad things or thinking violent thoughts.

The id and superego counter each other, in that when one successfully subdues its counterpart, the other becomes more volatile and tries to act out. Therefore, the more one subdues their violent attitudes, the more violent their self-vision and ego becomes, though they may not actually act out and be violent to others. In other words, by not acting violently to the outside world, the person acts violently towards themselves and their mind.

Johan Galtung, a premier scholar in the field of peace and conflict studies, broadly delineates between two types of violence: direct and structural. Direct violence describes an overt act of violence such as murder. Structural violence refers to that which lacks the “subject-object relation” of direct violence (Galtung, 1969). For purposes of clarity, Galtung also refers to structural violence as social injustice. This adds another dimension to its understanding. Structural violence is exactly as it sounds: violence resulting from the nature of a particular system, in this case, society (Galtung, 1969). Someone who dies of starvation would thus be the victim of structural violence. Galtung elaborated on this dichotomy years later, adding to it the notion of “cultural violence,” or “any aspect of a culture that can be used to legitimize violence in its direct or structural form” (Galtung, 1990). The result of this addition is a “conflict triangle” which can be used to relate the composite types of violence to one another. In Galtung’s work he defines violence as “the cause of the difference between the potential and the actual,” that is to say the difference between an ideal existence and the imperfect reality (Galtung, 1969).

What is Violent Behavior?

Social scientists use "violence" and "aggression" interchangeably, with violence generally referring to an institutional or group context and aggression referring to an individual context. According to Professor V.K. Kool (2008), there are two types of aggression: instrumental and emotional. Instrumental aggression is premeditated, cognitively controlled, and is associated with an ultimate goal. The aggressor displays aggression towards the victim in order to achieve the goal. If the goal can be reached without harming the victim, then the aggressor will not harm the victim. Emotional aggression, on the other hand, is spontaneous and is driven by negative arousal, hostility, or anger. The aggressor is not attempting to achieve a goal; rather, he seeks only to harm (Kool, 2008).

Theories of Nonviolence

The word "nonviolence" is an umbrella term describing various theories and methods of conflict resolution which share the common principle that individuals need not use physical violence against others. Several definitions exist for this multidimensional concept. As described by the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), nonviolence is a philosophical awareness that each human being, including oneself, is significant, valuable and powerful. Subsequently, employing nonviolence can result in an increase in self-esteem, respect for others, and overall harmony between human beings. UNESCO also notes that

nonviolence can be described by its strategic, tactical, and political aspects; although it has many other dimensions as well (UNESCO, 2011).

Nonviolent Action

One such tactical aspect of nonviolence is nonviolent action. Rather than a passive attempt at avoiding conflict, nonviolent action is simply a method of wielding power effectively, without causing physical harm (Mayton II, 2009). Gene Sharp (1973), one of the world's leading experts in this field, developed a two-dimensional scale for distinguishing between types of nonviolent action. The first dimension (tactical-strategic) indicates the ultimate aim and operational timeframe being used. The second dimension (pragmatic-ideological) indicates the nature of the commitment to nonviolence and the approach to conflict being used, including attitude toward the opponent (Weber, 1991).

Sharp has distinguished nine types of nonviolent behavior that fall somewhere in the plane created by the two dimensions: non-resistance, active reconciliation, moral resistance, selective nonviolence, passive resistance, peaceful resistance, nonviolent direct action, Gandhian Nonviolence (Satyagraha), and nonviolent revolution (Weber, 1991).

The Nonviolent Personality

V.K Kool, a prominent scholar in the field of nonviolence, concludes that there are three components involved in the understanding of the psychology of nonviolence (Sen, 1993): aggression (intention to harm), moral concerns (justice and humanitarian concerns), and power (controlling and manipulating). Regarding aggression, a

nonviolent individual avoids the use of force. For moral concerns, a nonviolent individual tries to adhere to justice and humanitarian orientations.

Finally, with power, a nonviolent individual uses “integrative power that belongs to the people, and is shared with them, not just confined to the gratification of their own selves.” In contrast to these types, a violent individual would be highly aggressive, have low moral concern, and would be self-oriented in using power (Kool, 2008). Some empirical evidence suggests that nonviolence has a positive relationship with openness, conscientiousness and agreeableness, three of the five factors which constitute a personality. Kool and Sen declare that nonviolent individuals have open communication, work hard to avoid conflict, and tend to be forgiving (Sen, 1993).

Nonviolence in Correctional Facilities

There is some effort to make use of these principles within the correctional system. Some facilities operate on the belief that social integration within the establishment is the best way to reduce violent behaviors. By creating an environment which is more conducive to friendly interaction, researchers discovered a more balanced mental well-being among inmates (Lindquist, 2000). Part of an environment such as this requires prisoners to disclose previous personal problems, such as drug addiction, to their fellow inmates (Ford & Kerle, 1974). For facilities to properly treat the inmates, the prisoners must be honest and forthcoming about these past issues which may have caused their violent behavior. Improper treatment is a primary concern of prison staff; therefore, the process of correctly identifying a prisoner's 14

specific addiction tends to be drawn out with numerous personal interviews and tests. Through these instruments, the facility staff builds reasonable expectations for prisoner growth, while making sure appropriate comparisons are made with societal norms (McLellan & Alterman, 1996). Further review on the topic of specific educational theories can be found in a later section of this review.

What Are Attitudes and Beliefs?

As defined by Breckler and Wiggins (2006), attitudes are mental and neural representations which exert a directive or dynamic influence on behavior. In other words, an attitude is a particular way of thinking that influences the ways in which an individual acts. As an intangible concept, an attitude can only be inferred from a behavior or psychological response, the physical manifestation of one's attitudes. Behaviors are directly affected by attitudes; in order to change a behavior, an attitude must also be changed (Breckler et al., 2006). According to Kool (2008), when attitudes cluster, beliefs are formed. Consequently, beliefs encompass one's attitudes and serve as the foundation of behaviors. Since behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs are strongly related and positively correlated, previous knowledge concerning behaviors and attitudes can be generalized to beliefs as well. Rather than measuring behavior, as many studies have done in the past, this project measures beliefs, which precipitate behavior.

Factors Affecting Violence

Culture

Culture is an intangible entity that indirectly and indefinitely affects the thoughts, behaviors and life choices an individual makes. Factors such as family life, employment choices, language, history, and behavioral patterns are all linked to one's cultural background. Individuals are acculturated, which in turn causes differences in the ways in which individuals interact with others and their surroundings. While culture is extremely broad and difficult to quantify, one's culture undoubtedly influences one's attitudes and subsequent behavioral choices. Therefore, a wealth of literature exists on the influence of culture on violence. An individual's culture has a significant effect on his or her beliefs on violence. Whether a certain culture values nonviolence or advocates violent actions, it affects the manner in which an individual acts. One type of culture, street culture, 15 describes the morals and behaviors held in urban environments. Various researchers have studied street culture as a means of explaining the acceptance and advocacy of violent behaviors. A study by Stewart and Simons (2010) further investigates a 1999 study on neighborhood street culture and delinquency. Elijah Anderson's 1999 *Code of the Streets* and the studies by Stewart and Simons revealed that a "street code" emerges in impoverished African-American neighborhoods. This street code encourages violence in order to promote masculinity and toughness. Moreover, the street code was a greater predictor of individuals' violent beliefs and actions than his or her inner moral code (Stewart & Simons, 2010).

Studies on street culture reveal that the environment in which an individual is

raised plays a significant, sometimes detrimental, role in the determination of his or her violent beliefs and actions (Stewart & Simons, 2010). If a culture accepts the use of violence to promote an image of toughness and as a means of solving problems, individuals will adapt to this set of morals and internalize violent beliefs. Moreover, this internalized set of moral codes will become ingrained in an individual's disposition such that he or she will always act in the violent way endorsed by the culture. Understanding the role that street culture plays in an individual's beliefs and acceptance of violence is central to determining how to alter such beliefs.

African-Americans have their own set of basic, self-replicating cultural norms pertaining to violence. One study looked into the cyclical nature of black-on-black violence in terms of three basic approaches. The first approach dealt with the biological aspect of the self-replicating violent nature (Bell, 1987). From a biological perspective, African-Americans are predisposed to intermittent explosive disorder, a genetic condition passed down from generation to generation, which preserves these biologically violent tendencies. In addition to biological predispositions toward violence, psychological issues, such as stress from lower socioeconomic status and racist attitudes from the majority, contribute to continued violent tendencies in many African-American communities. The third approach points to situational sociological factors, such as prevalence of gangs and gang violence among youths, as a factor in the cyclical nature of violent tendencies in African-Americans. To halt this process within the African-American community, this study proposed the need for educating the black community and making them aware of this self-replicating violence and the value of placing support systems within the community to alleviate psychological

stress. Additionally, the study proposed the value of involving African-American youth in productive activities and vocational programs as primary intervention strategies in order to prevent youths from joining gangs. While breaking the cyclical nature of violence among African-Americans is a difficult task, educating the African-American community on these patterns can be a valuable agent for change. Another study focused its attention on the immigrant Latino population living in Southern California. This study discussed a new, innovative program called Families and Schools Together (FAST) that aims to reduce violent tendencies of Latino youth living in the United States (Guerra & Knox, 2008). FAST is catered toward the needs of Latino families and, as stated in the study, it is important for the program to be geared toward a specific culture in order to be effective. The benefit of implementing FAST in low-income, immigrant Latino populations stems from its ability to unite the community and to address the needs of the youths by providing them with a support system. Moreover, changes were seen when the program was implemented on a larger scale as a community-wide effort. With the community focusing on change together, it will be easier to maintain the progress made by FAST than if the focus is on an individual basis. FAST was found to be successful in addressing the needs of the immigrant Latino youth because the program directors lived in the same community and shared the same culture. The researchers expressed a desire to continue to implement FAST programs in other similar Latino communities throughout the country.

Culture can be broken down into various subcultures, which greatly affect the manner in which individuals perceive violent beliefs and behavior. Subcultures reflect

general beliefs and trends held by a specific part of a widespread culture. The southern region of the United States contains a subculture that holds widespread violent beliefs resulting from the importance placed on honor, tradition, homogeneity, and resistance to cultural change. “Regionally, the South—an area that includes Maryland, Florida, and Texas—had the highest violent crime rate, while the Northeast had the lowest” (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2009). One study of the region of the United States created the Southern Subculture Index, which was used to assess the influence of the violent southern subculture on violent acts in this region (D’Antonio-Del Rio et al., 2010). The study revealed that this subculture was an influential factor in violent beliefs and actions. Moreover, counties with a more concentrated evangelical Christian, Scot-Irish population demonstrated more violent beliefs and committed more violent acts.

The D’Antonio-Del Rio et al. (2010) study reveals that while an individual’s entire culture has an effect on his or her values and beliefs, a subculture can be a more telling influence on his or her beliefs about violence. Moreover, if an individual’s subculture advocates strong violent tendencies, such as the southern region of the United States, this may have a powerful effect on the violent tendencies of that individual. Therefore, while it is important to study the general tendencies of a culture, it is just as necessary to scrutinize the subcultures and their views of violence, especially when a specific subculture is known to hold distinct, formidable beliefs of violence.

However, when examining culture and subculture, it is crucial to limit which divisions are being made. Culture can be divided many times, into various sets of

subcultures, regions and neighborhoods, all of which affect the set of values and moral codes pertaining to violent beliefs and actions. Therefore, while it is important to assess culture from a multi-level approach, a fixed boundary must be kept in mind in order to divide cultural effects from individual characteristics.

Age

Outside of culture, age also has a profound effect on violence, especially among younger offenders. In 2000, a group of researchers examined the development of violent tendencies as children aged (Herrenkohl et al., 2000). In their discussion, the research team indicated the rates at which each age group, on average, would end up in jail or prison if they committed a violent crime before the age of 18. The study, which was conducted as part of the Seattle Social Development Project, showed the age of 14 to be the most influential in shaping a teenager's violent attitudes. At this age, up to 25 violent risk factors can affect a juvenile's future with regards to violence (Herrenkohl et al., 2000). Comparatively, 15 violent risk factors affect children at age 10 and 21 risk factors were significantly predictive of a teenager's violent future at age 16.

Education

It is widely accepted now that individuals with higher education levels have a lower tendency to commit violent crimes. Lance Lochner and Enrico Moretti greatly

supported this notion in 2001 by examining both US Census data which revealed schooling's effect on incarceration, and FBI data that distinguished types of crime. Estimates made by using a linear probability model suggest that an additional year of schooling reduces the probability of incarceration by 0.1 percentage points for whites and by 0.37 percentage points for blacks. A clear decline in incarceration rates is present with schooling beyond 8th grade, with the largest decline occurring at the high-school graduation stage. Interestingly, two out of the three crimes that were most negatively correlated with education level were violent crimes; completion of just one additional year of schooling reduces murder and assault by nearly 30 percent.

Lochner and Moretti made several hypotheses about why education may play a role in decreasing violent tendencies. Firstly, because a higher education level increases individual wage rates, it also increases the opportunity costs of crime in that there is less of reward compared to performing an hour or day of work. Next, punishment is more costly for the more educated; time in jail translates to time out of the labor market, which is more money lost for high earners (Lochner & Moretti, 2001). Furthermore, schooling may increase the risk aversion of an individual or the patience they exhibit (Becker and Mulligan, 1997). Studies also suggest that schooling can directly affect the psychological costs of crime, thereby deterring an individual from committing acts of violence, among other criminal offenses (Arrow, 1997). Additionally, it has been shown that a worse stigma regarding violence exists among white-collar workers than blue-collar workers. Finally, it is possible that the probability of committing a crime depends partially on whether the individual had participated in crime in the past. In this way schooling is beneficial because it keeps

youth off the streets and thus less likely to get involved in crime early (Lochner & Moretti, 2003). Short-term education within correctional facilities has also been quite effective in reducing both recidivism rates and acts of violence during incarceration. More about such programming will be discussed later.

Inmates, as a population, generally demonstrate a lower level of education than populations in free society. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics, 75% of America's state prison inmates are high school dropouts (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003). The 2003 Alliance for Excellent Education reported high school dropouts are 3.5 times more likely than high school graduates to be arrested in their lifetime (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2006). According to the National Assessment of Adult Literacy (2003), the average reading level of prison offenders is incredibly low. In two different studies, prison inmates performed below the 5th grade literacy level and the 8th grade literacy level. In addition, 67% of offenders cannot interpret a map, understand a bus schedule or compose a brief letter to explain a billing error (National Assessment of Adult Literacy, 2003). The U.S. Adult Literacy Programs: Making a Difference, ProLiteracy America further finds the impact of education in prisons. 20% of adult inmates who participated in correctional programs are re-incarcerated. However, 49% of adult inmates who did not partake in such programs are reincarcerated. The positive effect of such educational programs is manifest and further exemplifies the necessity of education in correctional rehabilitation (ProLiteracy Worldwide, 2003).

On a state level, it is still evident that a large number of inmates fail to pursue education even at the high school level. The majority of inmates in the District of

Columbia facility had less than 12th grade schooling. The Department of Corrections in the District of Columbia reports the following:

DOC Inmates by Education Level

The following chart and table show the inmate population by education level in all DOC facilities, including the Central Detention Facility, Correctional Treatment Facility, and halfway houses.

Inmates' Self Reported Formal Schooling

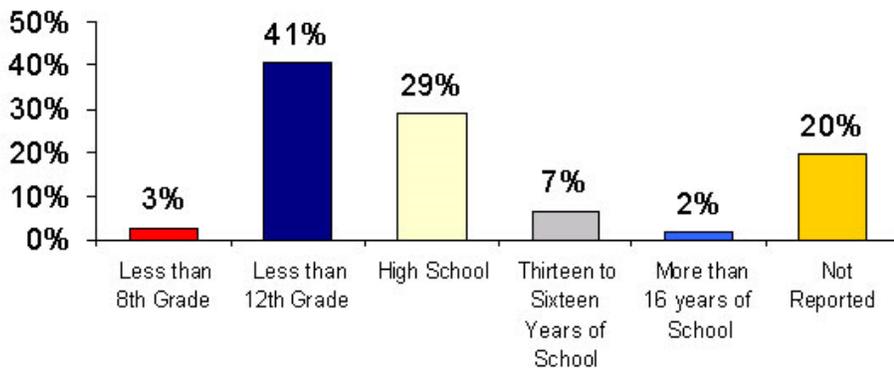


Figure 1. Breakdown of Inmates by Education Level

(District of Columbia Department of Corrections, 2011)

Religion

Research has found religion and religious participation to have a significant influence in promoting positive behavior among individuals. Religiosity is linked to diminution of the probability of criminal activity and drug use (Baier & Wright, 2001; Johnson et al., 2001). There has also been a connection made between religion and one's friendliness (Brennan & London, 2001; Ellison, 1992; Morgan, 1983). It is believed that religious participation is embedded in a strong social network which includes a positive environment. The emotional support within the network constrains negative and criminal behavior (Johnson et al. 2000, 2001). Religious institutions act

as a force in deterring delinquency. Since religions have rules as well as sanctions for the breaching of rules, individuals with higher levels of religiosity are more prone to follow faith-based behavior. The similar concepts within most major religions emphasize the importance of positive character. John Bartkowski and Helen Regis argue that religion reinforces “networks, norms, and trust.” For example, norms of civility are stressed in nearly all religions and followers are taught compassion and to “engage in rightly-guided action” (Bartkowski & Regis, 2003).

A relevant study was done on the inmates at the Mississippi State Penitentiary in Parchman, Mississippi. 875 inmates of the 4,313 inmate sample were randomly selected to receive a survey questionnaire. The questionnaires were delivered to the randomly selected inmates on the same date in June 2002. 386 questionnaires were validated to be used in the study. The questionnaire included questions concerning the inmates’ families and religious backgrounds, criminal histories, perceptions of morality, levels of self-esteem, experiences with negative emotions, use of coping mechanisms, religiosity, involvement in faith-based prison ministry programs, and incidence of fighting and arguing with other inmates. In order to measure negative prison behaviors, the researchers examined the inmates’ response to “arguing with other inmates” and “fighting with other inmates” (Kerley, Matthews, & Blanchard, 2005). The independent variables included religiosity, criminal history and demographics. Results indicate that individuals who believe in a higher power engage in fewer arguments. 73.9% of those who did not believe in a high power were involved in arguments once or more times per month (Kerley, Matthews, & Blanchard, 2005). It was also found that inmates who agreed with the notion that

“right and wrong should be based on God’s laws” are 47.3% less likely to become involved in an argument once or more per month (Kerley, Matthews, & Blanchard, 2005).

Methods to Measure Violent and Nonviolent Attitudes and Beliefs

Measuring violent attitudes cannot begin without first defining the term. Many different definitions of violent attitudes have been used across a range of studies, which has resulted in a multitude of scales measuring related and yet distinct variables (Polaschek et al., 2004). In fact, few studies have analyzed adult attitudes toward violence at all, and even fewer have linked those attitudes to actual violent acts in the sample population. For example, the Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles measures violent attitudes in terms of distortions in an individual’s thinking process, including sentiments of entitlement and rationalization. Commonly developed and employed measures of aggressive behavior include the Aggression Questionnaire (AQ), the Novaco Anger Scale for angry effects, and the hostility subscale of the Aggression Questionnaire for hostile attitudes. Other scales have been developed for non-offending adolescents—including the Attitudes to Guns and Violence Questionnaire and the Attitudes Toward Violence Scale. However, despite the prevalence of scales, very few (and none of the ones previously mentioned) measure criminal attitudes toward violence directly. One scale that attempts to measure the broad aggressive attitudes in adults is the EXPAGG-M. The EXPAGGM is an augmented 40-item version of the EXPAGG scale with an instrumental and an expressive subscale. In testing within the prison environment, the scale’s creators

Archer and Haigh found that instrumental but not expressive subscores were correlated with total Aggression Questionnaire scores. These findings of a positive correlation between instrumental subscale scores, the AQ, and self-reported violence bestow credibility upon the EXPAGG-M as a measure of violent beliefs, though the scale has yet to distinguish between violent and nonviolent offenders in testing (Polaschek et al., 2004).

Two recent studies suggest different ways of studying violent attitudes in prisoners. The first study, referred to as CAVS or Criminal Attitudes to Violence Scale, used a mixed sample of male prisoners (Polaschek et al., 2004). The CAVS scale involved a single-factor structure, demonstrating high internal reliability and a strong relationship to a self-report measure of physical aggression. The CAVS program found differing scores among the inmates with most varying scores depending on the violent nature of their conviction. The second study used the EXPAGG Instrumental subscale to measure levels of aggression, but results were not as consistent as the CAVS scale (Polaschek et al., 2004). The CAVS program also proved to be a better predictor at estimating the risk of recidivism. The results of the study showed the CAVS scale was better at measuring the construct of attitudes to criminal violence as well as attitudes to aggression and attitudes to crime (Polaschek et al., 2004). Nevertheless, the results should be cautiously viewed due to the small sample population.

Multiple scales exist to test factors related to violent beliefs, though it is difficult to claim that any one test measures violent attitudes directly. This is due to the difficulty of determining a consensus definition of “violent attitudes,” the

intangible nature of attitudes and the lack of an established direct link between attitudes and actions in the research to date.

The Jail Environment vs. the Prison Environment

Although the research team name is “Peace in Prisons,” all physical research and data collection was performed at the Montgomery County Correctional Facility, which is a jail. It should be noted that because prisons and jails differ in fundamental ways, prison literature findings cannot always be generalized to jails (Center for Therapeutic Justice, 2000). Jails are short-term holding facilities that primarily hold offenders of minor crimes for a maximum of twelve to eighteen months. While about 80 percent of jail inmates are released within a month of incarceration, prison inmates have an average length of stay of 2.5 years (West et al., 2010). Moreover, jail inmates are incarcerated for a variety of reasons. In fact, 62 percent of jail inmates have yet to be convicted or are pre-trial (not serving a sentence), including: juveniles who are pending transfer to a juvenile detention center, mentally ill individuals pending movement to appropriate health facilities, individuals being held for the military, and court witnesses (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2011). Although jail inmates have a limited amount of time in a controlled, captive environment, they often have a greater variety of programs to choose from, due to their physical proximity to towns and schools. Prisons, which are often in more remote locations, do not have this advantage. However, it should not be overlooked that inmates in jails are not only charged with minor, or misdemeanor, crimes. Jails hold mixed populations and acts

as a holding facility for offenders charged with more serious crimes, such as murder and rape.

The Importance of Reducing Violence in Correctional Facilities

The Economic and Social Research Council conducted an assessment of the causes of prison violence. The assessment employed a “conflict-centered” method. A “conflict-centered” method, which identifies the root cause and history of the problem and focuses on the cause of the problem, was utilized in order to determine the causes of prison violence in four different prisons by examining 141 incidents and conducting in-depth interviews with more than 200 participants. The council found that much prison violence is not situational and therefore violence may be inevitable, stemming from a variety of factors such as racial tensions and pre-existing conflicts between inmates. A significant amount of prison violence arises from contests of power and other non-material grievances rather than stereotypical quarrels over material goods. Often, violent incidents occur due to unwillingness to compromise on the part of an individual because compromising is viewed as a sign of weakness among prisoners. This recalcitrance results in numerous violent incidents in the name of honor and reputation (Edgar et al., 2003).

Previous studies have shown the benefits of reducing violence within prisons (French & Gendreau, 2006). These advantages include safer prison conditions and reduced costs required to run them (Gendreau & Keyes, 2001; Lovell & Jemelka, 1996). Educational programs within prisons also reduce recidivism rates (Gaes,

2008). By participating in rehabilitation and educational programs, prisoners develop different beliefs toward violence and can have greater opportunities once they are reintroduced into free society (Lahm, 2009). Nonviolent beliefs and expanded career or educational opportunities provide newly-released prisoners with alternatives to violent lifestyles. Furthermore, reducing recidivism will lessen the economic burden of taxpayers resulting from a decreased need for prison accommodations. Vocational training programs have decreased taxpayer costs by \$6,806 and general education programs lowered taxpayer costs by \$5,306 (Gaes, 2008). An improvement to the system would benefit not only the prisoners, but also economically benefit society as a whole. Similar problems exist within jails.

According to the Census of Jails taken in 1999, about a third of jail jurisdictions had reported inmate-on-staff violence. Between July 1, 1998, and June 30, 1999, there were 9,276 instances of physical or sexual assaults on jail employees by inmates in 848 jail jurisdictions. This translates to 17.8 assaults daily per 1,000 inmates (Stephan & Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2009).

Theories of Education

Educational programs within prisons also reduce recidivism rates, particularly because these programs aim to impact the way an individual thinks. Various theories of learning and teaching exist and propose differing views on how to educate students. Although students have individual differences in the way they process information and learn, basic theories explain ways in which student learning can be maximized.

One example, the cognitive load theory, is a learning theory that focuses on transforming knowledge from short-term memory to long-term memory (Artino, 2008). Due to the fact that the human brain has a limited amount of short-term memory compared to long-term memory, students will be able to maximize the amount of relevant information they can process by reducing the amount of unimportant data presented to them. Cognitive load theory maintains that by combining different sources of information into a single, cohesive unit, the student can easily comprehend the information presented (Artino, 2008). By eliminating self-explanatory information, the student can cognitively assess the important information. Thus, the cognitive load will be reduced and the effectiveness of the teaching process will be maximized.

A second, yet vastly different, teaching theory is the cognitive constructivism theory. This theory emphasizes the collaborative process of learning. The constructivism theory views the learner as an active member of the learning process and forces him or her to build on pre-existing knowledge to obtain new information (Loyens & Gijbels, 2008). In this manner, the learner is aiding him or herself in acquiring the information instead of simply memorizing the facts presented. Cognitive constructivism also places importance on the student's motivation to continue learning by encouraging him or her to become an integral part of his or her own learning experience (Loyens & Gijbels, 2008).

Another theory posits that nonviolence can be taught through a process known as priming. This is a process by which certain situations can be taught to trigger specific reactions due to a learned association. Both violent and nonviolent behaviors

are influenced by priming. Josephson (1987) conducted a study with second and third grade boys in which the children watched a movie in featuring a walkie-talkie prop in the majority of the violent scenes. Afterwards, the participants played a game of hockey, and one team was given a walkie-talkie. This team acted more violently than the team without the device; the study concluded that the walkie-talkie reminded the boys of the violence from the movie they saw (Kirsh, 2006). This is an example of priming aggressive behavior. It is also possible to prime nonviolent behavior. Certain societies, such as the Amish and the Balinese, are characteristically nonviolent (Montagu, 1976). These societies foster nonviolence through emphasis on cooperation, group activity, and inhibiting competition in games or school. These cultures support the view that violence is not innate but rather something that is learned. Likewise, nonviolence is something that must be learned.

History of Correctional Education

The correctional education movement began in 1789 when William Rogers, a clergyman in Philadelphia, volunteered to teach inmates at the Walnut Street Jail. Despite the inmates being supervised by armed guards, the early sessions Rogers had with them were successful, and the Sabbath school period (1789-1875) of correctional education was born. During this time, almost all of the instructors were religiously affiliated, and the Bible was the only text used. Correctional education had begun with the sole intention of helping inmates gain sufficient literacy to read the Bible (DiMambro, 2007).

Federal encouragement of correctional education in prisons increased in the mid-1800s. In 1847, New York state legislation passed a law requiring school teachers to be hired for each of the state's prisons. This led to the creation of a special class of employees placed in prisons with the intent of educating the inmates.

Moreover, prisons benefited from the cultural phenomenon of the muckrakers in the late 1800's and early 1900's. One of the many areas of social reform addressed the deplorable conditions of prisons as well as the nature of correctional education. The period's most notable event was the formation of the Elmira Reformatory in New York State in 1876. The facility offered an innovative educational program that combined academic, social, and vocational aspects with other non-educational factors, such as instituting a healthy diet and exercising. Reformers praised the individuality behind Elmira's program for its assistance in prisoner classification, assignment of inmates to relevant treatment programs, and its overall effect in rehabilitation. At roughly the same time, the growth of prison education was enhanced by the rise in the labor movement. With the expansion of prison industries halted, wardens turned to education as a means of occupying those incarcerated (DiMambro, 2007). It is believed literacy programs provide inmates with a positive way to use their time and improve a prison's internal environment along with the quality of its workforce (McCollum & Russo, 1992).

By 1965, however, only 12 post-secondary educational programs existed within correctional facilities in the entire nation due to the lack of funding. Relief came in the form of the 1965 Title IV of the Higher Education Act, providing funding for inmates who enrolled in post-secondary correctional educational programs. As a

result, prison education programs expanded rapidly; 182 programs existed nationwide eight years later and 90 percent of states accounted for 350 programs by 1982. That year, the Federal Bureau of Prisons established its first mandatory literacy program. At that time, the standard required inmates display at least a sixth grade reading level, but since 1991 a high school equivalent reading level has been required (McCollum & Russo, 1992).

Despite these strides, correctional education programs have encountered more resistance since their proliferation. An article written by Robert Martinson in 1974 suggested that several current correctional education programs failed to work effectively. Martinson's article was widely interpreted to suggest that no type of reform or education could be expected to work within correctional facilities. Though Martinson attempted to reconcile public opinion to his actual thesis, which did embrace the benefits of some correctional education programs, the majority opinion had already been swayed and a movement toward less funding of correctional education programs ensued. From 1982 to 1994, conservative lawmakers passed bills reducing the number of Pell Grants (Title IV of the Higher Education Act) as lawmakers argued that awarding the grants to incarcerated individuals deprived lawabiding citizens of the same privileges. Along with the reduction of Pell Grants, many states discontinued inmates' right to receive financial aid. Today, only a handful of states continue to offer post-secondary correctional education, and most of the remaining programs rely heavily on private funding (Martinson, 1974).

Benefits of Correctional Education

Educational programs in correctional facilities are generally quick to lose funding. These programs have been eliminated even where they have proven effective (Hrabowski, 2002). Most taxpayers fail to see the long-term benefits of such programs and protest having their tax dollars spent on them. However, correctional education can actually both save taxpayers money and reduce crime. RAND Corporation performed a study that showed that crime prevention is more cost effective than building prisons. Furthermore, of all crime prevention methods, education is the most cost-effective (Hrabowski, 2002).

According to a study conducted by Ray Hughey and Lloyd Klemke, the involvement of inmates in short-term jail programs is effective in reducing the rates of recidivism (Hughey & Klemke, 1996). In jails that were able to keep program costs minimal, inmate graduation rates increased each year. With inmates participating in programs and therefore becoming less likely to return to jail than the control group, the study proved that it is possible to implement and operate jail programs within budget constraints. The study also discovered that inmates treated in early stages of violent behavior were less costly participants, as they graduated from the program at a faster rate. Therefore, educational programs in correctional facilities may be an effective in lowering prison costs. Programs save money by keeping inmates busy and reducing the number of officers needed to supervise the incredibly large and sometimes overcrowded population of a facility. Educating inmates more effectively can also help them become productive members of society upon release and may lower crime rates. The programs help inmates develop the necessary social skills to

avoid crime and addiction once they return to society (Hughey & Klemke, 1996). There is an established link between lack of education and employment and increased crime (Freeman, 1992). A 1992 study revealed that 60 percent of male offenders aged 25-34 had completed less than 12 years of formal education (Freeman, 1992). A 1995 study compared a group of 120 Maryland parolees who had completed a correctional educational program against a group of inmates that did not complete a program (Hrabowski, 2002). Recidivism rates were four times lower in degree holders than non-programming offenders. Less educated parolees are at a greater disadvantage when they apply for jobs. Since they are less likely to be employed, released prisoners have a higher likelihood of returning to the streets and crime, which leads to re-incarceration. Studies have shown that up to 84 percent of inmates are unemployed at the time of their offense. Correctional institutions have attempted to decrease the prevalence of these risk factors in order to reduce recidivism among participating individuals.

Separate studies by Blackburn, Schumacker, et al., and Linden and Perry show that involvement in correctional programs reduces recidivism rates. The researchers followed over 700 released prisoners for 12 months to see if the way they spent their time in prison factored into their parole success (1999). Parolees who had been involved in either vocational or academic programs were less likely to commit parole violations (MacKenzie, 2005). Unfortunately, there are few studies that show a correlation between recidivism rates and education in jails specifically.

A 2008 study found that with increased attachment and involvement in academics, adolescents exhibit a decrease in both instances of delinquent acts and

violent beliefs (Frey et al., 2008). The survey tested the effect of education on the adolescents' violent beliefs and behaviors by assessing their perceived school attachment, teacher support, parental control and exposure to community violence. Correctional programs within jails may produce a similar sense of attachment in order to reduce violence.

There are several advantages to be gained from the participation in education programs. Whether it is the common standard, such as the ability to understand and perform written directions, or skill specific, such as "earning welding or computer skills," there is something for almost everyone with which to improve themselves. Also known as human capital gains, these benefits help counter the detrimental effects of incarceration. For example, participation in these programs allows inmates the opportunity to later earn some form of certification, such as a GED, indicating to potential employers that the inmate has received higher level education and is capable of completing work. In addition, educational programs signal the inmate's commitment to improving his or her behavior. It is widely acknowledged that offenders have had limited or no education. According to the National Adult Literacy Survey and the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2003), inmates are an undereducated class, encumbered by their low literacy skills (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003). Correctional education, especially GED certification and post-secondary education are supplemental to promoting civic identity and helping offenders detach themselves from their prison identity. Other theorists argue that education programs create normalization, which is the fostering of social attitudes and instilling of temperaments that contradict the anti-social norms of prison life (Harer, 2001). Educators, such as

John Dewey (1961), are firm in their beliefs that certain levels of education are needed in order to be capable of moral thinking. Education programs are assumed to be critical and influential in the sense that it provides the inmate with a sense of civic identity and attachment to the community.

There have been several studies demonstrating the positive effect education has on post-release outcomes. Dr. Harer concluded from a sample of 1987 inmates released from the Federal Bureau of Prisons that participation in more than 0.5 education programs for every six months served diminished “the hazard of re-arrest” by 39% (Gaes 2008). In another study conducted by Lattimore, Witte, and Baker (1990), the impact of education on recidivism proved to be encouraging, although a little bit more ambiguous. Focused on the Vocational Delivery Services (VDS), an integration of a set of services such as vocational training, case management assessment, re-entry training and post-release employment services, the experiment was restricted to 20 year old juveniles. The sample population had a minimum IQ of 70, was healthy, and was presumed to be released soon. Within the follow-up period, 36% of the treatment group and 46% of the control group were arrested. Preceding the first 100 days after release, the “hazard of arrest” was about the same for the two groups and increased for the control group over time. However, after 20 months, there were minimal arrests for either group, questioning the actual efficacy of education on inmate behavior (Lattimore et al., 1990).

Since inmates are normally characterized as lacking education, it is important for inmates to acquire the opportunity to be educated in correctional facilities. Education is likely to increase re-entry success as inmates may be given the ability to

address their drug dependence or lack of work skills. In addition, education may be important in the correctional goals of the facility. Becoming more literate may ultimately help an offender to comprehend and better benefit from other forms of correctional programs available.

What Types of Programs are Available?

Many correctional facilities recognize the need for effective and pertinent programs. There is a great desire to educate, rehabilitate and prepare inmates in jail for their return to the free world because they do not spend a significant amount of time incarcerated. The programs offered in jails vary between facilities; however, most provide a range of educational and vocational programs in which their inmates can enroll (Stephan, 2008).

One such facility, the Onondaga County Justice Center, located in Syracuse, New York, prides itself on its range of available programs. The facility works collaboratively with the New York State Education Department and the New York State Department of Labor in order to create programs that will best prepare inmates for life after jail. Onondaga offers a variety of programs, including Basic Office Skills class, Job Readiness Training, English as a Second Language (ESL), GED classes and Men's Issues Classes. In addition to educational and vocational programs offered at the facility, the Onondaga County Justice Center recognizes the need for both cognitive and behavioral changes prior to inmate release. Therefore, the facility offers a variety of therapeutic and behaviorally focused programs, such as Anger

Management class (Nelson & Olcott, 2006). Offering a variety of programs, including vocational, educational, and rehabilitative, serves to increase inmate potential for success.

Educational programs have proven their worth in prisons throughout the years. In 2004, a study showed the effects of education-based programming for inmates (Messemer & Valentine, 2004). Jonathan Messemer and Thomas Valentine set out to detail the effects of learning while in prison. Their research displayed a statistically significant increase in test scores on reading, math and language skills tests taken by inmates involved in education programs. Messemer and Valentine's results also indicated specific time frames that saw a statistically significant increase in inmate test scores. After 36, 54, and 118 hours spent in the classroom, the grades went up by 1.0 on a normal 4.0 grade scale (Messemer & Valentine, 2004). However, the research showed no statistically significant relationship between inmate learning gains and time of participation or between inmate learning gains and inmate personality characteristics (age, previous education, time until parole).

Shimon Soferr's Freedom from Violence Program (FFV), a long-standing program at a Boston correctional facility, has proven successful in mitigating prisoners' violent tendencies (Soferr, 2006). According to Soferr, FFV emphasizes the principle that prison education should focus on an individual's effort to learn a new, nonviolent lifestyle, in addition to receiving certificates and diplomas. Research has proven cognitive restructuring programs to be promising in reducing recidivism, although the actual effects of such programs on inmate institutional behavior remain

widely unknown. Dating back to the early 1980s, recidivism has been at the center of research on cognitive restructuring programs (Ross, Fabiano, & Ross, 1986).

Additionally, there is a negative correlation between cognitive intervention programs and recidivism rates, i.e. the more programs that exist, the lower the recidivism rates seem to be (Ross et al., 1988; Johnson & Hunter, 1992; Little et al., 1993). There are two types of cognitive intervention programs: one is cognitive development, which focuses on problem solving, moral reasoning and social skills, while the other is cognitive restructuring (National Institute of Corrections, 1997). Cognitive restructuring has been used previously in a prison setting when Donna R. Main implemented the “Thinking for a Change Program” in medium security state correctional institutions. Main described her plan to alter the cognition of the younger inmates within the prisons (2002). Using the rationale that younger inmates are more impressionable than their older counterparts, Main hoped to change the attitudes of the targeted demographic to prevent the violent effects of peer pressure on their decisions. Though the end results were inconclusive, the prison staff commended the program's work to generate positive change in the attitudes of the participating inmates (National Institute of Corrections, 1997).

Offenders are often characterized by having distorted cognition, which includes “self-justificatory thinking, misinterpretation of social cues, deficient moral reasoning, schema of dominance and entitlement, and the like” (Lipsey et al., 2001). As a result, cognitive behavioral programs have been created and implemented in order to correct such dysfunctional and criminal thinking patterns. These programs aim to restructure their cognitive thinking and to help create positive cognitive

thinking. Cognitive-behavioral programs vary in their assessments. Some programs may train inmates to “monitor their patterns of automatic thoughts to situations in which they tend to react with violence,” while other programs focus on anger management, the inmate’s ability to assume responsibility for his or her actions or the ability to realize the impact of his or her actions on the victim. There have been several successful cognitive behavioral treatments conducted in the past. The prototypical examples include the Reasoning and Rehabilitation program (Ross & Fabiano, 1985), Moral Reconciliation Therapy (Little & Robinson, 1986), and Aggression Replacement Training (Goldstein & Glick, 1987).

The effectiveness of cognitive behavioral programs has been relatively unexplored. However, the conclusions of the limited research and studies available have shown promising results. Cognitive behavioral programs have been found to be effective in changing an inmate’s criminal behavior in structured, skill-oriented programs as opposed to less structured programs. A meta-analysis of 20 different cognitive behavioral programs “of varying levels of methodological quality” was conducted to prove the program’s effectiveness (Lipsey et al., 2001). Although all of the studies’ effects may not have been statistically considerable, all 20 studies showed positive effects. In addition, representative cognitive behavioral programs were found to “reduce recidivism by 20 percent to 30 percent compared to untreated control groups.” Pearson and his colleagues’ meta-analysis of 69 studies also showed the promising results of such treatment programs. However, Pearson’s study included behavioral and contingency contracting programs in addition to cognitive-behavioral

programs. Ross and Fabiano, pioneers of cognitive thinking skills, have found the following:

- A. Impulsiveness can be reduced by teaching consequential thinking.
- B. Fatalistic thinking can be reduced by teaching offenders meta-cognitive skills that enables them to see how their thoughts influence their actions.
- C. Ego-centrism can be reduced by teaching social perspective taking and enhancing values.
- D. Teaching offenders creative thinking skills so they think of pro-social alternatives to problems.
- E. Illogical thinking can be modified with critical reasoning skills.

The results of the study concluded that cognitive-behavioral programs were significantly more effective in reducing recidivism compared to behavioral programs.

Among the variety of adult correctional treatment available, it has been concluded that treatment programs overall are an effective method of reducing criminal recidivism. However, among the different kinds of programs available, it has been found that certain programs prove to be more effective in affecting an offender's behavior than others (Gaes, 2008). For example, behavioral or cognitive treatment programs produced the largest effects compared with other programs.

Cognitive skills training proved to be effective with adult probationers and particular kinds of offenders. On the other hand, education, vocational training, and prison labor programs have moderate effects in reducing recidivism and increasing positive prison behavior. Intensive in-prison drug treatment is also effective, but significantly more effective when coupled with community after-care. Studies have

also shown that the efficacy of a program depends on the identity of the offender. Correctional interventions administered to juveniles are more effective than those targeting adult offenders (Gaes, 2008).

Programs Aimed at Rehabilitation

Because of the sheer volume of people who move through the correctional system, along with the high illiteracy rate of this population, a jail is a seemingly ideal place for implementing educational programming. Unfortunately, because jails are comprised of short-term populations as compared to prisons, they tend to lack the available space and incentives, such as sentence reduction, which can often encourage participation in programs.

A study by professors (Bouffard et al., 2000) from the University of Maryland examined several programs in three different areas. The first included vocational programs designed to increase inmates' employment after their release by providing basic computational and trade skills. The second division included correctional industry programs that produce various products—furniture, flags, food products, etc. These programs often teach simple principles like time management and work ethic, but fail to provide the inmates with particular skills for employment after their release. The third type of correctional program was community employment. After its inception as an answer to prison overcrowding, this style of program allowed incarcerated individuals to either leave the jail facility to seek employment towards the end of their sentence or to utilize facilities such as a halfway house to streamline re-entry to society after release (Bouffard et al., 2000).

However, despite the numerous benefits of such programs, many states have not implemented them on a wide scale. The researchers employed their own Maryland Scale of Scientific Rigor (“The Maryland Scale”) that ranked the various programs with regard to the degree the program’s components could be linked to measurements of recidivism after an individual had completed the program and been released from incarceration on a scale from 1 to 5 (“5” serves as the highest standard for scientific rigor). In their conclusions, the researchers affirmed that all three types of programs are effective, but they also acknowledged the studies they examined possessed low scientific merit and prevented them from drawing more specific conclusions by offender type and age. Moreover, the results were not specific enough to allow the researchers to recommend the implementation of one type of program over another. (Bouffard et al., 2000).

Another attempt at reducing in-house violence was made by the San Francisco County Sheriff’s department in late 1997. The department established a program called Resolve to Stop the Violence Project (RSVP), an education program aimed at reducing the violent culture of jails, and was specifically targeted at men who had a history of committing serious and often multiple violent crimes. The goal of RSVP was to address areas where ordinary corrections had failed (Lee & Gilligan, 2005). RSVP used the jail to create an alternative environment that curbs rather than engenders violence. The program also helped prepare offenders for shaping productive lives in their communities while refraining from violence and provided avenues for offenders to heal the harm they have caused while providing necessary emotional and practical support to their victims and to the general community (Lee &

Gilligan, 2005). By analyzing incident reports, Lee and Gilligan found the program dorm had a single violent incident in the 12-month period RSVP was in effect, while the control dorm had 28 violent incidents. These results suggest correctional efforts could be improved by forming the types of therapeutic communities created through RSVP. These in-house communities facilitate the use of social skills over the attitudes that engender violence. (Lee & Gilligan, 2005).

Various studies have examined the effects of particular programs aimed at teaching and promoting nonviolent behavior. A careful inspection of the methods used outside the prison environment is a logical approach, given that the prison environment is a microcosm of free society. In addition, it is commonly accepted that adult criminal behavior may have developed from roots in adolescent delinquency and early childhood experiences (Glueck & Glueck, 1950). Thus, it is acceptable to examine studies concerning violent beliefs and behaviors among adolescent students and develop associations between such studies and a prison environment when searching for general methods for reducing violence.

The most commonly advocated approach for maintaining good order and diminishing incidences of antisocial behavior in prisons is the use of behavioral treatment programs (Gendreau & Keyes, 2001). French and Gendreau (2006) advise that future research should consist of thorough studies that carefully define the prison context (e.g. crowding, institutional climate) and criteria used (e.g. type of misconduct, recidivism). They conjecture that these studies will demonstrate how behavioral treatment programs are capable of successfully reducing inmate antisocial behavior (French & Gendreau, 2006). In a meta-analysis designed to identify the

results of prison misconduct studies and whether they have viable long-term consequences, including eventual recidivism, results were consistent with previous meta-analyses (French & Gendreau, 2006). These findings showed that the behavioral treatment programs that reduced misconducts best also decreased recidivism rates within the community (French & Gendreau, 2006).

The San Francisco Sheriff's Department's (SFSD) Life Skills for Prisoners Program is an example of one such behavioral treatment program. SFSD focused on repressing violence and accentuating one's consciousness by taking responsibility for the consequences of one's actions (Schwartz, 2005). The program is comprised of many elements including academics, acupuncture, theater, art, survivor impact presentations, creative writing classes, employment services and mentoring. The frequency of violent acts within the cell, housing 62 convicts, was recorded as a means of an evaluation of the program. Researchers discovered that the recidivism rates were 46.3 percent lower for those who participated in the study for eight weeks than those in the control group, who had not participated. For those participating in the program for sixteen weeks, the recidivism rate was 53.1 percent lower (Schwartz, 2005). The violence within the cell was also drastically reduced from twenty-four violent incidents before the program to one incident after one month of the program. A comparable cell without the program experienced 28 violent incidents (Schwartz, 2005). As demonstrated in these results, it is evident that the Life Skills for Prisoners Program was very effective in lowering the rate of violent behavior within a prison.

As seen by the results of these studies, in-prison treatment programs dramatically lower violent behavior and recidivism. In order to achieve optimal

success, these programs should target the improvement of social, artistic, critical thinking, and problem solving skills and should teach morals and strategies for dealing with emotions (Vacca, 2004). In addition, the Economic and Social Research Council recommended that prisoners be given programs to teach awareness of the long-term consequences of their confrontational attitudes as a measure of preventing violent outbursts in prisons (Edgar & Martin, 2003).

Vocational programs in prisons are successful due to the fact that they provide a change from conventional prison routines. They also provide services for inmates after they are released and provide clear opportunities for success in life after release. These opportunities for advancement are a significant incentive for inmate participation in vocational programs. Prison literacy programs should address different learning styles, literacy levels, and cultures. They should be centered on the student and adapted to be applicable to prison culture. In addition, participation and engaging topics are important. To keep inmates engaged and to enable them to see themselves in a life outside prison, it is recommended that the classes utilize literature written by prisoners. Most important to the success of in-prison treatment programs are the attitudes of the prison's governing officials (Vacca, 2004). These attitudes determine whether the prisoners view prison as a place of punishment or of rehabilitation. Their perspective on prison would influence the likelihood of their succeeding in the programs and avoiding post-release incarceration (Vacca, 2004). Furthermore, in a study performed at Florida State University with the intention of quantifying the benefits of art therapy with prison inmates, results indicated a marked improvement in mood, behavior, and problem-solving. In addition, the study further

encouraged future inquiry to determine whether or not art therapy can prove effective in reducing depression and increasing locus of control (Gussak, 2009). Clearly, there are various approaches for treatment programs to reduce violent behaviors, and these programs work best by enacting different modes of education.

How are Programs Evaluated?

Having built an understanding of education and its history within the correctional system, the next part of the process is to examine the efficacy of the programs. Blount proposed one comprehensive method of evaluating the efficiency of jail programs in 2004. He stated the most important aspect of evaluating an established program in a jail setting is to clearly determine the goals of the program, what should be occurring in the program, by whom, and in what amount of time (Blount, 2004). This first step in process evaluation is essential in order for the jail program to be effectively evaluated.

The next step in process evaluation is data collection. In data collection, researchers must be attuned to the amount of time they spend collecting the data, for one of the biggest sources of error in process evaluation is not collecting data for long enough periods of time. Blount maintained the necessity of researchers to evaluate programs for the long-term instead of conducting short-term process evaluations. The final piece in evaluating the efficacy of jail programs is to assess the outcome of the program. This outcome evaluation is necessary in order to truly analyze the efficiency of the program as a whole because, while a program may run the way it is designed and the inmates' progress during the program, the long-term effects of the program

may fade. Blount offered several ways to perform accurate outcome evaluations, such as conducting surveys with inmates, looking into recidivism rates and utilizing other statistical tests (Blount, 2004). Unfortunately, inmates in the jail environment have brief exposure to programs, limiting the possibility of a meaningful evaluation of those programs.

The outcome-based nature of most studies -- i.e. whether or not recidivism rates are reduced -- fails to identify the mechanisms influencing why these trends occur. A 2007 study found that academic success in prison education programs is a better predictor of recidivism than participation (DiMambro, 2007). This study tested the Modified Model of Academic Success on a sample of 495 inmates in New York state prisons. DiMambro concluded that academic success reduced recidivism rates among inmates, with only about 14 percent of degree-earning inmates returning to prison compared to 33 percent of program participants overall. The study also noted that higher levels of education prior to participation in prison programs created a better foundation for inmates to succeed, and may have increased the effectiveness of program participation in relation to less-educated inmates. Therefore, it is well-acknowledged that participation in correctional programs reduces recidivism, but it is largely unknown which aspects of these programs are responsible for the correlation.

According to a study conducted by Ray Hughey and Lloyd Klemke, the involvement of inmates in short-term jail programs is also effective in reducing the rates of recidivism (1996). Hughey and Klemke's study focused on the Inmate Recovery Program (IRP). In jails that were able to keep program costs at a minimum, inmate graduation rates increased from year to year. With inmates participating in

programs and thus, becoming less likely to return to jail than the control group, the study proved that it is possible to implement and operate jail programs within budget constraints. The programs help inmates develop the necessary social skills to avoid crime and addiction once they return to society (Hughey & Klemke, 1996). The researchers also discovered that inmates treated in early stages of violent behavior were less costly participants, as they graduated from the program at a faster rate.

Contributing Factors to Why Correctional Education is Not Progressing

Correctional education programs are often poorly planned with limited resources and are rarely systematically evaluated for improvement (Gehring, 2002). Not only is there a shortage of qualified educators, but there is also a lack of adequate funding. Correctional facilities are discouraged from applying for additional funds because under the heading of local institutions, correctional facilities cannot compete for funds due to lack of support compared to institutions such as public schools (Gehring, 2002).

Another factor contributing to the failure of correctional education programs is educator burnout. Professionals in education are known to earn low salaries and face difficult challenges with students. Correctional educators are especially known to have lower salaries in comparison to other types of teachers and educators (Gehring, 2002). Although passion drives most educators into the industry, salaries are not sufficiently competitive to retain qualified correctional educators. Most correctional educators receive training from other backgrounds not specific to

correctional education. Additionally, the student population of correctional education is a collection of the most disadvantaged individuals, making them an arduous group to teach. Most inmates have intense educational needs and are not emotionally prepared for the classroom (Gehring, 2002).

Finally, there is a lack of transparency in the goals of correctional facilities, their staff, and their educators. Correctional facilities were originally put in place to rehabilitate members of society; however, it has been posited that these facilities have taken on a more punitive function in recent years (Gehring, 2002).

Correctional educators look to change the behavior of inmates. However, correctional staff members are mainly focused on security and put less priority on educational programming for inmates. Authority in a prison is vested only in top institutional administrators (Gehring, 2002). Thus, educators have very little say in what happens at a high level. Unfortunately, in a cost-cutting financial age, the first to be eliminated is typically educational programming.

Introduction to the Research Question

After reviewing the literature, it becomes evident that many studies and theories support the claim that beliefs towards violence can be changed through education. The eclectic treatment programs and their relationships to the reduction of prison violence and recidivism have been the objective for much past research. Why there is a relationship between treatment programs and recidivism remains a question to many researchers. The team aims to see the extent to which treatment programs can affect the beliefs of prisoners towards violence. If the research shows that the

inmates' beliefs have become more nonviolent, this finding could provide an explanation for the reduced rates of recidivism seen in previous studies of inmate participation in treatment programs. It is very important to note that the team operated under the assumption that although all of the programs that were examined in this study were not designed to target inmates' beliefs, violent and nonviolent, those programs still had the potential to exert a measurable effect on those beliefs. Through the analysis of treatment programs and the testing of subjects, Peace in Prisons will answer the following research questions:

- Will various treatment programs within a county jail alter inmate beliefs in favor of nonviolence?
- Which programs develop a statistically significant increase in nonviolent beliefs, and which aspects of these programs are responsible for this change?

Chapter 3: Methodology

The Montgomery County Correctional Facility (MCCF)

Before choosing a location within which to perform the study, Peace in Prisons considered the various facilities that were locally available in the Washington D.C., Prince George's, and Montgomery County correctional systems. Contact with representatives from each facility was made explaining the research and requesting the opportunity to visit their locations. Although the team was unable to visit the D.C. facility, Prince George's and Montgomery County representatives allowed team members to tour their facilities. The Montgomery County Correctional Facility in

Boyd's, Maryland was visited first. Group members were given a tour by jail staff and were provided with details regarding the facility and its population. Team members later visited the Prince George's County Correctional Facility and were also given a guided tour throughout the facility. After considering both facilities, the decision was made to pursue the study within MCCF due to their large number of programs and enthusiasm for the project.

The MCCF is nationally accredited by the American Correctional Association. As a jail, it contains an inmate population different from that of prisons. Jail inmates may be pre-trial, awaiting court dates, or post-trial, serving maximum sentences of 18 months. Inmates with longer sentences are transferred to prisons. At MCCF, approximately 60% of inmates are pre-trial while 40% are post-trial. The facility houses an average daily population of about 600 to 800 inmates, though the exact number fluctuates daily. On the day of the first round of testing, the facility housed approximately 750 inmates. Below, Figure 2 shows the racial demography of the population. In October of 2009, 53% of the population was represented by African American inmates, 26% were Latino, 20% were Caucasian, and 1% was considered Other by the facility. This population includes Asians and other minority ethnicities. Of the Hispanic population, approximately 5% is completely illiterate while another 5% is literate only in Spanish, as estimated by the Warden and his staff. In addition, of the 26% of the inmates who speak Spanish, about 7% are unable to verbally communicate in English. At the time of the first round of testing the male to female ratio was 89 to 11.

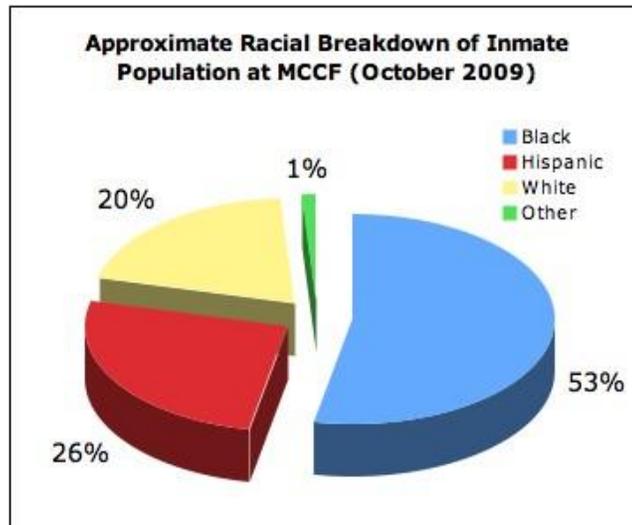


Figure 2. Racial Breakdown of Montgomery County Correctional Facility

The facility is divided into housing units referred to as pods. These pods consist of sixteen cells on each of the two floors for a maximum capacity of sixty-four inmates. There is a common area which inmates can use for recreational purposes during certain times of the day. In addition, there is a small enclosed outdoor recreation area that inmates may use for physical activities during their free time. Certain pods are considered “living-learning communities,” where inmates who live together also participate in the same program, as detailed below.

Pods are kept under constant video surveillance and always have an officer present to patrol the common room and control all electronic devices including individual cell locks and pod entrance doors. A caseworker may also be assigned to the pod; their duties include encouraging inmates to become involved in a program, discovering ways for a more successful re-entry into society, and finding jobs within the facility itself (Zuckerman, 2009).

While many jails and prisons provide programs and services designed to reduce recidivism and increase likelihood of inmate success after release, MCCF is particularly known for its wealth and variety of programming. Many such opportunities are maintained and improved through close partnerships formed between MCCF and a plethora of county social service providers, community organizations and faith-based groups. Incarcerated inmates serving sentences of 90 days or longer are encouraged to participate in treatment programs known collectively as Jail-Based Programming. The facility offers a range of programs, including, but not limited to, general education, employment, substance abuse rehabilitation, social and faith-based programs.

Educational programs include General Education Diploma instruction (GED), English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), Communication Skills, typing and computer classes, Occupational Math and Life Skills. Communication Skills teaches professional writing and public speaking while the Life Skills program instructs inmates on how to complete important personal tasks such as balancing a checkbook and managing money. By providing inmates the opportunity to complete their education or acquire new skills while incarcerated, MCCF attempts to increase the inmates' chances of success after release and to reduce recidivism rates.

Several employment programs are available to help inmates acquire useful skills or gain valuable work experience. Inmates may work within their own pods, in the kitchen, or in the library. Pod workers are responsible for cleaning and serving food while kitchen workers receive training in food preparation then prepare meals

for inmates and facility personnel. In addition to gaining work experience within the facility, inmates can prepare for post-release employment through participation in the Re-Entry Employment Development Endeavor (REDE). REDE teaches social skills such as communication, social etiquette, and workplace acclimation. Through REDE, participating inmates are encouraged to develop good work habits that will increase likelihood of employment upon release as well as employment sustainability. The Job Partnership Workshop, a component of the REDE program, provides pre- and post-release job search and instructs participants on résumé writing. REDE holds biweekly meetings, during which MCCF counselors, social workers, and a multitude of representatives from various agencies and non-profit or faith-based organizations assist in addressing offender needs upon release. Employment programs at MCCF foster positive work experiences and facilitate successful returns to society. There also exist several drug rehabilitation programs that are targeted to inmates with substance abuse problems. These programs are especially important since a large majority of the jail's population suffers from an addiction problem (Zuckerman, 2010).

Jail Addiction Services (JAS) is an intense twelve-week, in-patient drug treatment program. Due to the popularity of the program, it is offered in both English and Spanish, and inmates must often be placed on a waiting list for several weeks before room in the class becomes available. Inmates who choose to participate in JAS are housed together in a single pod. The program includes an educational portion in which participants identify causes of abuse before continuing to the rehabilitation portion of the program, which is conducted by a trained drug specialist. In an effort to

continue improvement beyond the duration of the program, the facility offers ongoing treatment within the facility and even places participants in community drug programs after release. MCCF also offers Alcoholics Anonymous and Narcotics Anonymous as less intense options for substance abuse treatment. These programs serve inmates who have drug-use problems while promoting abstinence from drugs and alcohol. By treating substance-abuse and addictions through therapeutic and educational techniques, the facility provides an important service to their population.

Most volunteers at the facility are religiously affiliated, and MCCF addresses a variety of topics through faith-based programs. Religious programs offered at the facility include religious services and faith-based education or rehabilitation programs. The facility offers Christian and Islamic services every day of the year. In addition, inmates can attend Bible study classes. The Fatherhood Program is a Spanish-speaking program that uses religion to advise participants on how to connect with their children and encourages respect towards the mothers of their children. The 12-step program aims to counter substance abuse problems through spirituality, and the Men's Film Class teaches religious and moral values through films. These programs provide inmates with a community of like-minded individuals and instill greater moral judgment.

Social programs teach participants skills that will enable them to react well in social situations. Moral Reconnection Therapy (MRT) teaches decision-making and cognitive and behavioral skills. MRT participants, like those of JAS, live together in the same pods. The facility offers MRT for youthful offenders, men, and women. Youthful offenders, who are those inmates under the age of 21, are placed in the

Youthful Offender Unit of MRT and are required to attend general education classes. MRT participants must be English literate, as there is a written homework component to the program which addresses goal setting and damaged relationships. Another social program offered at MCCF is Conflict Resolution, which teaches inmates how to resolve personal conflicts with friends and family. These programs aim to instill in inmates the ability to address social problems without resorting to crime.

The goal of this study is to examine the effectiveness of jail-based programming within a correctional facility. It should be noted that while only the programs mentioned above were included in the study, MCCF offers several other programs. The abundance of programs available at the Montgomery County Correctional Facility, as well as the staff's generosity in allowing a research team to enter the institution and survey inmates, made the facility the ideal location for performance of this study.

Participants

Participants of this study were, as mentioned above, inmates at the Montgomery County Correctional Facility. Approximately two-thirds of subjects provided demographic data for sex, age, and race. As can be seen below in Figures 3-5 below, demographic percentages were generally consistent throughout the course of study despite losing participants each round. In addition, participants' racial breakdown was fairly consistent with the racial breakdown of the facility (Figure 2) providing a population that was representative of the jail's population.

Inmates participated in the study on a purely voluntary basis. Participants were informed that they would not be rewarded for completing the test or survey. Additionally, jail staff repeatedly informed inmates that their sentences would not be affected in any way, either positively or negatively. Participants were allowed to stop taking the test at any time, and could ask to be removed from the study. Any such wishes were completely followed.

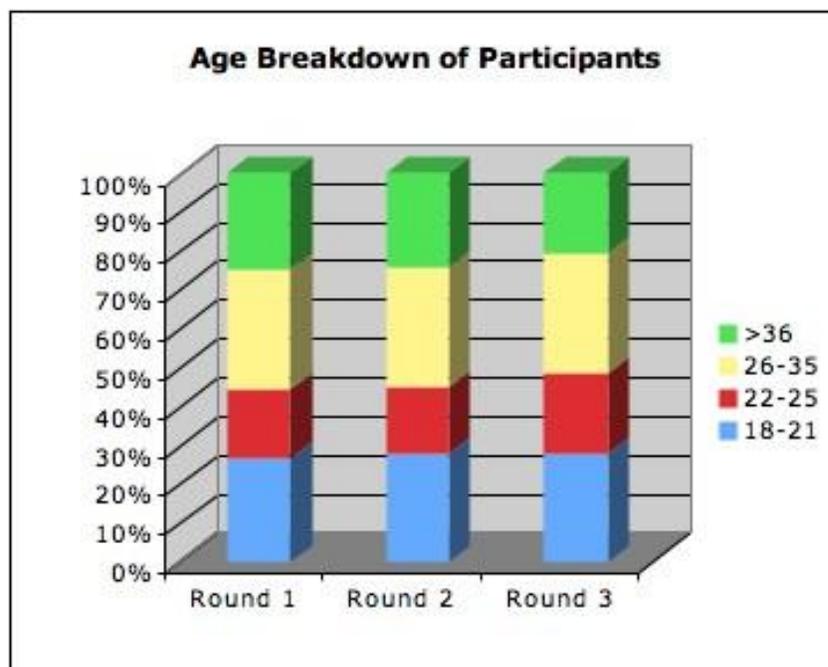


Figure 3. Age Breakdown of Participants

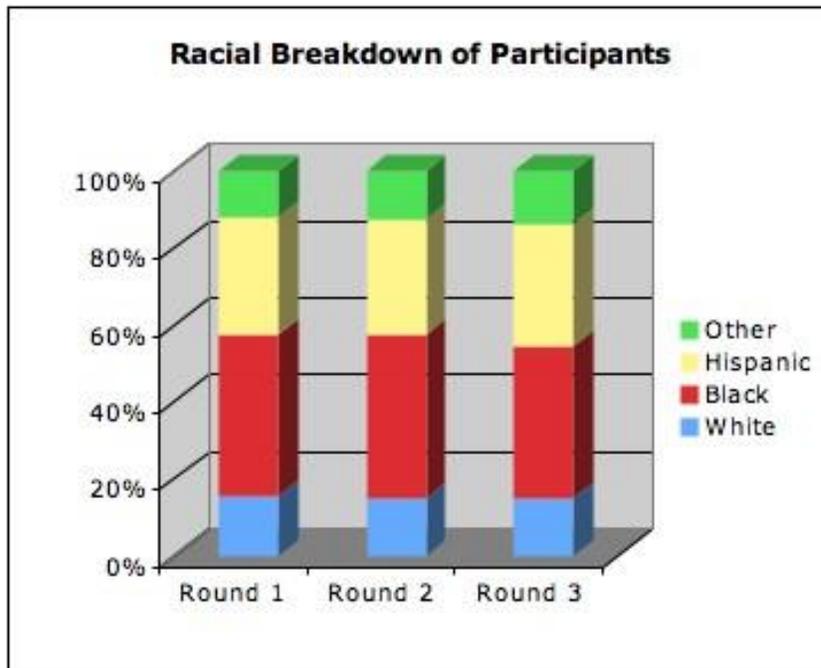


Figure 4. Racial Breakdown of Participants

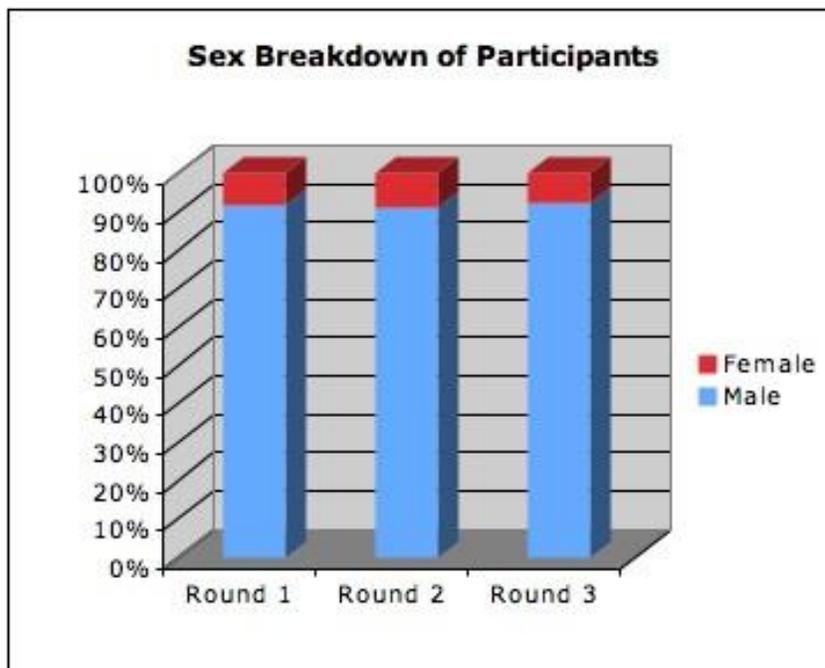


Figure 5. Gender Breakdown of Participants

Research Design

The project's research methodology utilized a pretest-posttest design. Three visits to the facility were made to obtain data: on January 20th, February 24th, and April 7th of 2010. Initially, 338 individuals participated in the study. For the most part, at any one time, the population of inmates at MCCF is approximately 700. Therefore, nearly one-half of the population participated in our study on the first day of collection. The second and third visits saw testing of 191 and 154 individuals, respectively. During each round of data collection, participants completed a test which measures attitudes towards violence. For the second and third rounds, participants also filled out a questionnaire providing demographic information. This design permits us to observe the change in attitudes towards violence throughout the course of the study.

In order to include the large Spanish-speaking population of the jail, the test and the questionnaire were available in Spanish, as were fluent Spanish speakers who served as translators and assisted in the administration of the test to ensure fair testing.

Nonviolence Test and Questionnaire

The Nonviolence Test, created by V.K. Kool, assesses violent attitudes through sixty-five questions, twenty-nine of which are filler questions such that answers the participant provides for these do not affect the final score. The author of the test purposely included these filler questions as a way of diverting the test-taker's

attention from the fact that the NVT tests for nonviolence. Essentially, this is a measure to prevent the Hawthorne effect, a phenomenon where tests can be rendered invalid due to subjects being aware of the experiment's goal (Franke & Kaul, 1978). Each question, filler or scored, is presented in the same manner, with two answers proposing different courses of action or preferences for the subject to select. The thirty-six scored questions require the participant to choose between an answer that endorses a nonviolent belief and another that represents a violent one. The score corresponding to the greatest demonstration of nonviolent beliefs is a perfect thirty-six, which indicates that the participant chose all of the nonviolent options. Conversely, the score corresponding to the greatest presence of violent beliefs is zero.

The NVT was found to have a high convergent validity with other measures of nonviolence, such as the Teenage Nonviolent Test, as evidenced by the high correlation indices between these tests (Kool, 2008). The NVT has been used in a variety of research studies, which include demonstrating the nature of aggression (Sen, 1993), dogmatism (Hammock & Hanson, 1990), and moral exclusion (Kool et al., 2002). As derived by Mayton and colleagues (2002), the alpha reliability value is 0.82 (Kool, 2008).

The questionnaire was an original document created by team Peace in Prisons, and asks inmates to self-report demographic information including age, race, and education level. There are additional questions for the inmates of the experimental group regarding their opinions of the programs in which they participated. These questions ask for aspects of the programs that the inmates liked or disliked and what

they would like to see done differently. In addition, participating inmates used a Likert scale from 1 to 5 to rank their closeness with staff and with other members of the programs in which they participated.

Data Collection

During the first round of data collection, the researchers separated into groups consisting of at least two team members, a Spanish-speaking translator, and a staff member of the facility. The facility's staff members escorted each group to various pods. By the end of the day, virtually all of the pods had been visited by a group. Once researchers entered the pod, the inmates were called to the common area to be introduced to the administrators and the research project. Spanish-speaking inmates were moved to another room in the pod to accommodate linguistic needs. Test administrators in both rooms read a pre-written script to the inmates, describing the purpose, confidentiality, and process of the project (see Appendix B). The Spanish-speaking inmates received the same message from the translator. Any inmates who did not want to participate returned to their cells, and all consenting inmates received a packet that contained the consent form and the NVT (see Appendix A, C). The consent form explained the project, confidentiality, and provided contact information. Participation required inmates to provide their names, signatures, and jail identification numbers (JID). The inmates were given approximately 45 minutes to complete the test, although most inmates finished well before 45 minutes had passed. Inmates were allowed to ask any questions regarding the test and were allowed to skip any questions on the test.

When team members returned to the facility five weeks later, the facility provided a master list of every inmate and his or her pod placement. This list was used to locate those who had participated in the first round of testing, if they were still at the facility. Groups similar to those utilized in the first round visited pods with first round participants, where a staff member called these inmates by name. Surveys were re-administered to these select inmates. In addition, participants completed the team-created questionnaire (see Appendix D).

The third round of data collection was completed five weeks after the second round. The methods of locating inmates and administering the NVT and questionnaire were identical to those of the second round. One-on-one interviews were also conducted with a few participants to learn about their opinions and recommendations for the jail (see Appendix E). There were fewer participants than the second round due to release or transfer from the jail. This was the final round of data collection.

In order to ensure that the identities of the participating inmates were kept confidential, the consent forms were separated from the tests and the tests were assigned test identification numbers (TID) for tracking. A confidential spreadsheet was created that contained the JIDs and their corresponding TIDs. All of the three tests from each inmate were labeled with the same TID.

The NVTs were reviewed and graded by hand using the key provided by V.K. Kool. Each test was graded twice, each time by a different grader, to ensure accuracy. The graded test data and questionnaire were then input into SPSS version 16 to perform statistical analyses.

Method of Data Analysis

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable of the study is nonviolent beliefs, as measured by the NVT. Approximately half of the participants completed all 36 questions in rounds 1 and 2, leaving another half of the population that did not answer every question. In the third round, only 1.3% completed all 36 questions. Participants sometimes wrote in their own responses rather than selecting one of the two options given, circled both answers, or skipped questions altogether. Only when subjects selected one of the two given answers were responses used in scoring. In each of the three rounds, the response rate for all but three of the questions was above 90% while the lowest response rate for any single question was 84.3%. One question that consistently had a response rate below 90% discussed murder and capital punishment, likely a sensitive topic for many participants.

The NVT was designed to be scored by counting the number of nonviolent responses. Therefore, a score of thirty-six would correspond to the most nonviolent while zero would correspond to the most violent. However, this method for scoring the surveys would inaccurately skew the results due to skipped or doubly answered questions. To address this drawback, the team decided to work with the proportion of nonviolent answers. This variable was termed the Nonviolent Proportion (NVP).

The NVP was calculated by dividing the number of nonviolent answers by the total number of questions answered. For example, a person who answered 20 out of 27 questions with a nonviolent answer would have a NVP of .741 (20/27). This method was supported by the creator of the test (Kool, 2008).

Independent Variables

The major independent variable for this study is participation in programs at the facility. Those subjects who did not participate in a program comprised the control group, whereas those who participated in at least one program comprised the experimental group. These control and experimental groups were made for each round as well as for the study as a whole. For example, there is a Round 1 control group of inmates who reported no program participation in Round 1, and a control group for the whole time frame for inmates who reported no program participation in any of the three rounds. Participation in a program was determined by responses to the question “Please list any programs or classes that you are currently enrolled in, if any.” Due to the wording of the question, a lack of a response was considered to mean that the participant was not involved in any program and was, therefore, placed into the control group. It is possible that a blank response could also be due to the participant not seeing the question; this is an unavoidable limitation of the study. However, as this was the first question on the survey, it is likely that participants saw the prompt and reacted accordingly. Education level, sex, race, age, and the type of program serve as other independent variables. These demographics were self-reported.

Participants reported their highest education level completed by selecting from eight given options, ranging from elementary to graduate school. These education levels were then categorized into three groups: those who had not received a high school diploma or GED, those who had received a high school diploma or GED, and those who had at least started college. Inmates reported sex by selecting

from a binary option: Male or Female. Race, age, and program involvement were determined from responses to open-ended questions. Any reported race that could not be easily categorized as Black, White, or Hispanic was categorized as “other.” Races grouped as “other” include mixed races, Black Hispanic, and White Hispanic, which corresponds to the classifications used by United States Census Bureau (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). Also, there were very few participants who identified as Asian, so for statistical purposes, these subjects were grouped into “other.”

The responses for age were placed into four groups: 18-21, 22-25, 26-35, and 36+. These groupings were decided based on life events that generally separate these groups. For example, an individual over the age of 26 is more likely to be married, have a family, and have a career than an individual within the ages of 22-25. In addition, these groupings allowed each group to contain an approximately equal number of individuals.

Due to the large number of programs and diversified involvement in each, programs were categorized for the purpose of analysis. Programs were grouped into five categories: educational, employment, rehabilitation, social, and religious. Within the educational program category, the programs ESOL, GED, Life Skills, Communication Skills, Occupational Math, and typing and computer classes were included. The employment program category was composed of Pod Workers, Kitchen staff, and the Job Partnership/REDE program. JAS, Alcoholics Anonymous, and Narcotics Anonymous were classified as rehabilitation programs, and MRT and Conflict Resolution courses were categorized as social programs. The term “social” best describes programs which help inmates gain skills to make them more successful

in social situations. Finally, any program at the facility which was heavily influenced or related to religion was placed under the religious program category. These include 12 Step, Fatherhood Program, Men's Film Class, Church Service, Bible Study, and Islamic Services. The number of programs in which an inmate was involved can also be considered an independent variable that could impact nonviolent beliefs.

Therefore, this factor was also taken into consideration when performing certain analyses as described in greater detail below.

In many cases, participants did not provide demographic information for every round. To increase the amount of demographic information, data analysts imputed age, sex, race, and education level data from other rounds. For example, if a participant had said he or she was Hispanic in rounds 1 and 3 but did not report a race in round 2, this subject was classified as Hispanic. In this way, the same demographic information was used for every round. Inconsistencies in any category were removed from that analysis. For example, if a participant reported his or her age as 19 in one round but as 30 in another round, no assumptions could be made to guarantee accuracy, so information about the subject's age was coded as missing.

Statistical Analyses

The team first tested for differences in NVP among the three minor independent variables: age, race, and education level. This would provide a snapshot of the differences within the population and provide interesting options for the research's direction. For each independent variable, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed with a Tukey post-hoc test to determine any differences in

NVP score between its groups. This was performed for each round of data collection. The ANOVA indicates whether the mean NVP for each group within an independent variable are all equal. If a group is found to differ significantly, the Tukey post-hoc test illustrates which groups are differing from each other based on the mean NVP. Similarly, T-tests were performed to observe the difference between NVP score for males and females for each of the three rounds.

To determine the effects of program participation in one of the five program groups, T-tests were performed between those who participated in jail-based programming and those who did not in order to see if the mean NVP differed. This analysis was performed for each round of data collection. To observe the broader effect of participation in any program on NVP, T-tests were used to investigate two different methods of defining the control and experimental populations. The first method involved defining control and experimental round by round, while the second method defined the two over the course of the entire study. The advantage of making the distinction round by round was that this increased the sample size of the control group. However, it is conceded that using the second method is a more precise way to clearly observe the effect of program participation.

Next, it was necessary to determine if there were any factors that were associated with a participant dropping out of the study. To do so, a binary logistic regression was performed. For the second and third rounds each, a variable was made denoting whether an inmate participated or dropped out. The binary logistic regression was then run with this participation variable as the dependent variable, and available demographics (age, sex, race, education level) as well as the five program

participation variables, program frequency variable, and the baseline NVP score from the first round as covariates. This test identifies if any of these factors were associated with participant mortality, or dropping out of the study.

If no factors are found to contribute to the attrition of the study, then a longitudinal effect study could be performed without imputing data for those individuals whose data is missing. This is because it can be assumed that the participants dropped out of the study at random. Results from the missing data analysis provided some support that participants were dropping out of the study at random. However, missing demographic information (as described below in the Results section) make the results unreliable. In order to bypass this limitation of the missing data analysis, T-test comparisons were performed between those who provided demographic information and those that did not (see Appendix H). By demonstrating that there is no significant difference between the NVP scores of those who did and did not provide their self-reported demographics, it becomes more likely that participants dropped out of the study at random.

A generalized linear regression model was performed for each round to determine which independent variables affect the NVP score. In addition, it is possible that some programs could be more effective for a specific age, race, sex, or education-level. Therefore, interactions were created and analyzed using the generalized linear regression model again to determine if any such effects could be observed.

Chapter 4: Results

Population Descriptives

Participants are defined as those who filled out the consent form and survey during at least one round of data collection. By this definition, there are 338 participants in the study. Demographics were obtained on a self-report basis, and approximately one-third of the participants withheld their sex, race, age or highest level of education, while over one-half of the participants did provide each of the four requested demographics (see Appendix G). Overall, 184 (or 54.4%) of the participants provided all four demographics (sex, race, age, and education).

Unfortunately, demographics were not requested during the first visit at the facility, meaning that a large number of the individuals for whom demographic information is completely unreported (27.2% of participants) were those who dropped out of the study after the first round. The average age of those who reported was 30.08 years; a more detailed breakdown can be seen in Table 1. Frequencies of the other demographics are outlined in Tables 2-3.

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
18-21	62	50	42
22-25	41	31	31
26-35	71	55	46
≥36	58	44	31

Table 1. Distribution of Age among Reporting Participants

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
White	35	26	22
Black	94	75	58
Hispanic	69	53	47
Other	27	22	20

Table 2. Distribution of Race among Reporting Participants

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
No HS	50	39	30
HS/GED	107	74	58
College	56	48	41

Table 3. Distribution of Education Level among Reporting Participants

Table 1-3. Frequencies of various demographic groups. The population of our study was representative of MCCF's population.

The Non-Violent Proportion (NVP) was used to measure a participant's violent attitudes. In round 1, the mean NVP of all participants was .70 (SD=.18).

Round 2 participants had a mean NVP of .72 (SD=.18), and round 3 participants had a mean NVP of .74 (SD=.19).

The results of a Pearson correlation revealed that several variables were significantly associated with each other (Table 4). Of note are the associations of age, Hispanics, and religious programs with other variables. Age was found to be significantly correlated with average NVP and with participation in educational, rehabilitation, and social programming. Hispanics were significantly correlated with average NVP and with educational, rehabilitation, and religious programming. Religious programming was significantly correlated with average NVP, educational and rehabilitation programming, and program frequency.

In round 1, 56.5% of the population was not participating in a program, and 43.5% of participants were participating in at least one program. The minimum number of programs in which individuals participated was 1, and the maximum was 4; the mean number of programs in which individuals participated in round 1 was 1.52. In round 2, 66.9% of the population was not participating in a program, whereas 33.1% of the participants were participating in at least one. The mean number of programs in which individuals participated in round 2 was 1.61, with a minimum of 1 and a maximum of 4 programs. In round 3, 72.5% of the population was not participating in any programs, while 27.5% was participating in at least one program. The mean number of programs in which individuals participated in round 3 was 1.47, with a minimum of 1 and a maximum of 4. The mean number of programs

in which participants participated over the course of the entire study was 1.48. The average age of participants who did not participate in any programs over the course of the study was 31.36, and the average age of those who participated in at least one was 29.57.

A concern for this assessment was the extent of participant attrition throughout the study. Participation in the study dropped from 338 individuals in round 1 to 191 participants in round 2 and finally to 156 subjects in round 3. Of the 338 participants, 121 (35.8%) participated in only one round, 87 (25.7%) participated in two rounds¹, and 130 (38.5%) participated in all three rounds. The attrition can be attributed to many factors including voluntary dropout, inability to locate subjects within the facility for the second or third rounds, or the participant no longer being held at MCCF due to release or transfer. Missing data analyses did not indicate differential attrition in the study (see Appendix H). No factors were significantly associated with dropping out of the study in rounds 2 or 3 ($p>.05$). Overall, the missing data analysis supported the hypothesis that the attrition occurred in a random fashion.

¹ Individuals who participated in two rounds could have participated in rounds 1 and 2 or rounds 1 and 3.

Correlations

		Avg_NVP	educ	emp	rehab	relig	soc	progtot	Total Number of Sum	In program overall	White vs Non-White	Dummy Variable Black	Dummy Variable Hispanic	Dummy Variable Other	Age	Sex
Avg_NVP	Pearson Correlation	1	.035	.094	.121*	.151**	-.148**	.099	.097	.083	-.009	-.003	.134*	-.177**	.326**	-.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.526	.084	.027	.006	.006	.069	.076	.128	.869	.961	.045	.008	.000	.059
	N	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	225	225	225	232	234
educ	Pearson Correlation	.035	1	-.046	-.051	.198**	.095	.571**	.213**	.446**	.016	-.138*	.262**	-.091	-.193**	-.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.526	.	.400	.352	.000	.082	.000	.000	.000	.774	.039	.000	.174	.003	.768
	N	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	225	225	225	232	234
emp	Pearson Correlation	.094	-.046	1	.029	.036	.011	.377**	.241**	.288**	-.082	.034	-.126	.068	-.036	-.081
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.084	.400	.	.600	.511	.835	.000	.000	.000	.133	.609	.059	.310	.581	.216
	N	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	225	225	225	232	234
rehab	Pearson Correlation	.121*	-.051	.029	1	.119*	-.154**	.405**	.204**	.375**	-.183**	.006	-.159*	.025	.142*	-.150*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027	.352	.600	.	.029	.005	.000	.000	.000	.001	.930	.017	.713	.031	.021
	N	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	225	225	225	232	234
relig	Pearson Correlation	.151**	.198**	.036	.119*	1	-.083	.536**	.127*	.338**	.069	-.137*	.192**	.064	.054	.052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.000	.511	.029	.	.126	.000	.019	.000	.208	.040	.004	.339	.415	.430
	N	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	225	225	225	232	234
soc	Pearson Correlation	-.148**	.095	.011	-.154**	-.083	1	.404**	.154**	.396**	-.018	-.015	.001	.025	-.141*	-.094
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.082	.835	.005	.126	.	.000	.005	.000	.741	.817	.985	.713	.032	.154
	N	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	225	225	225	232	234
progtot	Pearson Correlation	.099	.571**	.377**	.405**	.536**	.404**	1	.404**	.808**	-.083	-.121	.093	.032	-.090	-.134*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.069	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.128	.069	.163	.628	.171	.040
	N	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	225	225	225	232	234
Total Number of Sum	Pearson Correlation	.097	.213**	.241**	.204**	.127*	.154**	.404**	1	.379**	-.136*	-.025	.013	.064	-.047	-.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.076	.000	.000	.000	.019	.005	.000	.	.000	.012	.705	.844	.338	.481	.840
	N	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	225	225	225	232	234
In program overall	Pearson Correlation	.083	.446**	.288**	.375**	.338**	.396**	.808**	.379**	1	-.063	-.074	.071	.017	-.073	-.092
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.128	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.247	.270	.287	.799	.271	.162
	N	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	225	225	225	232	234
White vs Non-White	Pearson Correlation	-.009	.016	-.082	-.183**	.069	-.018	-.083	-.136*	-.063	1	.364**	.285**	.158*	-.130*	.095
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.869	.774	.133	.001	.208	.741	.128	.012	.247	.	.000	.000	.017	.048	.149
	N	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	338	225	225	225	232	234
Dummy Variable Black	Pearson Correlation	-.003	-.138*	.034	.006	-.137*	-.015	-.121	-.025	-.074	.364**	1	-.563**	-.313**	.044	-.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.961	.039	.609	.930	.040	.817	.069	.705	.270	.000	.	.000	.000	.522	.273
	N	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	217	215
Dummy Variable Hispanic	Pearson Correlation	.134*	.262**	-.126	-.159*	.192**	.001	.093	.013	.071	.285**	-.563**	1	-.246**	-.119	-.151*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	.000	.059	.017	.004	.985	.163	.844	.287	.000	.	.	.000	.079	.027
	N	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	217	215
Dummy Variable Other	Pearson Correlation	-.177**	-.091	.068	.025	.064	.025	.032	.064	.017	.158*	-.313**	-.246**	1	-.056	.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.174	.310	.713	.339	.713	.628	.338	.799	.017	.000	.000	.	.414	.847
	N	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	225	217	215
Age	Pearson Correlation	.326**	-.193**	-.036	.142*	.054	-.141*	-.090	-.047	-.073	-.130*	.044	-.119	-.056	1	-.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003	.581	.031	.415	.032	.171	.481	.271	.048	.522	.079	.414	.	.908
	N	232	232	232	232	232	232	232	232	232	232	217	217	217	232	222
Sex	Pearson Correlation	-.123	-.019	-.081	-.150*	.052	-.094	-.134*	-.013	-.092	.095	-.075	.151*	.013	-.008	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.059	.768	.216	.021	.430	.154	.040	.840	.162	.149	.273	.027	.847	.908	.
	N	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	234	215	215	215	222	234

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

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

Table 4. Pearson Correlations.

Results are presented to demonstrate the correlations between different variables. Variables include average NVP, program categories, program frequency (progtot), control vs. experimental (in program overall), race (White, Black, Hispanic, other), age (in years), and sex.

The next area of interest involved observing the deviations in mean NVP in relation to demographic factors. To determine whether there were any inherent differences in those of each category within a given demographic variable, ANOVAs were used to analyze NVP in relation to age, race, and highest level of education. As can be seen in the graphs below, the demographic with the most significant association with NVP was age. Figures 6-8 present the mean NVP breakdown for each demographic variable and its categorizations for each round.

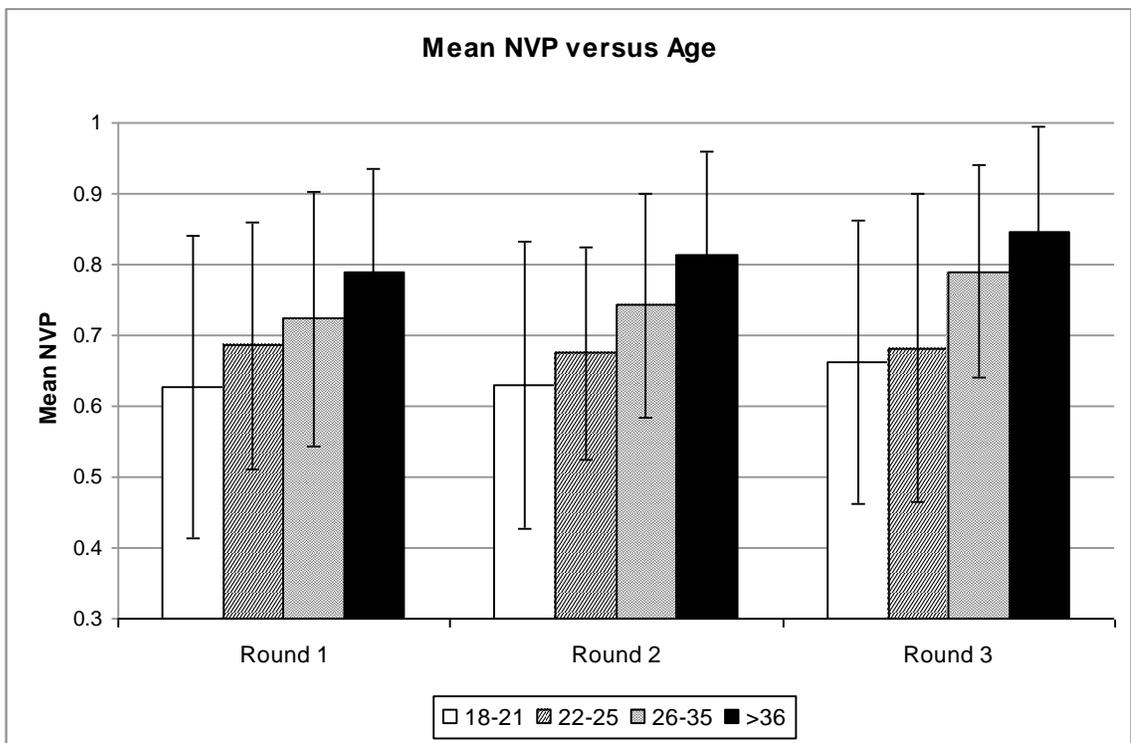


Figure 6. ANOVA for Age²

² The figure demonstrates the results of the ANOVA for age and indicates the mean NVP for each group at each round, as provided in the bar height. The standard deviation is given by the error bars.

As shown in Figure 6, there is a clear relationship between age and mean NVP.

Increasing age is positively correlated with increasing NVP score. Using Tukey post hoc tests, statistically significant differences were found between the mean NVP scores of younger and older populations.

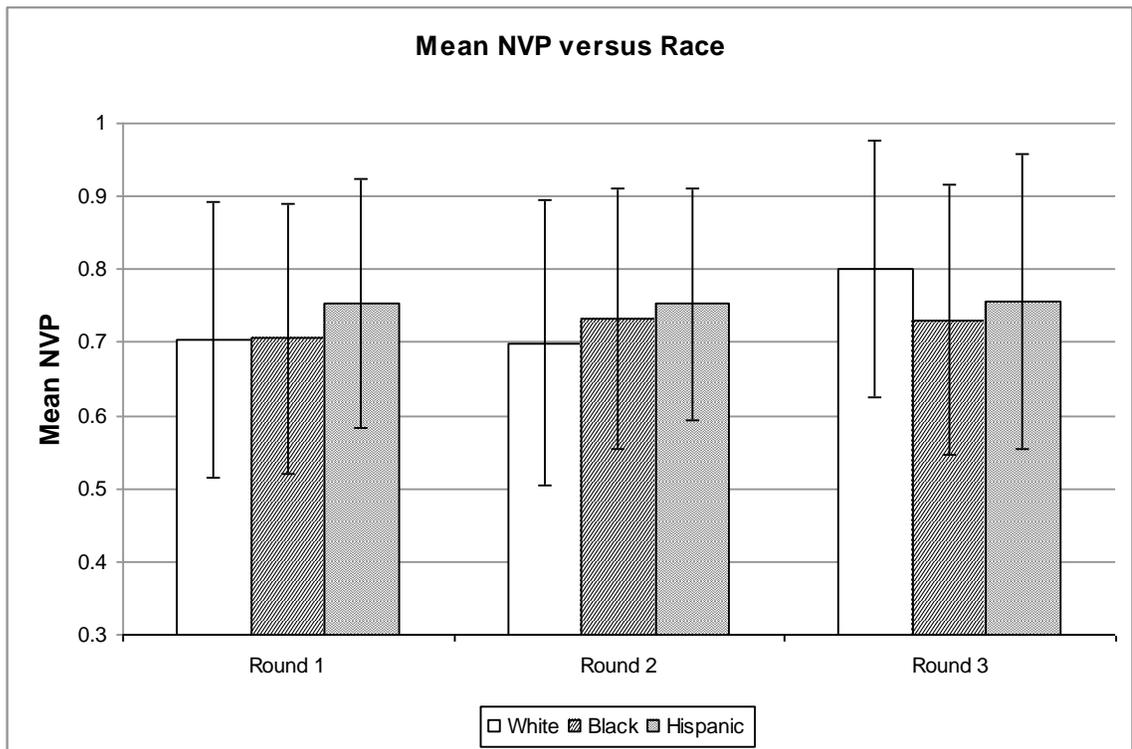


Figure 7. ANOVA for Race³

³ The figure demonstrates the results of the ANOVA for race and indicates the mean NVP for each group at each round, as provided in the bar height. The standard deviation is given by the error bars.

Results from race do not yield consistent findings (see Figure 7).

Furthermore, no significant differences in mean NVP were found between different races.

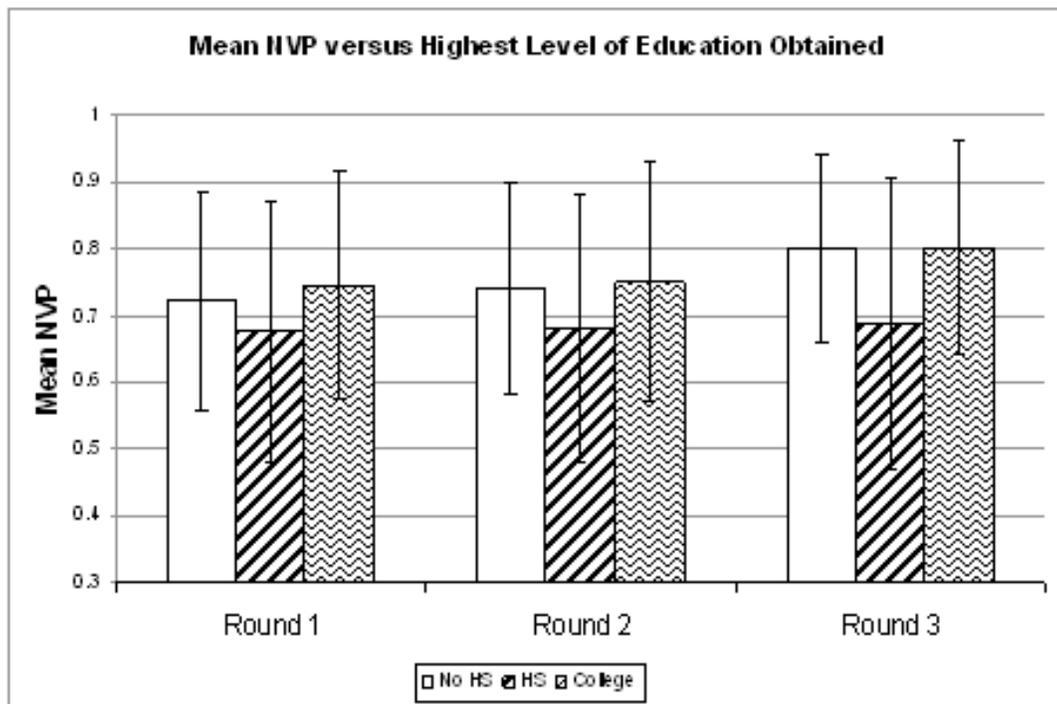


Figure 8. ANOVA for Highest Level of Education Obtained⁴

A comparison between mean NVP and highest level of education obtained yielded surprising results (see Figure 8). For each round, the mean scores were nearly identical between those who did not complete high school and those who had at least started college. The mean NVP scores for both groups were found to increase

⁴ The figure demonstrates the results of the ANOVA for education and indicates the mean NVP for each group at each round, as provided in the bar height. The standard deviation is given by the error bars.

considerably. Meanwhile, participants who had graduated from high school had lower scores and did not exhibit a similar rise in score throughout the study.

T-tests were performed for each of the three rounds to determine whether the mean NVP was significantly different between males and females. Although female subjects had a lower mean NVP score than males, the difference was not statistically significant.

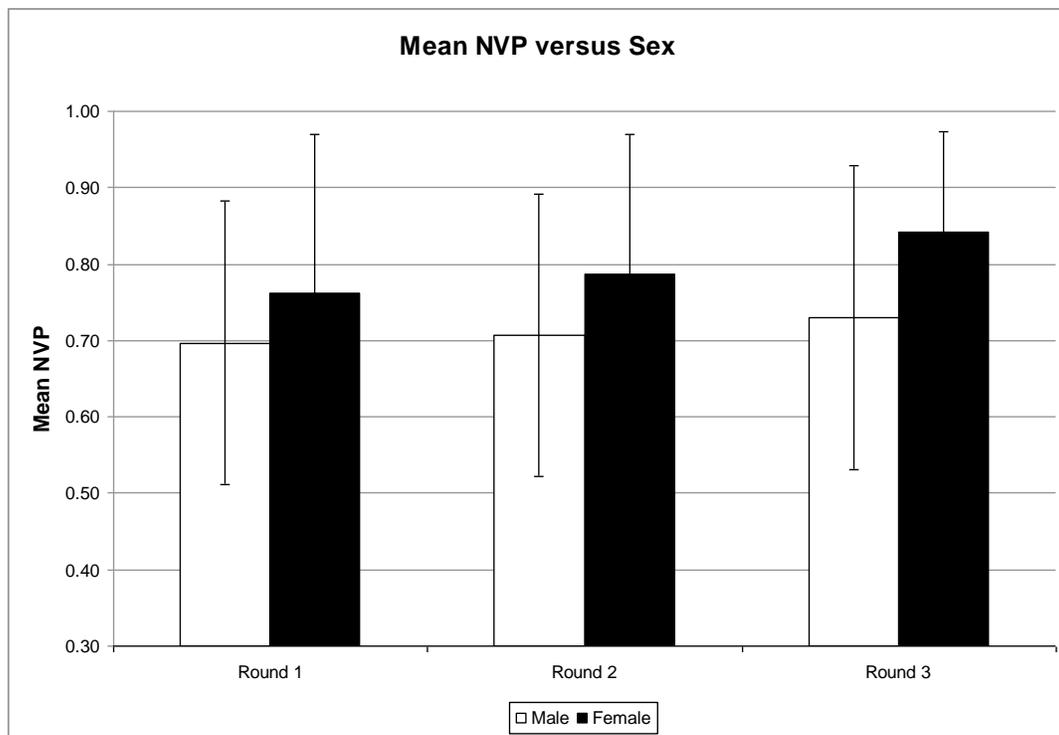


Figure 9. T-test for NVP vs. Sex⁵

⁵ T-Test results for sex are shown. Female subjects had lower NVP than male subjects in all three rounds; however, this difference was not statistically significant.

NVP Trends by Participation in Programming

In order to analyze the differential effect of program participation, T-tests were performed to test for significant differences between those who did and did not participate in a given program category.⁶⁷ As can be seen in the graphs below, the program category with the most significant association with NVP was religious followed by education and employment.

Figure 10 showed no statistical difference between the control and experimental mean NVP scores throughout the course of the study. However, a slight increase in NVP score over time can be observed for both groups, where the experimental group's enhancement is more pronounced than the control groups.

At the beginning of the study, the mean NVP scores between those who did and did not participate in educational programming were identical (see Figure 11). Yet towards the end of the study, a differential enhancement of the NVP score occurred such that the two groups were different at the statistically significant level of $p < 0.05$.

Employment programming data (Figure 12) did not demonstrate a clear trend, although a gradual increase in NVP score was observed which is consistent across all analyses. The significant difference between groups in round 2 may be due to an unusual population size fluctuation.

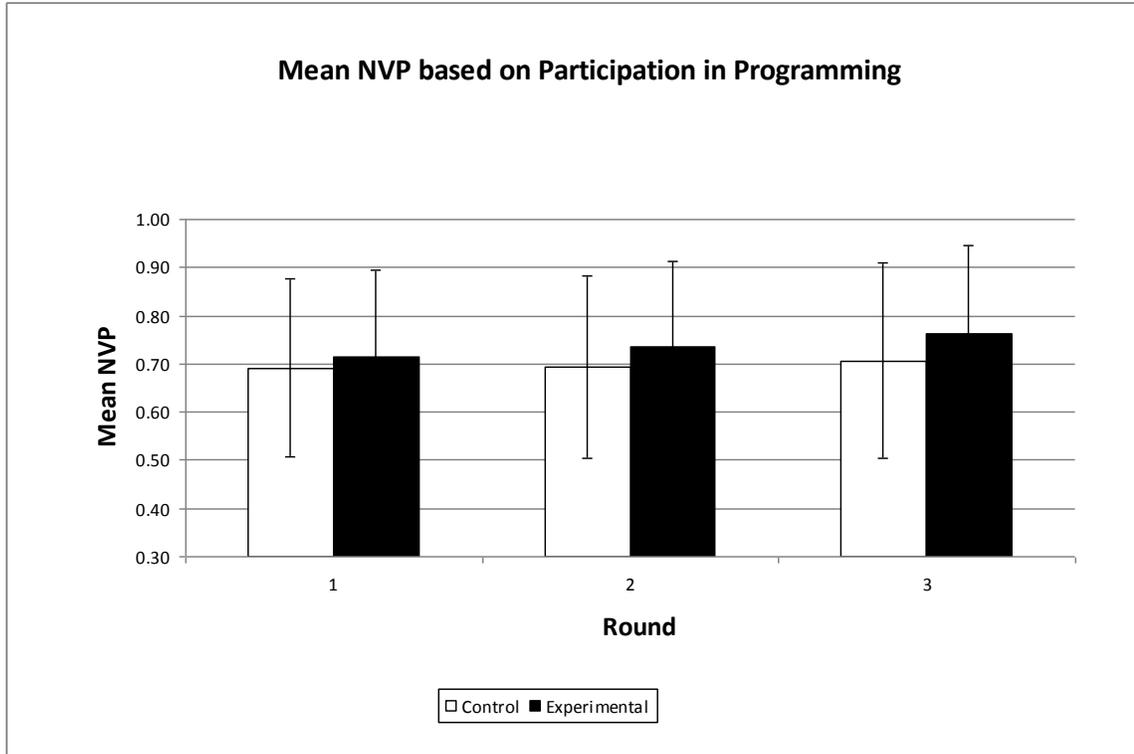
⁶ For each round, it was determined whether participants were in a program (experimental) or not in any programs (control). Dummy variables were also created for each round denoting participation or lack of participation in each of the five programming categories.

⁷ A non-participant did not participate in the programming category tested but may have been in other programs. Meanwhile, a control individual never participates in any jail programming for that round.

A $p < 0.001$ was observed between those who did and did not participate in rehabilitation programming in round 1 (see Figure 13). This significance disappears towards the end of the study since the mean NVP scores are no longer as different. Throughout the course of the study, the rehabilitation mean NVP hovers just below 0.8 while the non-participant's NVP score increases.

Similarly, religious programming data (see Figure 14) showed that participants initially had higher NVP scores than non-participants that remained near a 0.8 score throughout the study. The varying significance between rounds may be due to fluctuations in sample size each round.

Finally, social programming data presents a unique case where the participants possessed lower NVP scores than the non-participants. The differences between groups were never statistically significant. In addition, both groups experience increasing NVP scores over time at identical rates.



B. Any Programming Participant Frequencies

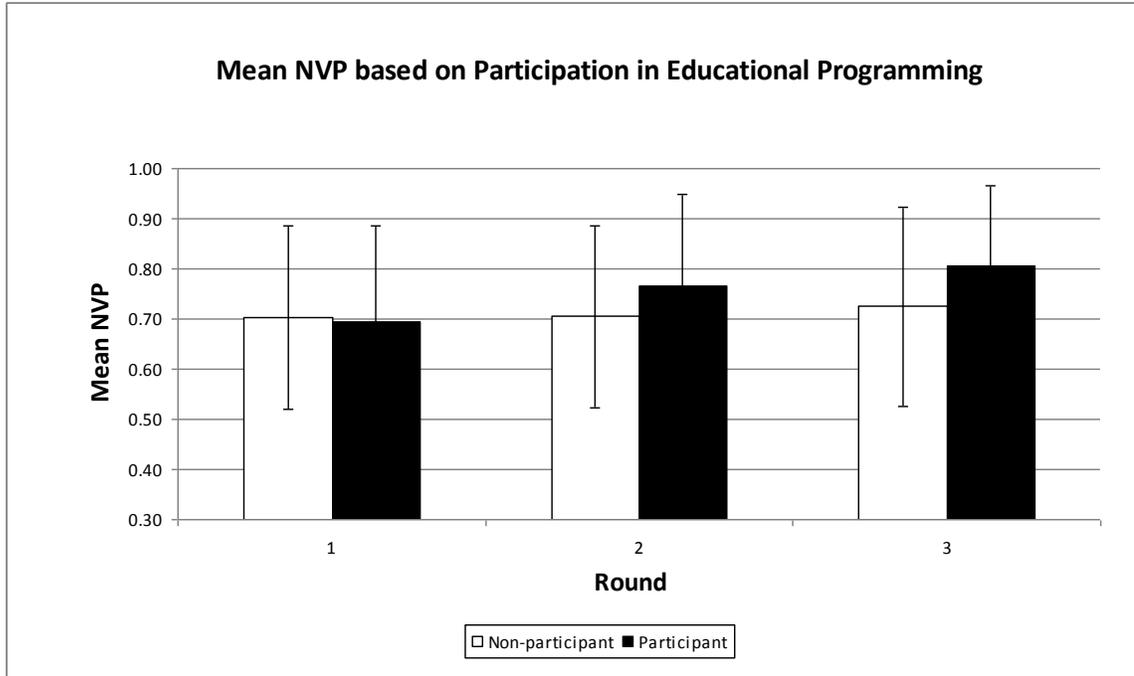
	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Control	191	80	63
Experimental	147	111	93

C. Any Programming Mean NVP

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Control	.68	.70	.74
Experimental	.71	.72	.74

Figure 10 A-C. T-test for Any Programming⁸

⁸ The results of the T-test for Any Programming are presented. (B) shows the frequencies for each group by round and (C) gives the mean NVP. Bolded scores indicate significance between the two groups at the $p < .05$ level and an italicized/bolded column indicates significance between the two groups at the $p < .01$ level.



B. Educational Participant Frequencies

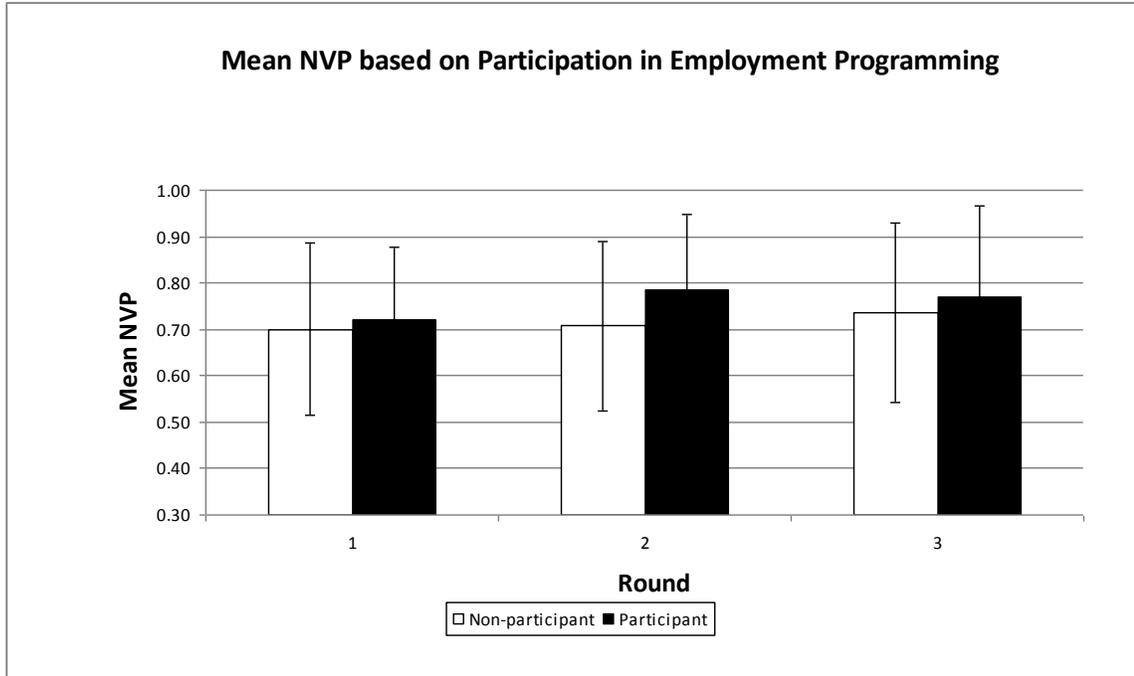
	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Non-Participant	285	153	128
Participant	53	38	28

C. Educational Mean NVP

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Non-Participant	.70	.71	.73*
Participant	.69	.76	.80*

Figure 11 A-C. T-test for Participation in Educational Programming⁹

⁹ The results of the T-test for Educational Programming are presented. (B) shows the frequencies for each group by round and (C) gives the mean NVP. An asterisk indicates significance between the two groups at the $p < .05$ level and two asterisks indicate significance between the two groups at the $p < .01$ level.



B. Employment Participant Frequencies

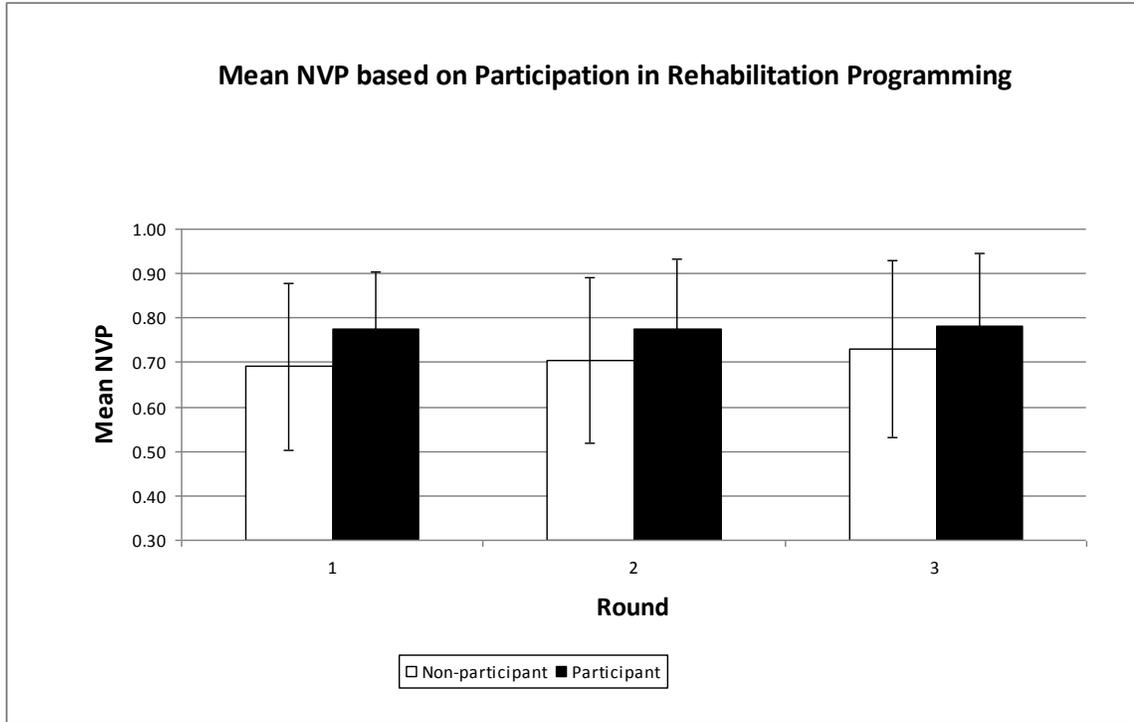
	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Non-Participant	322	167	137
Participant	16	24	19

C. Employment Mean NVP

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Non-Participant	.70	.71*	.74
Participant	.72	.79*	.77

Figure 12 A-C. T-test for Participation in Employment Programming¹⁰

¹⁰ The results of the T-test for Employment Programming are presented. (B) shows the frequencies for each group by round and (C) gives the mean NVP. An asterisk indicates significance between the two groups at the $p < .05$ level and two asterisks indicate significance between the two groups at the $p < .01$ level.



B. Rehabilitation Participant Frequencies

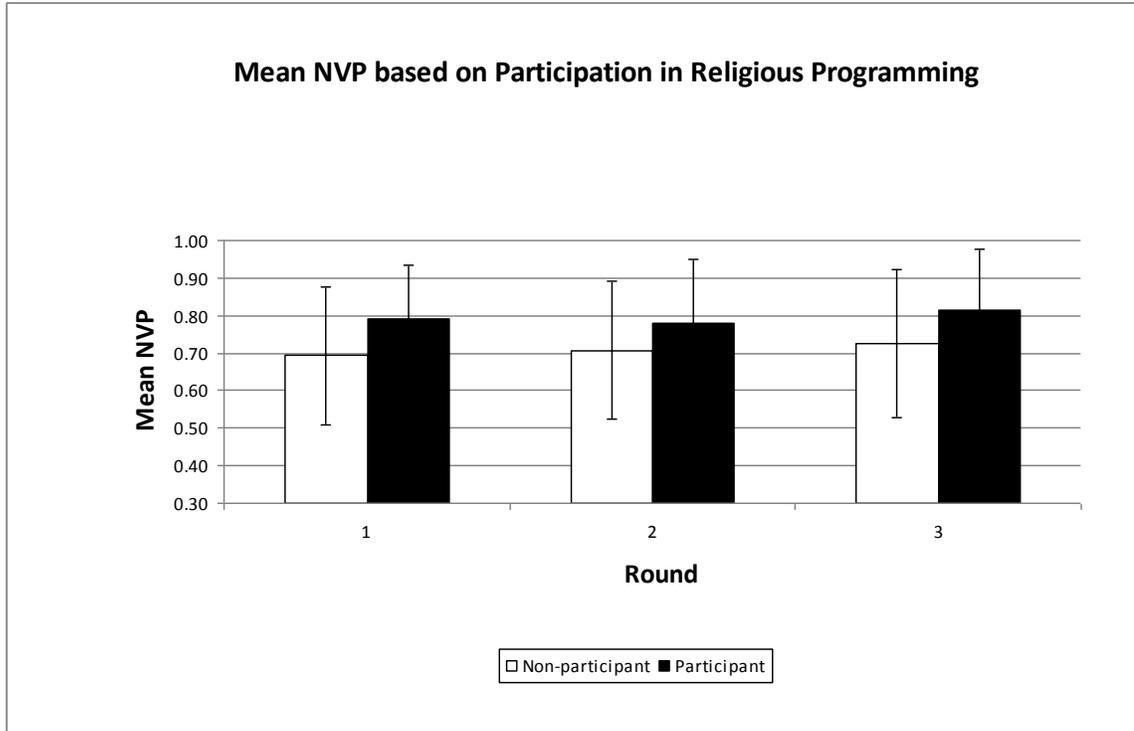
	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Non-Participant	298	158	127
Participant	40	33	29

C. Rehabilitation Mean NVP

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Non-Participant	.69**	.70*	.73
Participant	.77**	.78*	.78

Figure 13 A-C. T-test for Participation in Rehabilitation Programming¹¹

¹¹ The results of the T-test for Rehabilitation Programming are presented. (B) shows the frequencies for each group by round and (C) gives the mean NVP. An asterisk indicates significance between the two groups at the $p < .05$ level and two asterisks indicate significance between the two groups at the $p < .01$ level.



B. Religious Participant Frequencies

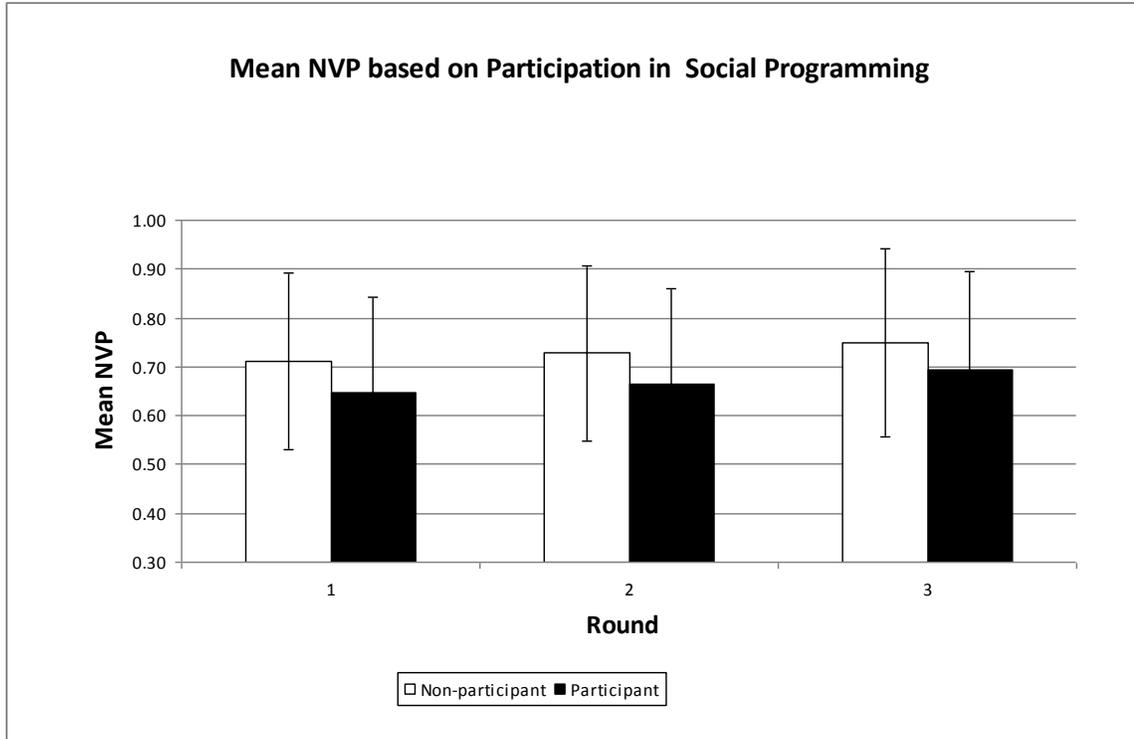
	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Non-Participant	309	166	131
Participant	29	25	25

C. Religious Mean NVP

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Non-Participant	.69**	.71	.73*
Participant	.79**	.78	.81*

Figure 14 A-C. T-test for Participation in Religious Programming¹²

¹² The results of the T-test for Religious Programming are presented. (B) shows the frequencies for each group by round and (C) gives the mean NVP. An asterisk indicates significance between the two groups at the $p < .05$ level and two asterisks indicate significance between the two groups at the $p < .01$ level.



B. Social Participant Frequencies

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Non-Participant	287	158	129
Participant	51	33	27

C. Social Mean NVP

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Non-Participant	.71	.73	.75
Participant	.65	.67	.69

Figure 15 A-C. T-test for Participation in Social Programming¹³

¹³ The results of the T-test for Social Programming are presented. (B) shows the frequencies for each group by round and (C) gives the mean NVP. An asterisk indicates significance between the two groups at the $p < .05$ level and two asterisks indicate significance between the two groups at the $p < .01$ level.

Mean NVP Based on Overall Participation in Programming

The mean NVP for individuals who had participated in a type of programming at any point during the study are shown in Table 5. T-tests were performed to determine if the mean scores between those who had ever participated in the program type were statistically different from those who had never participated in the program type during the course of the study. While substantial differences were seen in the mean NVP of those who had participated in many of the program categories, only participants of rehabilitation programs were statistically different from non-participants.

Program Category	Participation	Mean NVP
Education	No	0.7037
	Yes	0.7176
Employment	No	0.7011
	Yes	0.7512
Rehabilitation	No	0.6970*
	Yes	0.7506*
Religious	No	0.6957
	Yes	0.7673
Social	No	0.7203
	Yes	0.6567

Table 5. Mean NVP of Participants and Non-Participants in Programming Classifications¹⁴

¹⁴ The mean NVP of program participants are presented to determine if there is a difference in the scores of those who had participated in the program type during any of the three rounds and those who had not participated in that program type during the study. An asterisk indicates a p-value of 0.01.

Although the team had initially hoped to perform a longitudinal analysis, the missing demographic data made this direction undesirable. Instead, a generalized linear regression model was applied to determine which factors were associated with the NVP score.¹⁵ Independent variables used in the analysis included each of the five programming variables as well as age.^{16,17} The generalized linear regression results (see Table 6) indicate that participation in education or employment programming while incarcerated is associated with higher NVP scores at a significance level of $p < 0.05$. Participation in social programming was associated with lower NVP scores ($p < 0.05$). Most notably, increasing age was correlated with higher NVP scores at the $p < 0.001$ level. Finally, in contrast to the significant association found for rehabilitation and religious programming on NVP scores in the T-test analyses, these two variables were no longer significant when age was held constant.

¹⁵ The NVP score from round 1 was chosen for this analysis since it was the most pure data. The participants had not taken the test previously, and using the average NVP score from all three rounds would have distorted the results.

¹⁶ Age was the only demographic variable included in the generalized linear regression model. Sex was not used because the limited number of women in the study skewed the results. Highest level of education could not be coded in a continuous variable. Finally, race was not found to be consistently associated with NVP score in the ANOVA analysis or Pearson correlation, so it was also omitted.

¹⁷ These programming variables represent whether an individual was ever in the specified programming classification throughout the course of the study. It is possible for an individual to be in multiple programs throughout the course of the study.

Variable	Coefficient	Significance
Education	0.329	0.020*
Employment	0.313	0.021*
Rehabilitation	0.149	0.275
Religious	0.213	0.206
Social	-0.273	0.042*
Age	0.030	0.000**
Constant	-0.126	0.501

* signifies p -value < 0.05

** signifies p -values < 0.001

232 individuals were included in this analysis

Table 6. Generalized Linear Regression Results: Effect of Program and Age on Round 1 NVP

Chapter 5: Discussion

The results of this research indicate that various programming and demographic factors influence inmates' nonviolent beliefs. While most analyses did not yield statistically significant results, it is important to consider the observed trends in the NVP. The inferences from these trends offer preliminary information regarding correctional programming and inmate beliefs that provide a basis for future research.

A notable trend in almost all different groups, whether control or experimental, across all three rounds was that the NVP increased as the study progressed. The mean NVP, however, never exceeded 0.85, indicating a possible

plateau of nonviolent beliefs. This suggests that nonviolent beliefs are influenced by a combination of learned and biological factors.

Participation in Programming

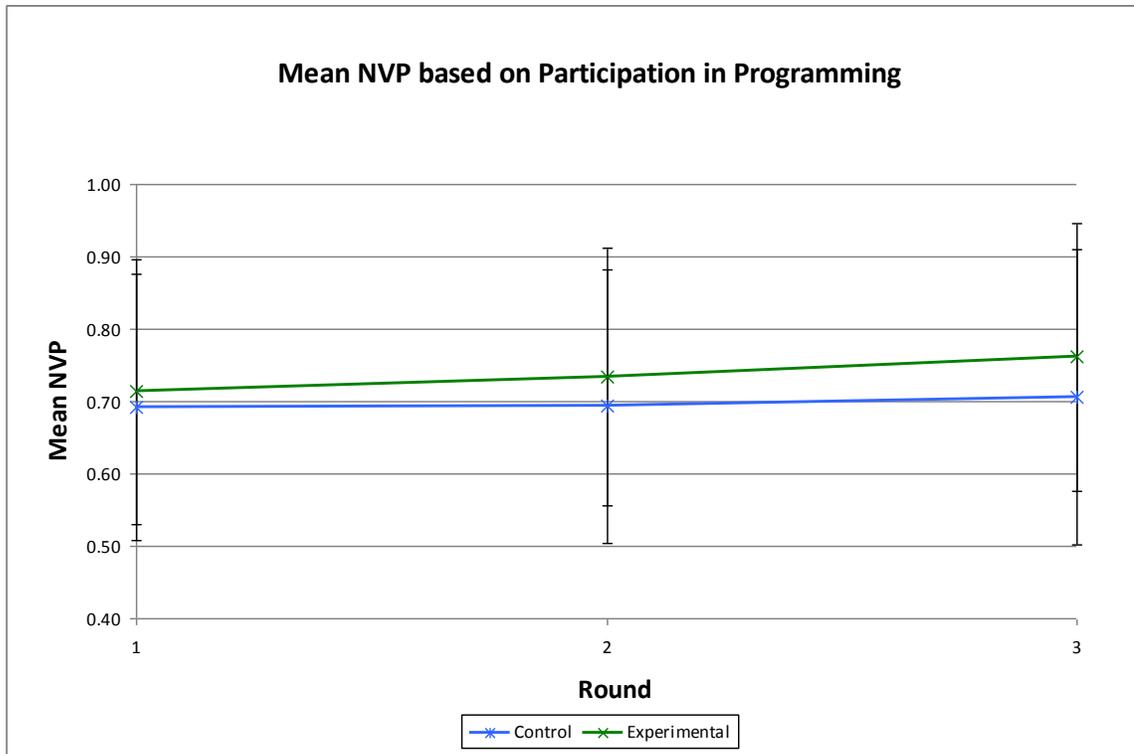


Figure 16. Mean NVP Based on Participation Trend

The first test that was conducted was a comparison of the control and experimental groups. NVPs for both program participants and nonparticipants were similar in each round, and both groups showed growth over the three different rounds of this study. Although the difference between the experimental and control was not significantly different in any of the rounds, perhaps this is an indication that it is not

the programs that have a major effect on nonviolent beliefs but rather the environment of the MCCF.

The implication that the facility's environment positively affects nonviolent attitudes is in direct opposition to the general notion that correctional facility environments breed violence and crime by allowing inmates to learn violence and other criminal skills from one another (Camp & Gaes, 2004). Similarly, the deprivation theory of prison violence posits that being locked up in a facility causes psychological trauma resulting in deviant behavior (Homel, 2005).

As this study took place in only one facility, and MCCF is on the cutting edge of rehabilitation efforts, this data might not come as a surprise. In fact, the growth of both the experimental and control group could be very reasonable, taking into account the youth of this facility and the resources of the area in which it is located. Not until similar studies are conducted in other facilities, in a variety of economic and structural environments, can it be determined whether it was the MCCF or the environment of correctional facilities in general that caused the upward trend of NVP. However, preliminary results indicate that the environment and resources of the MCCF have been successful in encouraging nonviolence in all inmates, regardless of program participation. This could be due to a rehabilitative atmosphere that results from the strong encouragement to participate in programs. Other potential factors include the sense of community that may result from the pod structure or from the staff itself. The pod structure facilitates interactions between inmates, and each pod also participates in hall meetings with counselors to discuss issues when any problems arise (Participant 320, personal communication, April 7, 2010). Discussions

with individuals of various backgrounds and beliefs that result from these interactions may broaden inmates' perspectives and make them more tolerant. In addition to holding these hall meetings, each pod's case manager selects a pod representative who helps make facility-wide decisions including what television channels will be made available (Zuckerman, 2009). This pod to pod cooperation could also lend to the rehabilitative feel of the entire facility.

Responses from personal interviews with inmates further support the theory that the MCCF contributed to the observed rise in nonviolent beliefs. Participant 235 said, "I've been going to jail for twenty years. The way it's structured here is good. I wouldn't feel comfortable in any other jail" (personal communication, April 7, 2010). He added, "I am getting rehabilitated, I can truly say that. . .Others don't want to change, but the people who do want to change can get the help they need here" (personal communication, April 7, 2010). Participant 233 revealed that this particular facility made him feel better about himself and that "this facility has a way of letting you know it's not as bad as it seems" (personal communication, April 7, 2010). In his opinion, this atmosphere is due in large part to the management, especially the warden, who has been known to visit the pods and talk to the inmates personally. The management cares about its employees, which causes the employees to care about the inmates (personal communication, April 7, 2010). When asked to compare the MCCF with any previous jail experiences, participant 233 said that the MCCF staff's ability to cope with emotional, spiritual, and physical problems causes the jail to be much more helpful than other jails in helping inmates escape the criminal lifestyle.

The various types of contests within the jail, which range from singing and writing competitions to chess tournaments, “give you inspiration” and “make you feel like a winner, like you can be good at something” (Participant 233, personal communication, April 7, 2010). It is important to note that some inmates did not share the same sentiment; however, due to the prevalence of positive comments and the observed rise in NVP, it can be inferred that the MCCF fosters nonviolent beliefs.

The similarity in NVP among the control and experimental groups prompted the question of whether certain types of programs had a greater influence than others. Such a disparity could account for the similarity of NVP amongst the control and experimental groups.

Educational Programming

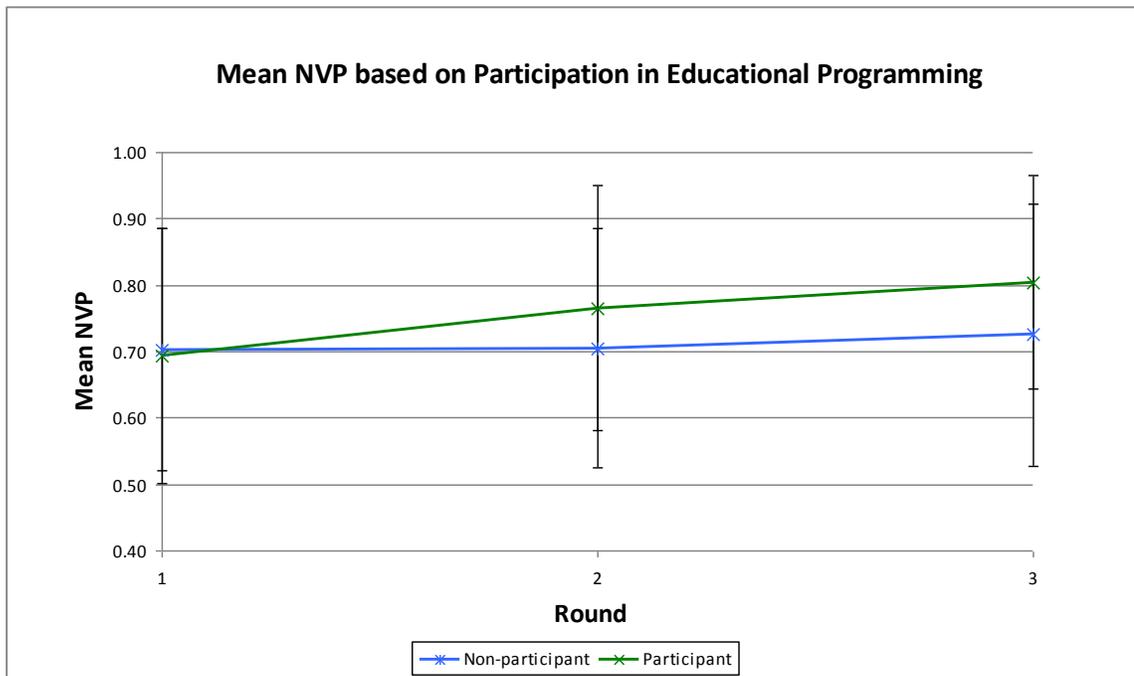


Figure 17. Mean NVP Based on Educational Programming Trend

The results obtained in the comparison of those inmates who were involved in educational programming and those who were not seemed to have the most ideal growth from the first round to the third. At the onset of the study, as can be seen in Figure 17, the two groups had almost identical NVPs but by the third round had a statistically significant difference. Those who were involved with an educational program increased their NVP at a higher rate than those who were not. The literature suggests that education increases nonviolence, and the findings of this study indicate that education increases nonviolent beliefs as well. Although there is no research that directly links attitudes and actions, the results of this study can possibly attest to this connection and perhaps show the overwhelmingly positive effect of educational programming.

Education not only teaches students academic facts but also teaches responsibility and organization. Furthermore, education can broaden perspectives by introducing new concepts through literature and history classes, among others. Based on the rather high number of inmates participating in the GED course, coupled with the self-reporting of many inmates as having no GED or high school diploma, inmates at MCCF, and likely all correctional facilities, are less educated than the general public. The acquisition of new skills or a GED can increase inmates' prospects for the future, which may cause them to reconsider their criminal behavior or violent beliefs. One inmate indicated that, due to his science education, he expected to work at the NIH in a few years (Participant 266, 2010). Regardless of the

sincerity of this remark, it indicates that inmates are thinking about their future and valuing their education.

Despite requests for more one-on-one attention, most inmates indicated that the teachers in education programs were very helpful and provided guidance to ensure that “no one is left behind” (Participant 20, 2010). For many inmates, this may have been the first time that they connected with a teacher and received the help they needed. This attention and guidance may have increased their respect for learning and also made them feel more attached. Rather than feeling discouraged by setbacks, as they may have been in previous educational experiences, it appears that the inmates value their education at the MCCF due to the respect and guidance they receive from the teachers.

Most responses indicated that inmates greatly valued the ability to express themselves in the classroom. One participant indicated that writing exercises in GED allowed him to express himself (personal communication, Participant 5, 2010). It is possible that this freedom of expression alleviated any frustrations he may have had. Several inmates in various other education programs said that their favorite aspect of the program was discussion, which may have had similar results. The ability to express themselves could account for the observed increase in nonviolent beliefs. Learning English through the ESOL program allows Spanish-speaking inmates to better communicate with other inmates and jail staff. Greater communication could improve their well-being as they are able to express their concerns (personal communication, Participant 197, 2010) and also understand the opinions and feelings of others. By better understanding those around them, inmates may be more tolerant

and may not feel anger or resentment towards others. Furthermore, by learning English, inmates may feel more hopeful about succeeding after they are released. When asked about any improvements that they would make to the educational programs, several inmates said that they would like more classroom time and more handouts to practice their skills. This demonstrates their desire to continue learning, an indication of the success of the education program at the MCCF.

Educational Level

The trends in NVPs based on the level of education of inmates was at first surprising. The most educated group showed high NVPs in all rounds which is consistent with the literature. However, those with a high school degree had lower NVPs in all three rounds than those without a high school degree. Furthermore, those with the lowest and highest levels of education showed an increase in NVP from between rounds, while those with a high school degree only stagnated. These trends are best analyzed in conjunction with the educational programming data. Educational programming appears to be effective in reducing violent beliefs, evidenced by the largest increase in NVP scores from round 1 to round 3 of any program group. Furthermore, the programs offered target the inmates with the lowest level of education. One of the largest programs in this category is the GED class which is clearly for inmates who have below a high school education. While those with a higher education level may not need to learn basic skills or increase their respect for education, more stimulating courses would still provide these inmates with a community and an opportunity to interact with individuals of similar educational

experiences. In fact, Participant 332 mentioned the inability for some inmates to continue any sort of formal education: “Once you get your GED they take you out of school, I wanna take college courses” (personal communication, 2010). The Bureau of Justice Statistics published a special report in 2003 that stated that in 1999 only 3.4% of the 2,819 local jails surveyed offered post-secondary classes compared to 60.3% of facilities offering GED classes (Harlow, 2003). It appears that educational programming have benefited the least educated inmates which it targets. The data suggests that programs targeting inmates with a highschool level of education could also benefit from increased education for a variety of reasons including more nonviolent beliefs.

Employment Programming

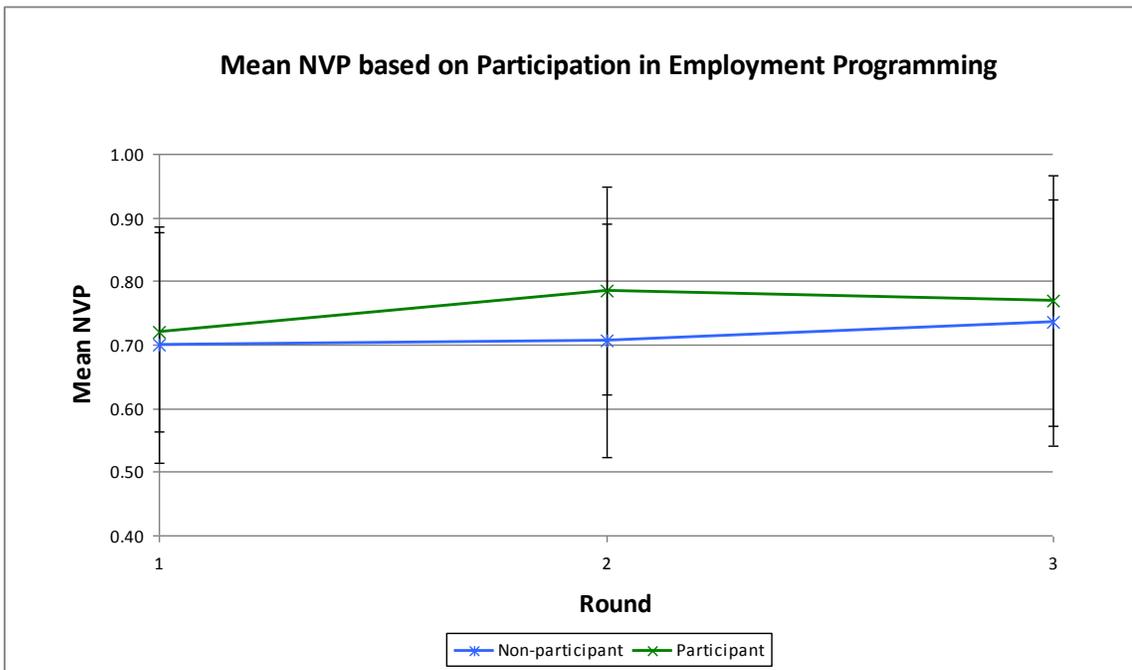


Figure 18. Mean NVP Based on Employment Programming Trend

As with educational programming, the participants involved in employment programming increased the NVP at a higher rate than those who were not involved in such programs. Despite the small decrease in NVP from round 2 to 3 that can possibly be attributed to fluctuations in sample size, it is evident that, as a whole, these programs could have directly influenced a rise in nonviolent beliefs. Participation in employment programs likely provides inmates with a sense of responsibility, motivation, self-confidence, and purpose. By participating in the structured environment of these jobs, inmates are more likely to be responsible and driven to succeed. Participants learn to value hard work and acquire vocational skills that will be useful after release. It is hard to correlate this data with the literature, however, since a comparison of national unemployment rates with violent crime between 2006 and now shows an inverse relationship. In other words, as the unemployment rate climbs (Unemployment rate, 2011), the rate of violent crimes decreases (Mueller, 2010). This difference between the inmates' beliefs and the statistics seems to oppose the team's view that actions are a direct result of beliefs. However, it should be noted that it was not merely the violent crimes that decreased over the last four years, but every other type as defined by the Federal Bureau of Investigation. This could merely imply changes in the judicial system or other unknown societal factors.

Unfortunately, during this study it was often unknown how far along an inmate was in the program in which he participated. Participant 101 indicated completion of the Job Partnership program, saying that the two and a half months he

spent participating “made a huge impact on me,” (2010). In fact, a majority of the responses regarding the employment programs were positive in nature. Inmates believed that these programs were “easy to understand” (Participant 182, 2010), provided “hands-on experience” (Participant 111, 2010) and were thoroughly explained for better comprehension (Participant 182, 2010). Some of the comments made about these programs were not all that positive, including one that mentioned the preferential treatment officers gave based on race (Participant 246, 2010) but it is the belief of the team that these kinds of remarks were subjective in nature and not something that can be taken as certainty.

Although the statistics tend to contradict the notion, sociologist Emile Durkheim also believed that being a part of and contributing to a group of any kind could provide mental, physical and emotional benefits (1973). In order to demonstrate the effects of Durkheim’s theory, researchers at Harvard tested the theory by having participants with severe mental disabilities participate in service-oriented projects. By the end of the study it was determined that the capacities for Durkheim’s theory can be effectively developed through repeated daily routines (Durkheim, 1973). Although this is an extreme case, perhaps the same idea can be applied to the inmates at MCCF and perhaps this is the reason a positive trend can be found in our data.

Rehabilitation Programming

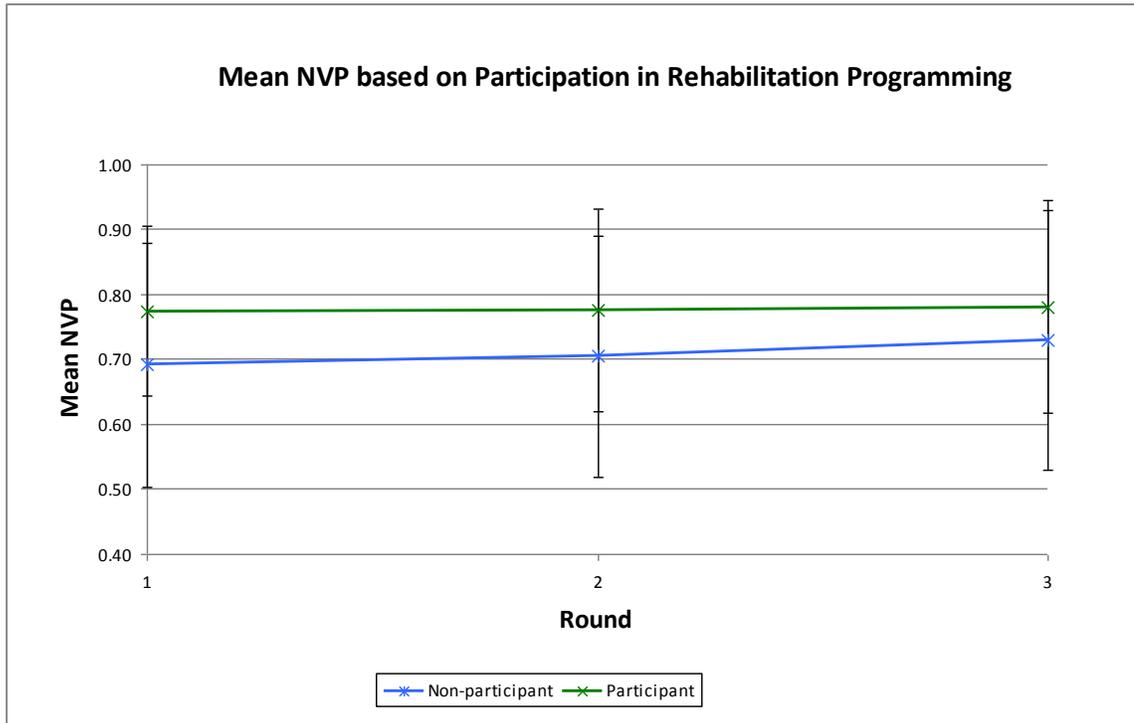


Figure 19. Mean NVP Based Rehabilitation Programming Trend

It is interesting to note the statistically significant difference in NVP between those involved in rehabilitation programs and those who were not. While the maximum mean NVP for non-participants is 0.73, the mean NVP of participants is at least 0.77 in all three rounds. The NVP of participants remains practically constant throughout the study, suggesting that a plateau has been reached. Since the maximum NVP of 0.78 is relatively high, such a plateau is reasonable. The rise in NVP of the non-participant group is likely due to the jail environment, which had an impact on both the experimental and control groups (see Figure 15).

It is more difficult to explain the significant difference between the participant and non-participant groups. The literature suggests that there is a positive correlation between substance abuse and domestic abuse (Department of Health and Human Services, 1999) and the Office of National Drug Control Policy's (ONDCP) report in 2000 claimed that drug use plays a role in many instances for all defined violent crimes (ONDCP Drug Policy Information Clearinghouse, 2006). As reported by the ONDCP, assault is 9 times more likely amongst illicit drug users and theft is 16 times for users. In the case of the study at the MCCF, however, it is not feasible to infer that those with drug or alcohol addictions have less violent beliefs because most of the jail population has a substance abuse problem, including those who did not participate in rehabilitation programs (personal communication Zuckerman, 2010).

It is possible that those who participated in rehabilitation programs were more willing and eager participants, ready and looking for change, than those who abstained. This explanation, however, may not fully account for the disparity in scores. JAS, the most popular rehabilitation program at the MCCF, has a long waitlist, and inmates often are placed on this list for three weeks. This means that some inmates in the non-participant group may have already made the decision to rehabilitate themselves but were still waiting to enter the program.

Also, it is unknown how long the participants had been participating in rehabilitation programs before participating in the study. Therefore, it is possible that many of the participants had been involved in these programs for an extended period of time prior to participating in the study and had already experienced a change in nonviolent beliefs. And so, although self-motivation may play a role in self-selection

and the disparity in NVPs of participants and nonparticipants, there are many other factors which could contribute to enrollment or non-enrollment in JAS.

While self-selection may explain some of the disparity in scores between JAS participants and non-participants, the quality of the program may have also influenced the high NVPs of participants. In fact, JAS received more positive comments in the questionnaires than any other program. When inmates were asked what they would like changed in JAS, more than half of the respondents said that they would not change anything. Almost all comments indicated that the program had succeeded in changing the lives of participants. Participant 165 said, “JAS is a good program for people who honestly want to change!” (2010). Participant 232 said, “This program has changed my life. I am now more open to others, and aware of myself and my surroundings. I can be honest with myself and others, and I have grown to love myself...my favorite activity is exploring myself, and working on myself and my attitudes. I can stop focusing on what [needs] to be changed in the world, and focus on what needs to be changed in me and my attitudes,” (2010). The change in attitudes to which Participant 232 alluded may be responsible for the high NVP observed in participants.

Inmates benefited most from group discussions and especially appreciated that they could learn from their peers and from others who had experienced similar addictions. In fact, one recommendation was to encourage more participation in these discussions (Participant 232, 2010 & Participant 240, 2010); another recommendation was to separate the drug addicts from the alcohol addicts so that the discussions could be more focused (Participant 165, 2010). By participating in the AA and NA

components of the JAS program, inmates received advice (Participant 221, 2010), learned about how other inmates dealt with their addictions (Participant 215, 2010), and gained hope from invited speakers (Participant 235, 2010). As JAS is offered in both English and Spanish, most inmates are not restricted from the discussion experience by their language. Participants who did not participate in JAS but did participate in either AA or NA also expressed their appreciation for group discussions.

The most common recommendation for the JAS program, as provided by inmates, was to better enforce rules in the program and to enforce these rules fairly. This might improve the efficiency of the program for inmates who wish to experience the program to the fullest extent.

Religious Programming

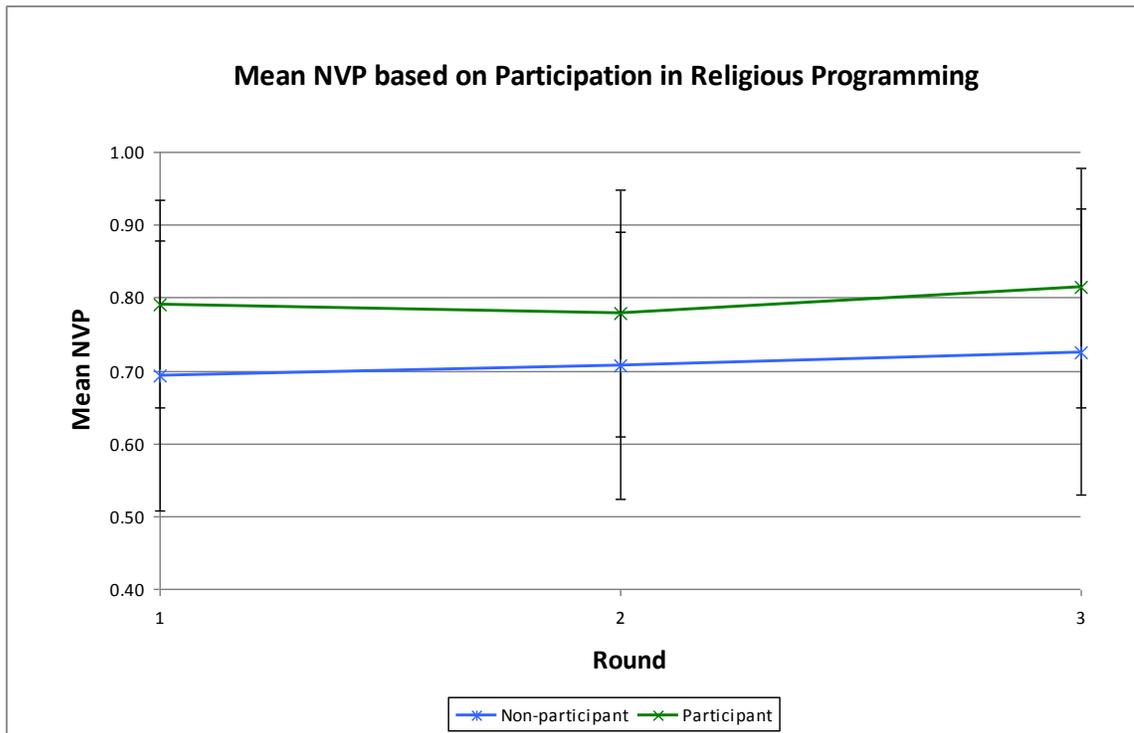


Figure 20. Mean NVP Based on Religious Programming Trend

Dr. Clifford Geertz, an American anthropologist, once described religion as a cultural system. Despite differences between different religions, many are founded on shared moral values of compassion and forgiveness and uphold peace or nonviolence. Religions also share a belief in a higher power which serves as motivation to do good or do what is right. Rather than right and wrong being ambiguous and left to the actor, many religions clearly define right and wrong for their followers.

These values seem to be reflected in the NVPs of religious programming participants which were the highest of any program group in Round 1 and Round 3. A variety of factors may explain the NVPs of religious participants. Given a correlation

between religious beliefs and nonviolent beliefs, self selection may have occurred, funneling those with nonviolent beliefs into religious programs. Another possible factor is that religious participants, whether or not they hold nonviolent beliefs, viewed the NVT answers as right and wrong based on the nonviolent and violent responses respectively. And so, rather than answering the questions as how they would truly react, they answered with a bias toward the answer they felt was right or how they should aspire to act. Another potential factor in explaining the high NVPs is the efficacy of the religious programming.

One point to notice about the experimental group in this part of the analysis was that the number of inmates involved did not vary greatly over the three rounds, whereas the size of the control group changed dramatically. Because it is possible that the experimental group did not change members very much from the first round through the third, the upward trend in NVP could indicate the extremely strong positive effects of religious programming on nonviolent beliefs.

The overall structure of the religious programs seemed to play an important role in the way inmates reacted to them, and possibly in NVP trend. Participant 195 believed that the people who he shared Bible Study time with were “responsible and religious” and Participant 270 thought that the program made a positive impact on how one would approach a situation and even improved the quality of life (Participant 270, 2010). Based on inmates’ responses, all of the religious programs including Bible study, the 12 Step Program, and the Fatherhood Program were positive experiences.

Religious programming also seemed to be based on achieving a sense of community and fostering relationships. Durkheim believed that society and meaningful relationships were “the soul of religion” (1973). This sense of community is reflected in feedback from inmates who reported their favorite parts of Bible Study. Participant 187 likes “being around people with my same views and non-judgmental,” while Participant 331 “enjoyed group discussions on church topics [and] enjoyed most the groups discussions because we can share our opinions” (2010).

Social Programming

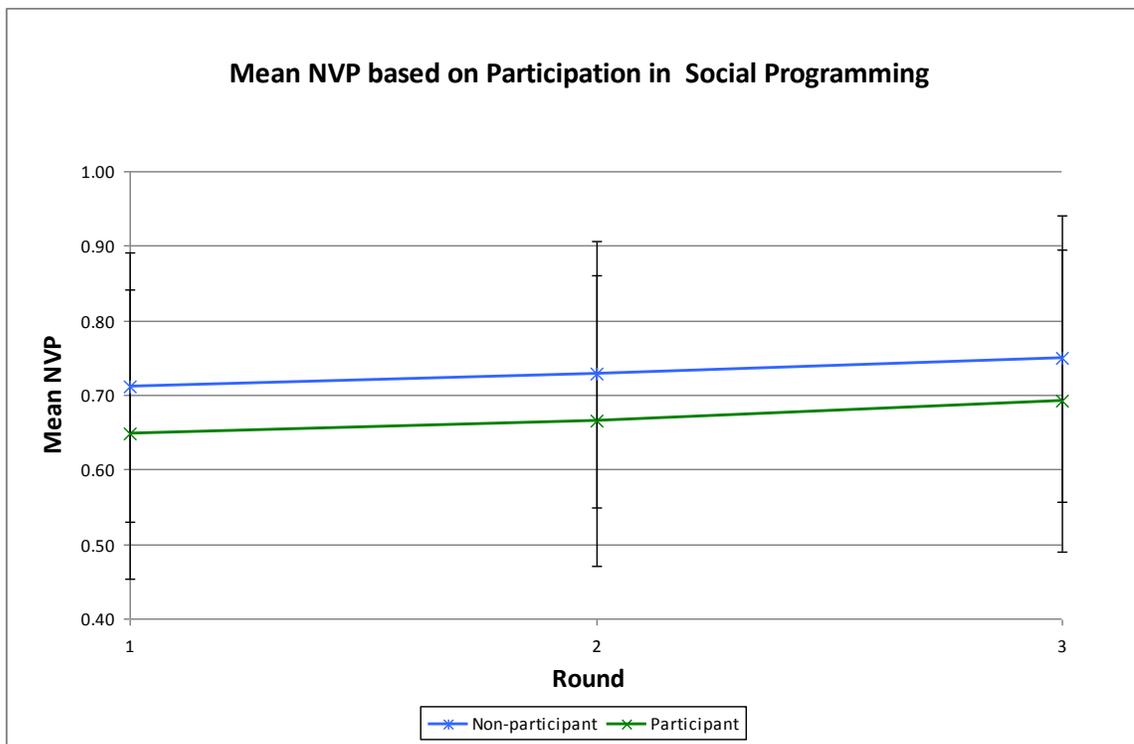


Figure 21. Mean NVP Based on Social Programming Trend

As mentioned previously, the programs included in the social programming grouping are MRT and Conflict Resolution. This program group is the only one which directly addresses and seeks to change violent beliefs. It is also unique in that it is the only case in which program participants scored lower on the NVP than nonparticipants, a consistent trend all three rounds. In fact, those enrolled in social programming scored lower than every program group, control group, or demographic group in the study with the exception of 18-21 year-olds. Inmates' feedback on the MRT and Conflict Resolution programs allow a deeper evaluation of the programs and their effectiveness from the participants' perspectives.

In a written questionnaire after the NVT, inmates were asked to describe their favorite activity from the program. While "recreation time" was listed several times, the most common answer was actually group work. Thirteen inmates wrote that group work was their favorite activity, including responses such as "I like groups because I get a chance to express myself" (Participant 43, 2010) and "Group because it taught me to take responsibility for my actions" (Participant 289, 2010). These responses seem to suggest a sense of community and trust among inmates and an appreciation of being able to share one's stories and experiences in an open environment, a common trend across programs.

The next most common favorite activity reported was self-reflection. So while some inmates appreciated the opportunity to share with their peers, other inmates preferred solitary reflection and assessment. One inmate wrote on his experience self-reflecting: "I like how when you did the book work yourself you start to realize things about yourself that you wouldn't have known if you didn't look back

at your past behavior” (Participant 139, 2010). Another wrote: “The thinking/thought processes that I delve into really gives accurate/honest assessments of myself” (Participant 302, 2010). These comments suggest a transitioning period into self acceptance and accountability which may also translate into a transformation of actions and beliefs.

The questionnaire also asked inmates, “What would you have liked to see done differently in your program(s)?” In other program groups, this question elicited limited and inconsistent feedback. However, the responses among social programming participants had strong, consistent themes: Thirteen inmates, from both MRT and Conflict Resolution, wrote that they wanted the staff to treat them better-- with fairness and respect. Specific answers focusing on the issue of respect included, “Officers treat you better instead of treating you like animals” (Participant 49, 2010), “Better CO’s who treat us inmates like humans rather than animals” (Participant 69, 2010), “Have people running the program who do not just look at us as just criminals” (Participant 152, 2010), “I would like the COs to stop treating us like kids” (Participant 42, 2010), and “It was like we were little kids and that’s what I didn’t like” (Participant 181, 2010). Issues of fairness specifically focused on methods of punishment. Several inmates wrote that they did not want to be punished for other people’s action. One inmate would have liked “fairness in punishing individuals-- not entire group. Accountability needs to become the focal point” (Participant 313, 2010). Disrespectful treatment of inmates could lead to what Robert Merton names the “self-fulfilling prophecy.” Merton understands that “public definitions of a situation become an integral part of that situation and thus affect subsequent developments”

(Merton, 1948). Essentially, if the staff believe that these inmates are not worthy of respectful treatment and treat them like children or animals, then inmates are likely to adopt similar attitudes and beliefs about themselves which could be detrimental to rehabilitation or learning. While these comments are subjective, it is noteworthy that MRT and Conflict Resolution overwhelmingly received the most negative feedback and also produced the lowest NVPs.

If one were to simply analyze the trends in this graph, social programming may be viewed as ineffective since the NVP scores of participants were lower than nonparticipants, and the NVPs of both groups increased at the same 2% rate each round. It is difficult to speculate whether the social programming or the general environment is responsible for increasing NVP scores among this violent population. However, those in social programming have demonstrated critically violent beliefs, more so than most other inmates. Given this population, any positive trend in NVP scores could be considered a success. Even the most violently-minded group adopted more nonviolent beliefs.

Race

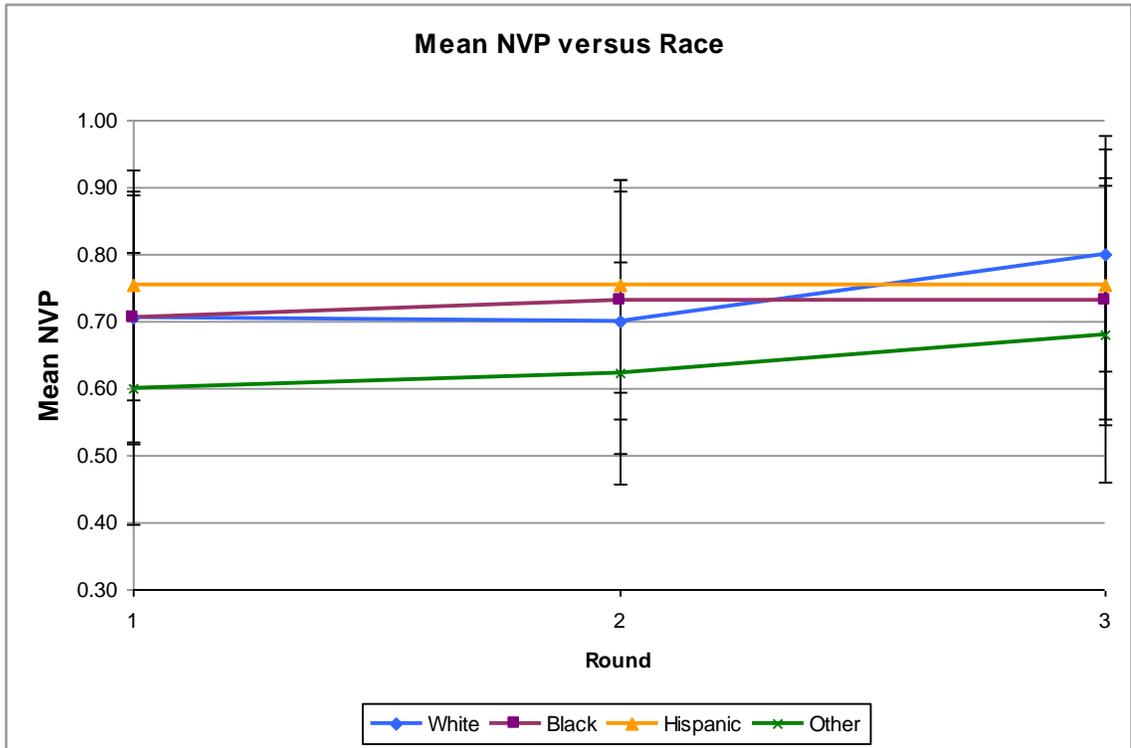


Figure 22. Mean NVP Based on Race Trend

In terms of racial breakdown, the results imply no significant trend between race and nonviolent beliefs. Aside from a significant difference between blacks and Hispanics in the first round of testing, in total the NVP scores for whites, blacks and Hispanics yielded no significant differences throughout the three rounds of data collection, which was unexpected based on what the literature suggests. Research on the relationship between culture and nonviolent beliefs suggests that cultural upbringing plays a significant role in the manner in which individuals act and think about violence. However, the NVP from each round of testing reveals no significant difference between individuals' race and NVP. Although whites seem to increase

greatly in NVP scores in the third round, this increase is not statistically significant. In total, the effect of race on NVP was not shown to correlate in a significant manner, which is an unexpected result.

Although the findings suggest that race does not play a significant role on inmates' nonviolent beliefs, many previous research findings suggest the opposite correlation; that of culture and racial background influencing individuals' nonviolent beliefs quite drastically. Prior to conducting this study, the team expected to find results yielding data to support the assumption that race plays a large role on an individual's violent beliefs. According to a variety of published sources of literature, domestic violence, violent outbursts and street violence are highly correlated with cultural values and norms. Specifically, a 2007 study on domestic violence revealed that domestic violence is prevalent in all ethnic and racial groups, therefore revealing that while some racial groups are portrayed as more violent than others, violence is prevalent across racial boundaries (Grossman & Lundy, 2007). Therefore, while this study reveals that domestic violence is common across all racial backgrounds, the results of the team's research are consistent with Grossman and Lundy's research. Because violence is rather consistent among all cultures, the results of the team's research provide data to support this finding.

The average trend of NVP scores throughout the three rounds of data collection remains the same, except for an apparent rise in round three among all racial groups. This rise in the third round is interesting because it reveals that inmates are increasing in their nonviolent beliefs through the exposure to educational programming. This finding may point to the fact that over time, the jail environment

itself creates its own culture and influences inmates' beliefs. MCCF has its own culture and norms that influence inmates on a daily basis and the more exposure an inmate has to this MCCF culture, the more he or she will be influenced by the MCCF's cultural norms. Therefore, the trend of rising NVP may be due to the fact that with increased time in MCCF and longer departure from an inmate's hometown environment, an inmate's nonviolent beliefs will be influenced and increased based on similar trends of those surrounding him or her. However, the effect of racial background on NVP should be analyzed with a larger population sample and over a longer period of time in order to reveal conclusive data on such an effect.

Age

The correlation between NVP and age is consistent with the literature. The pre-frontal cortex does not fully develop until a person's mid 20s and is responsible for impulse control, mitigating intense emotions, considering the future and weighing consequences and therefore predisposing younger people to more violent behavior (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2011). Hormones are another biological factor which predisposes young people to violence, particularly testosterone which correlates with dominance and aggression. Testosterone levels peak in males at age 16 and gradually decline as men age (similar trends exist for women). Testosterone is directly linked with aggression. These factors are reflected in crime statistics where young men disproportionately commit crimes, especially violent crimes (Dabbs, 1987).

While there are biological factors which predispose young people to violence, there are also environmental and social factors which affect violent behavior and beliefs. Kelly Meyers conducted a study which found that violent media, such as video games, can adversely affect young adults and increase aggressive thoughts and behaviors (2002). The Peace in Prisons research further supports that younger adults are more violently minded than older adults. Knowing that young adults are at at-risk population, perhaps future programming could specifically target young adults and work toward changing youth culture toward a more positive, peaceful model. Despite the risk factors, the data shows that both the young and old participants increase their NVPs between rounds. This further supports the notion that even the most violent-minded and at-risk groups can learn nonviolence.

Sex

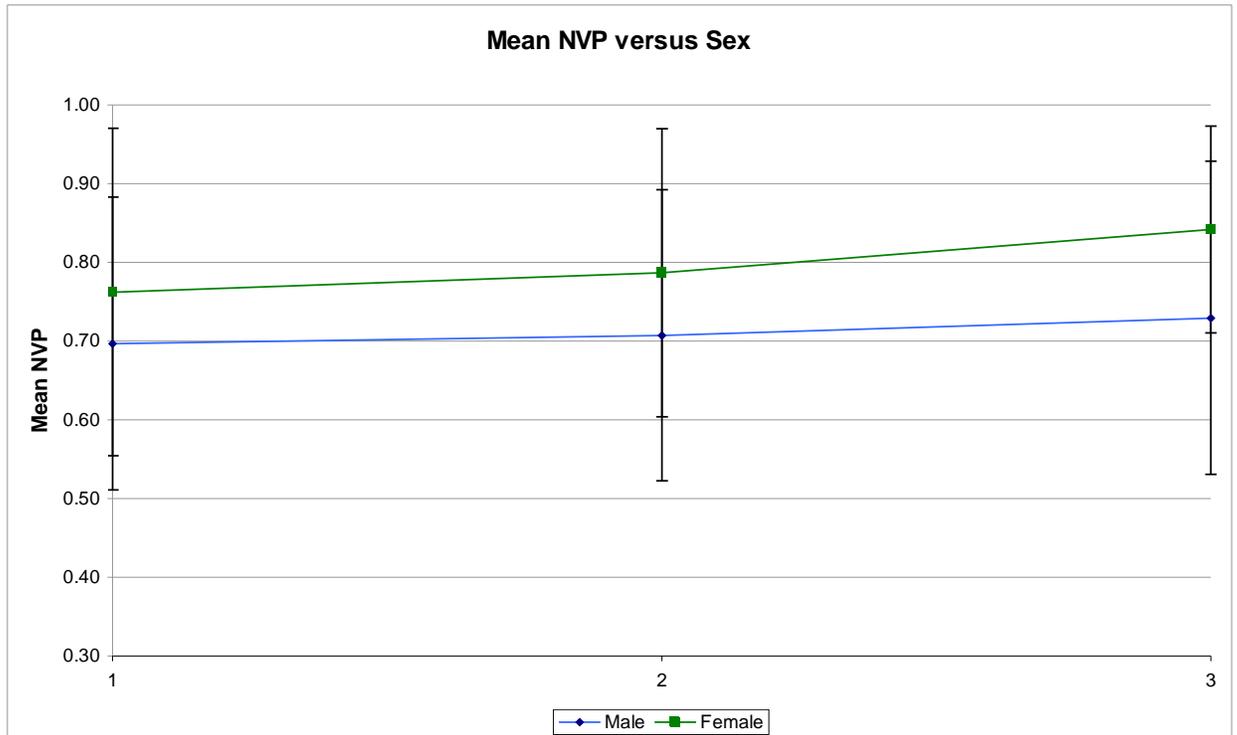


Figure 23. Mean NVP Based on Gender Trend

The data on sex, though not statistically significant, does display interesting trends. In every round, the NVP scores of men and women increased. However, women consistently scored higher on the NVP than men: 6% higher in Round 1, 7% higher in Round 2, and 11% higher in Round 3. While this is a clear trend, it is not statistically significant. This is likely due to the small number of female participants in our study. The small number of women participants reflects the male to female population in the correctional facility, 89% to 11% respectively. These numbers are comparable to the national ratio of the total correctional population, which was 82%

to 18% in 2009 according the Bureau of Justice Statistics. While the small female population makes it difficult to find statistically significant data based on sex, both the trends and the ratio of incarceration have substantial implications.

While some may attribute this trend to biological differences, one must acknowledge the role of social learning theory and the influence of environment on violent beliefs. In the book, “Just Boys Doing Business: Men, Masculinities and Crime,” authors Tim Newburn and, Elizabeth Anne Stanko write “violence is gendered. It is a problem and consequence of masculinity” (Newburn & Stanko, 1994). Today’s culture expects men to be more violent than women, and values toughness and strength in men. Males are taught to embody these masculine ideals from a young age. At the extreme, these masculine ideals are manifested in violent crime: female rates for most violent crimes are substantially lower than men’s rates (Harer & Langan, 2001). So, although both men and women show increasing NVP scores which reflect an ability to learn and adopt more nonviolent beliefs, women show consistently more nonviolent beliefs than men. While some rehabilitative measures may be taken at the facility, this is a much broader cultural problem of masculinity and violence.

Supplemental Analyses

The results from analyzing overall participation in each program category were consistent with those from the trends analyses. While only rehabilitation program participants were statistically different from non-participants, participation in all programs resulted in higher NVP than not participating (Table 5). Obtaining

similar results from two different statistical analyses lends credibility to the results of this study. These results further support the notion that participation in programming is correlated with greater non-violent beliefs. This finding may explain a method by which program participation in other studies is associated with decreased rates of recidivism.

The generalized linear regression model shows that age strongly influenced the non-violent beliefs of an individual in this study. When age was controlled for in the generalized linear regression model, religious and rehabilitation programs were no longer significantly associated with NVP. Furthermore, the Pearson correlation showed that increased age was statistically significant with increased NVP. Age was also positively correlated with participation in rehabilitation and religious programs. This suggests that the prevalence of older individuals in these programs was the driving force for the significantly high NVPs observed in the trend analyses for these two programs.

Limitations

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of this study's research design that resulted from its in vivo nature. Limitations arose not only from the method by which the data was collected but also from the structure of the jail environment.

Limitations in Data Collection

A crucial piece of information that was not collected from participants was the length of time they participated in each of their programs. This information would have provided a better understanding of how much exposure to each program they had received before and during the study. The lack of this knowledge hindered the performance of a longitudinal statistical analysis to assess the impact of programs over time, initially the focus of the study.

Another limitation was the classification of program involvement. This was based on responses to the request “Please list any programs or classes you are currently enrolled in, if any.” Based on the wording of the request, it was assumed that no response meant that the participant was not involved in any program. However, a blank response could also be attributed to not seeing the statement or not wanting to answer.

In addition, demographic information was not collected from most participants during the first round of data collection, and several participants abstained from reporting demographic information in all three rounds. In the cases where this information was reported in some, but not all, of the three rounds, the information reported in the other rounds was imputed. However, this was not possible for those inmates who only participated in the first round or for those who did not offer demographic information in any of the rounds. Due to the nature of a generalized logistic model (GLM), those participants without any demographic information could not be included in the GLM. This dramatically reduced the sample size.

Another confounding variable was the separation of Spanish speakers from the rest of the participants during data collection. Inmates who were more comfortable with the Spanish language received instructions and filled out the survey and questionnaire in a small room that was separate from the other inmates. This intimate environment may have caused the Spanish-speaking inmates to take the test more seriously and understand the project better, while also minimizing distractions. This discrepancy between testing environments may have influenced the scores.

Limitations due to Jail Environment

As well as flaws in the data collection, there were a variety of uncontrollable factors due to the nature of a jail environment. The length of the study is also a limitation. While data collection was initially designed to extend for six months with a possible second trial, this was implausible in a jail due to the invasive nature of the data collection. Despite the team's preparedness to collect data over a longer period of time, budget cuts within the facility also prevented a repeat of data collection, as several of the programs studied were removed from the facility.

Another unavoidable circumstance was the attrition of participants. Due to the function of the jail as a short-term holding facility, several of the inmates were either released or transferred before the completion of the study. Other inmates were unavailable on the second or third day of data collection due to court dates or other responsibilities.

Seating arrangements during data collection is also a potential limitation.

Participants were seated next to each other at group tables; the proximity to other participants may have influenced their answers or caused distractions. However, due to the set-up of the pod and the number of participants in each pod, it was not possible to seat participants in any other manner. Stemming from this issue is the fact that it is not certain if inmates answered the questions seriously and honestly; however, this is a concern for any in vivo study. Since participants were obtained on a volunteer basis, self-selection bias is another potential limitation. While the male to female ratio of the research sample is fairly representative of the MCCF population, the low number of female participants limits the generalizability of the findings.

Despite the limitations to the study, there are a variety of inferences to be made from the findings and much basis for future research. It is important to address the limitations of this study in future attempts to perform similar research.

Chapter 6: Recommendations and Conclusion

Recommendations

As previously mentioned, the field of literature on the subject addressed by this study is woefully underdeveloped. This fact, in addition to the limitations of the study, puts the team in an advantageous position for making recommendations for further research. These recommendations will be organized with respect to some of the independent variables examined in the study. It is worth mentioning at the outset that all suggestions for further studies have the potential to be conducted

longitudinally, over a greater length of time that the team was able to utilize for this study and could investigate differing results between jails and prisons. Also, any of these research efforts could examine the differences in beliefs present in inmates with respect to the offense for which the individuals were incarcerated. These factors can add great depth to any study addressing one of the subject areas mentioned below.

The findings disclosed above raise numerous questions for further study. One possible extension would be the completion of a longitudinal study that traced individuals of a similar demographic makeup to this study who completed their GED during incarceration versus individuals with an equivalent degree in free society with regard to future violent acts. Another issue for further study could be an examination of various teaching styles on inmates' violent beliefs. On the anonymous feedback forms provided to inmates, several participants discussed the teaching style implemented in particular classes as being very beneficial or a major restriction on the efficacy of the program.

The time frame for this study was too short to examine the effects of rehabilitation in jail on long term recidivism, though such issues could be addressed by a longitudinal study over a longer period of observation. A follow-up study could employ a more qualitative approach in which researchers follow inmates after their release and document recidivism and lifestyle among inmates who took the NVT to correlate the concept of reform of violent beliefs with future recidivism. After all, the ultimate goal of jail-based rehabilitation is to decrease recidivism rates and to help make inmates contributing members of society in the future. Of course, similar studies could be performed in other facilities. By doing this, the participant pool

could be expanded and both the studies examined here as well as new ones in other facilities could be tested with greater reliability. The commonalities of similar, effective studies could even be used to develop new programs in the future. With regard to time constraints, the time frame of rehabilitative treatment could be manipulated in future studies. Most literature suggests that the rehabilitation process is rather lengthy and requires significant professional treatment. As a result, the apparent plateau seen for the rehabilitative programs in this study may actually be stagnant change that would only appear if a longer time series were used in testing as a future study could execute.

Finally, a variation of this study could be performed with more compulsory participation. A desire to participate in programs and change oneself could actually be a confounding variable that contributes to variances in violent beliefs and attitudes. Consequently, a study with individuals who were placed in programs by involuntary means—such as a court order—could help researchers study the true distinctions between reform as a result of participation in programs rather than the mere structure of an incarcerated environment.

Another angle that could be taken by future research could examine the nature of religious programming in correctional facilities. Such a study could explore how programs geared toward different religions affect inmates' beliefs. This effort has the potential to generate significant and interesting results regarding the nature of the teachings of various religions as they are received by inmates in the correctional system. Other factors that may be explored include the frequency of exposure to religious materials and discussions, as well as the content of the programs. For

example, some programs are geared more toward fatherhood, but how these programs affected participants' beliefs regarding violence as compared to programs that focus more on the study of religious texts would be a fruitful area of research. In a similar vein, many religious programs have a greater emphasis on the ethics taught by a particular religion and grant less importance to aspects of faith than others. Observing potential differences among such programs is yet another route that could be taken.

Examining age more specifically as it relates to violent beliefs in inmates provides a wealth of topics for further investigation. Scholarly literature suggests that today's youth represents a more violent population than the youths of generations past. A study conducted on large samples of inmates of varying age groups from different regions of the country could explore the possibility of a generational shift in the perception of violence among adolescents and young adults in today's changing world. Such a study could be taken further in order to try to identify potential causes of any differences found between different age groups, such as the influence of 24-hour news media and desensitization to violence through cinema and video games.

Additionally, researchers could investigate inmates in juvenile facilities, or solely the juvenile populations of other facilities, in order to further determine if there are critical ages at which adolescents are the most impressionable and thus the most susceptible to significant alterations in their beliefs regarding violence.

There are several other recommendations for further research that can be made outside of those related to specific independent variables in this study. One such effort could consider differences in the physical structure of various facilities to ascertain whether or not it can play a role in the development of inmates' beliefs

regarding violence. The “pod” structure of MCCF is not universally present in correctional facilities nationwide, thus an analysis of differing living situations in facilities across the country could provide compelling evidence for greater use of a particular arrangement. Similarly, living-learning programs provided in pod-like living structures are often costly, though research validating their efficacy could provide important justification for more widespread implementation of such programs. Finally, a research effort could inquire into any potential differences in the beliefs held by those inmates who are members of gangs and those who are not. These findings could help practitioners guide certain inmates to more appropriate programming to treat their specific outlook and needs. While this list is by no means exhaustive, it provides a foundation upon which further research can be built.

Conclusion

The attenuation of violent beliefs runs far deeper than reform in the programs available in correctional facilities alone. However, Peace in Prisons has made an important first step in the long process of learning more about how these programs affect their participants. Thus, the study has met its original objectives and can readily reject the null hypothesis. There was a measurable change in the beliefs of the study’s participants over the course of data collection, as reflected in the results above. These data will be a valuable addition to a currently sparse field. Given that this area of research is poorly supplemented with literature, this study is probative and exploratory in nature. As such, the benefits and contributions of this work lie in the heuristic value that can be derived from the results. This effort was designed to help

develop pertinent questions for the future, rather than answer a great deal of them. In this respect, the team's efforts were a success. This seminal study provides a springboard for further research into a field in great need of new and creative attention, both academic and public, in order to address some of today's defining problems.

Appendices

Appendix A: Information and Consent Form:

Project Title	<i>Peace in Prisons</i>
Why is this research being done?	<i>This research project is being conducted by Team Peace in Prisons of the Gemstone Program at the University of Maryland, College Park. We are inviting you to participate in this research because you are an inmate in the Montgomery County Correctional System. The purpose of this research is to measure prisoner attitudes towards violence over a period of time.</i>
What will I be asked to do?	<i>If you choose to participate, you will either be part of our control group (the group that did not participate in any classes) or our experimental group (the group that did participate in classes). Both groups will be asked to complete the Nonviolence Test on two or more separate occasions. The first test will be given</i>

now. You will take the test again in 30 days, and a third time in 60 days if you are still incarcerated. If you are a part of the experimental group, your test will be accompanied by a team-written questionnaire on which you will be able to provide written feedback about your various classes. The control group will not have to fill out the questionnaire section, since they cannot provide feedback about classes. Your decision to participate will not affect your length of sentence, your parole, or any other aspect of your incarceration.

What about confidentiality?

Your personal information will remain confidential. Your name and prisoner identification number will not be used on any published materials, nor in any statistical manner. Instead, you will be assigned a random identification code to be used in data collection and publication. Due to our legal responsibilities as researchers, we reserve the right to share your information with the University or the government if, and only if, you are in immediate physical danger, or if you are putting others in immediate physical danger.

What are the risks of this

There are no anticipated psychological, emotional or

research? *physical risks involved with participating in this research. However, you do not have to answer any question you do not wish to answer.*

What are the benefits of this research? *The goal of this research is to discover trends in correctional facility educational programs and the attitudes of inmates towards violence. We hope that, as a result of this study, the correctional system can benefit by creating a more effective educational process, to better the lives of inmates enrolled in these programs.*

Do I have to be in this research? *Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take partake in it.*

Can I stop participating at any time? *If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits for which you otherwise qualify.*

Your decision to participate or not participate in this research project will not affect the length of your sentence, your parole, or any other aspect of your incarceration.

Also, if you decide to participate and then leave the study before it is over, that will not affect the length of your sentence, your parole, or any other aspect of your incarceration.

What if I have questions?

This research is being conducted by Team Peace in Prisons of the Gemstone Program at the University of Maryland, College Park. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact the team at PeaceinPrisons@gmail.com. Written questions and concerns can also be addressed to 2215 LeFrak Hall, College Park, MD20742.

This research has been reviewed according to the University of Maryland, College Park IRB procedures for research involving human participants.

Statement of Age of Subject and Consent
Your signature indicates that:
you are at least 18 years of age;
the research has been explained to you;
your questions have been answered; and
you freely and voluntarily choose to participate in this research endeavor.

Signature and Date

NAME OF SUBJECT

SIGNATURE OF SUBJECT

DATE

Information and Consent Form (Spanish):

Título del proyecto

Peace In Prisons

Motivo de este estudio

Este estudio lo realiza el equipo “Peace in Prisons” (Paz en las cárceles) del Programa Gemstone de la Universidad de Maryland, College Park. Le estamos invitando a participar en este estudio porque usted es un preso en el Sistema Correccional del Condado de Montgomery. El estudio tiene por finalidad medir las actitudes de los presos hacia la violencia a lo largo de un período de tiempo.

¿Qué se me pedirá que haga?

Se le va a pedir que complete la prueba de no violencia en dos ocasiones diferentes, la primera ahora y la segunda dentro de seis meses.

¿Y la confidencialidad?

Su información personal permanecerá confidencial. Su nombre y número de identificación de preso no se van a utilizar en ningún material que se publique y tampoco en

ninguna manera estadística. En cambio, se le asignará a usted un código de identificación escogido al azar que se va a usar en la recopilación y publicación de datos.

Su información podrá ser compartida con la universidad o con el gobierno en caso de peligro físico, debido a obligaciones legales de los investigadores.

¿Tiene riesgos este estudio?

No se prevé que la participación en este estudio tenga riesgos psicológicos, emocionales ni físicos.

¿Qué beneficios tiene este estudio?

Este estudio tiene por objeto descubrir tendencias en los programas de educación impartidos en las instalaciones correccionales y las actitudes de los presos hacia la violencia. Esperamos que, como resultado de este estudio, el sistema correccional se pueda beneficiar formulando un proceso educativo más eficaz, para mejorar las vidas de los presos inscritos en aquellos programas.

¿Tengo que tomar parte en este estudio?

Su participación en este estudio es totalmente voluntaria. Usted puede decidir no participar en el mismo. Si decide participar, puede dejar de participar en cualquier momento. Si decide no participar en el estudio o deja de participar en cualquier momento, no se le aplicará ningún castigo ni perderá ningún beneficio para el que califique de otra manera.

¿Puedo dejar de participar en cualquier momento?

Su decisión de participar o no participar en este proyecto de investigación no va a afectar la duración de su sentencia, su libertad condicional (“parole”) y ningún otro aspecto de su encarcelamiento.

Además, si decide participar y luego abandona este estudio antes de que el mismo finalice, eso tampoco va a afectar la duración de su sentencia, su libertad condicional (“parole”) y ningún otro aspecto de su encarcelamiento.

¿Y si tengo preguntas?

Este estudio lo realiza el equipo “Peace in Prisons” (Paz en las cárceles) del Programa Gemstone de la Universidad de Maryland,

College Park. Si tiene alguna pregunta sobre el estudio de investigación, por favor comuníquese con el equipo en PeaceinPrisons@gmail.com. También se pueden enviar preguntas y preocupaciones por escrito a 2215 LeFrak Hall, College Park, MD20742.

Este estudio ha sido revisado de conformidad con los procedimientos de la Junta de Revisión Interna de la Universidad de Maryland, College Park para investigaciones en las que participan seres humanos.

Declaración de edad de la persona y Consentimiento

Su firma indica que:

usted tiene por lo menos 18 años de edad;
se le ha explicado el estudio de investigación;
se le ha respondido a sus preguntas y
usted decidió participar en este estudio por propia decisión y en forma voluntaria.

Firma y fecha

NOMBRE DE LA PERSONA

FIRMA DE LA PERSONA

FECHA

Appendix B: Team Presentation Script

Hi, my name is _____. I'm a member of an undergraduate research team at the University of Maryland. We're here because we're interested in your attitudes toward violence and how your attitudes have or have not changed during your incarceration. Specifically, we want to find out if the programs offered here have affected your attitudes, and which programs have been most effective. Your participation is essential to the success of our study, and could be essential in improving programs in this and other correctional facilities. Participating is completely voluntary, and your responses will remain confidential. Your participation in this study will not affect the length or nature of your incarceration. The study will consist of completing a short consent form and survey today. You'll then be asked to complete a short questionnaire and the same survey once more in 30 days and 60 days. Again, we really appreciate your help, as our research really depends on your honest cooperation. Now I'll hand out the consent form, which you can read through, and sign if you are willing to participate in our study. Those who signed will then be given our survey to complete. Any questions?

[answer questions]

Now here are the consent forms.

[hand out consent forms, collect consent forms]

Thank you. For those willing to participate, here are the surveys. It should take no more than 30 minutes, but you'll have up to an hour.

[hand out surveys to those who signed consent forms, collect surveys]

Alright, we'll be back in 30 days to re-administer the survey. Thank you all again for helping with our research!

Team Presentation Script (Spanish)

Hola, me llamo _____. Soy miembro de un equipo de investigación estudiantil a la Universidad de Maryland. Estamos aquí porque estamos interesados en tus actitudes con respecto a la violencia y cómo tus actitudes han cambiado o no durante tu encarcelación. Más específicamente, queremos averiguar si los programas y clases ofrecidos aquí han afectado tus actitudes, y cuáles programas han sido lo más efectivos. Tu participación es esencial al éxito de nuestro estudio y puede ser esencial en mejorar programas en este cárcel y otros. Tu participación es completamente voluntario y tus respuestas serán confidenciales. El estudio hoy consiste en completar una hoja de consentimiento breve y una encuesta. Les preguntaremos a completar un cuestionario breve y la misma encuesta otra vez en treinta y sesenta días. Les agradecemos porque nuestro estudio depende en tu cooperación honesto. Ahora distribuyo la hoja de consentimiento que pueden leer y firmar si quieren participar en nuestro estudio. Los que han firmado la hoja recibirán la encuesta. Hay preguntas?

[answer questions]

Aquí son las hojas de consentimiento.

[hand out consent forms, collect consent forms]

Gracias. Para los que quieren participar, aquí son las encuestas. No deben durar más treinta minutos, pero tienen una hora.

[hand out surveys to those who signed consent forms, collect surveys]

Bueno. Volveremos en treinta días para darles otra vez la encuesta. Mil gracias para tu ayuda!

Appendix C: The Nonviolence Test (NVT)

Please circle the number corresponding to the choice you think most appropriately matches your response to the situation.

1. A car driving through a parking lot splashes water on you. You feel like
 - a. making him apologize and pay for damages
 - b. telling him to be more careful in the future.
2. The more I think of how bad someone's actions or thoughts are
 - a. the more I try to understand how to get along with that person
 - b. the more I get irritated and want to tell that person off.
3. My reaction to groups is
 - a. I like the feeling of belonging to a social group
 - b. for some reason I really don't like groups.
4. If someone keeps bothering me even though I ask him/her to stop, I will
 - a. lose control
 - b. control myself.
5. I think of myself first of all as
 - a. an individual person
 - b. a social being responsible to society and those like me.
6. When a stranger hurts me I believe
 - a. forgive and forget is the best policy
 - b. a tooth for a tooth and an eye for an eye is the best policy.
7. Workers on an unlawful strike should be
 - a. approached and a compromise should be negotiated
 - b. fired without notice.
8. Being different from my friends
 - a. makes me feel uncomfortable
 - b. does not bother me; I like it.
9. When someone is rude to me I want to
 - a. be rude back to that person
 - b. overcome the temptation to be rude.
10. I am inspired by
 - a. ideas
 - b. some people.
11. If I were in charge and some high officials were found guilty of taking bribes, I would
 - a. pardon them with minimum punishment if they apologized
 - b. publicly humiliate and physically punish these people.
12. If someone breaks something that belongs to me

- a. I will probably become enraged
 - b. I understand that accidents happen.
13. I consider myself to
- a. be like everyone else
 - b. be different from everyone else.
14. Judgments about me
- a. should be made on my own merits
 - b. should be made according to the people I associate with.
15. Lawbreakers must be
- a. brought to justice, yet be dealt with mercifully
 - b. severely punished.
16. I am
- a. loyal
 - b. independent.
17. A boy was very mischievous and would beat up other boys. I would
- a. kick him out of the group
 - b. try to change his habits.
18. I am responsible to
- a. other people, those I love, and those who depend on me
 - b. myself, my ideals, and my ambitions.
19. When I hold a poor opinion of a person
- a. I do not try to hide the way I feel
 - b. I try to hide my feelings and improve them without their knowing.
20. Criminals that are physically abused
- a. deserve it
 - b. should not be abused.
21. My reaction to crowds is
- a. I dislike crowds
 - b. I enjoy the excitement of crowds.
22. If an employee refused to follow orders I would
- a. threaten to fire him unless he did what he was told
 - b. persuade him to do what he was told.
23. I admire
- a. no one very much
 - b. some people, and would not question their opinion.
24. I see myself as
- a. an important person
 - b. a social person.
25. A person who commits a murder should be
- a. placed in a rehabilitation program and given minimum punishment
 - b. put on death row.
26. I like to
- a. get to know people
 - b. be alone.
27. Governments should deal with rebellious people by
- a. punishing them

- b. treating them in a humane way.
- 28. I like a person
 - a. to say he/she is a good person provided they are
 - b. to be modest, even if they are good.
- 29. When someone does something bad to me
 - a. I will get back at them if I can, just because of the principle of the matter
 - b. I do not get back at them, but try to show them their mistakes.
- 30. I have confidence in
 - a. myself
 - b. things I and others like me represent.
- 31. When a person makes fun of me, I
 - a. try to convince the person that it is not always good to make fun of others
 - b. retaliate.
- 32. I live for
 - a. the good of everyone else
 - b. myself.
- 33. If someone criticizes me, I
 - a. do not criticize them back; rather, I defend myself with good arguments
 - b. I find it is best to criticize the person back.
- 34. Sex crimes such as rape and attacks on children deserve
 - a. imprisonment and psychiatric care
 - b. more than mere imprisonment, such criminals ought to be physically punished or worse.
- 35. When a friend does me a favor
 - a. I feel that I must return the favor
 - b. I do not feel that I must return the favor.
- 36. Sometimes, when my parents scolded me I
 - a. showed resentment
 - b. tried to reason with myself to understand why they acted as they did.
- 37. I like to
 - a. give gifts
 - b. receive gifts.
- 38. When I am disturbed by another, say, while studying,
 - a. my first reaction will be to get angry
 - b. I will explain to the person I do not want to be bothered.
- 39. The majority of my schoolwork involves
 - a. reading
 - b. writing.
- 40. If a person skips me in line
 - a. I will pass him and stand ahead of him
 - b. I will persuade him to go back.
- 41. When I was younger
 - a. I did not care to be a member of a crowd or gang

- b. I was always a follower.
- 42. If students misbehave in school, the teachers should
 - a. punish them as needed
 - b. think of things they may have done to cause the behavior.
- 43. If a teacher grades me unfairly I will
 - a. complain to my friends
 - b. seek an explanation.
- 44. If someone harms my family, and me I will wait for an opportunity to
 - a. retaliate
 - b. make them understand what they did.
- 45. if my friend has a problem I would like to
 - a. counsel that friend on his problem
 - b. recommend that my friend see a counselor.
- 46. I like
 - a. team sports
 - b. individual sports
- 47. If a judge were found guilty of corruption, I would recommend
 - a. a stronger penalty for him than for a common citizen
 - b. the same penalty for him as for a common citizen.
- 48. I am
 - a. forgetful
 - b. organized
- 49. Our nation's history is glorified by
 - a. great fighters and conquerors
 - b. great writers and social reformers.
- 50. I follow
 - a. ethical standards
 - b. my conscience.
- 51. All citizens should be allowed to carry weapons
 - a. only when there is a war
 - b. to defend themselves.
- 52. My attitude about groups is
 - a. I do not join groups
 - b. I am proud to be in some groups.
- 53. If a teacher is involved in a sex crime involving a student, s/he should be given
 - a. harsher punishment than usual to set an example for other teachers
 - b. the same treatment as someone who was not a teacher.
- 54. I look forward to social events with
 - a. parents and relatives
 - b. friends and neighbors.
- 55. I like instructions to be
 - a. general
 - b. specific.
- 56. A good social system needs
 - a. rugged and tough discipline

- b. people who can tolerate others.
57. A clergyman who is involved in immoral behavior should
- a. be allowed to return to his position in the church after he repents and changes his ways
 - b. never be allowed to return to his position in the church.
58. I appreciate
- a. music
 - b. art.
59. When I see a parade go by I
- a. enjoy watching it but have no desire to be in it
 - b. wish I could be in it.
60. When I am in a bad mood I
- a. feel like smashing things
 - b. relax and tell myself things will get better.
61. People who drink and drive should
- a. be imprisoned and severely fined
 - b. undergo counseling and education on the effects of drugs and drug abuse.
62. I would rather watch
- a. mystery movies
 - b. humorous movies.
63. If someone I know is engaging in deviant behavior I feel I should
- a. tell him that what he is doing is wrong, then talk him out of doing it
 - b. let him do what he wants as long as I am not affected.
64. If a country is supporting terrorist acts, I think the country should be
- a. attacked by military action until these acts end
 - b. persuaded through negotiations to withdraw their support of terrorism.
65. People who try to force their religious beliefs on others should be
- a. ignored until they are ready to listen to others' beliefs
 - b. asked to leave and threatened if they refuse to go.

The Nonviolence Test (Spanish)

Prueba de la no-violencia

1. Un carro que pasa por un estacionamiento le salpica agua. Usted tiene ganas de
 - a. hacerle pedir disculpas y que le pague los daños
 - b. decirle que tenga más cuidado en el futuro.
2. Cuanto más pienso lo malas que son las acciones o los pensamientos de una persona
 - a. más trato de entender de qué manera me puedo llevar bien con esa persona
 - b. más me irrito y quiero decirle a esa persona que se vaya.
3. Mi reacción ante los grupos es
 - a. me gusta la sensación de pertenecer a un grupo social
 - b. por alguna razón los grupos no me gustan.
4. Si alguien sigue molestándome a pesar de que yo le haya pedido que deje de hacerlo,
 - a. perderé el control de mí mismo
 - b. me controlaré.
5. Pienso principalmente que soy
 - a. una persona individual
 - b. un ser social responsable ante la sociedad y mis semejantes.
6. Cuando un extraño me hace daño, pienso que

- a. perdonar y olvidar es lo mejor
 - b. “ojo por ojo y diente por diente” es lo mejor.
7. Ante trabajadores en una huelga declarada ilegal es necesario
- a. acercarse a ellos y negociar una solución de compromiso
 - b. echarlos sin aviso previo.
8. Ser diferente de mis amigos
- a. me hace sentir incómodo
 - b. no me molesta, me gusta.
9. Cuando alguien se comporta en modo grosero conmigo, yo quiero
- a. ser grosero con esa persona
 - b. sobreponerme a la tentación de comportarme en modo grosero.
10. Me siento inspirado por
- a. las ideas
 - b. algunas personas.
11. Si yo estuviera al mando de un equipo y se comprobara que algunos altos funcionarios son culpables de aceptar sobornos, yo
- a. los perdonaría con un castigo leve si se disculpan
 - b. humillaría públicamente y castigaría físicamente a esas personas.
12. Si alguien rompe algo que me pertenece
- a. probablemente yo me enfade
 - b. entiendo que pueden suceder accidentes.
13. Me considero
- a. igual al resto de la gente

- b. diferente del resto de la gente.
14. Los juicios acerca de mi persona
- a. se deberían emitir sobre la base de mis propios méritos
 - b. se deberían emitir sobre la base de las personas con quienes me asocio.
15. Quienes violan la ley deben
- a. ser llevados ante la justicia, pero se los debe tratar compasivamente
 - b. ser castigados severamente.
16. Soy
- a. leal
 - b. independiente.
17. Un muchacho se comporta mal y pega a otros muchachos. Yo
- a. lo echaría del grupo
 - b. trataría de cambiar su comportamiento.
18. Soy responsable ante
- a. otras personas, las personas que quiero y quienes dependen de mí
 - b. mí mismo, mis ideales y mis ambiciones.
19. Cuando tengo una mala opinión de alguien
- a. no trato de ocultar mi opinión
 - b. trato de ocultar mi opinión y mejorarla sin que esa persona se dé cuenta.
20. Los criminales a quienes se les hace objeto de abuso físico
- a. se lo merecen
 - b. no deberían ser objeto de abuso.
21. Mi reacción ante las multitudes es la siguiente:

- a. no me gustan las multitudes
 - b. me gusta el bullicio de las multitudes.
22. Si un empleado se rehusara a obedecer órdenes, yo
- a. lo amenazaría con despedirlo a menos que haga lo que se le ordena
 - b. lo convencería de que haga lo que se le ordena.
23. Yo
- a. en realidad no admiro mucho a nadie
 - b. admiro a algunas personas y no cuestionaría sus opiniones.
24. Me considero
- a. una persona importante
 - b. una persona sociable.
25. Una persona que comete un asesinato debería
- a. ser colocada en un programa de rehabilitación y recibir un castigo mínimo
 - b. ser condenada a muerte.
26. Me gusta
- a. llegar a conocer a las personas
 - b. estar solo.
27. Los gobiernos deberían enfrentar a las personas rebeldes
- a. castigándolas
 - b. tratándolas con bondad.
28. Me gusta que una persona
- a. diga que es una buena persona, a condición de que lo sea
 - b. sea modesta, incluso si es buena.

29. Cuando alguien me hace algo malo
- a. cometo una venganza si puedo, simplemente por principio
 - b. no le retribuyo su mal tratamiento, pero trato de mostrarle sus errores.
30. Tengo confianza en
- a. mí mismo
 - b. las cosas que yo y los demás que son como yo representamos.
31. Cuando alguien se burla de mí, yo
- a. trato de convencerlo de que no siempre está bien burlarse de los demás
 - b. cometo una venganza.
32. Yo vivo para
- a. hacer el bien a los demás
 - b. mí mismo.
33. Si alguien me critica, yo
- a. no lo critico, sino que me defiendo con buenos argumentos
 - b. considero que lo mejor es criticar a esa persona.
34. Los delitos sexuales como las violaciones, y los ataques a niños
- a. merecen encarcelamiento y atención psiquiátrica
 - b. más que el mero encarcelamiento, esos criminales deberían recibir un castigo físico o algo aún peor.
35. Cuando un amigo me hace un favor
- a. pienso que debo retribuirle el favor
 - b. no pienso que deba retribuirle el favor.
36. A veces, cuando mis padres me retaban, yo

a. mostraba resentimiento

b. trataba de razonar conmigo mismo para entender por qué actuaban de esa manera.

37. Me gusta

a. dar regalos

b. recibir regalos.

38. Si alguien me molesta, por ejemplo cuando estoy estudiando,

a. mi primera reacción es enojarme

b. le explico a esa persona que no quiero que me molesten.

39. La mayor parte de mi trabajo escolar supone

a. leer

b. escribir.

40. Si una persona se salta mi lugar y se coloca delante de mí en una fila,

a. yo la paso y me paro delante de ella

b. trataré de convencerla de que vuelva a su lugar.

41. Cuando yo era más joven

a. no me interesaba ser miembro de una multitud o una pandilla

b. yo siempre seguía a los otros.

42. Si los estudiantes se portan mal en la escuela, los maestros deberían

a. castigarlos según sea necesario

b. pensar qué pueden haber hecho ellos para provocar ese comportamiento en los estudiantes.

43. Si un maestro me pone una nota injusta, yo

- a. me quejo delante de mis amigos
 - b. pido una explicación.
44. Si alguien causa daño a mi familia y a mí, yo espero la oportunidad de
- a. vengarme
 - b. hacerle entender a esa persona lo que hizo.
45. Si mi amigo tiene un problema, me gustaría
- a. darle consejos sobre su problema
 - b. recomendarle que vea a un asesor psicológico.
46. Me gustan
- a. los deportes en equipo
 - b. los deportes individuales.
47. Si se comprobara que un juez es culpable de corrupción, yo recomendaría
- a. una penalidad más severa para él que para un ciudadano común
 - b. la misma penalidad para él que para un ciudadano común.
48. Soy
- a. olvidadizo
 - b. organizado
49. La historia de nuestra nación se ve glorificada por
- a. grandes luchadores y conquistadores
 - b. grandes escritores y reformadores sociales.
50. Yo respeto
- a. normas éticas
 - b. mi propia conciencia.

51. A todos los ciudadanos se les debería permitir portar armas
- a. solamente cuando hay guerra
 - b. para defenderse.
52. Mi actitud acerca de los grupos es la siguiente:
- a. no me sumo a los grupos
 - b. me siento orgulloso de pertenecer a algunos grupos.
53. Si un maestro o una maestra comete un delito sexual contra un estudiante, se le debería aplicar
- a. un castigo más severo que lo habitual a fin de sentar un ejemplo para otros maestros o maestras
 - b. el mismo tratamiento que a alguien que no es un maestro o maestra.
54. Me gustan los eventos sociales con
- a. familiares
 - b. amigos y vecinos.
55. Me gusta que las instrucciones sean
- a. generales
 - b. específicas.
56. Un buen sistema social necesita
- a. la aplicación de una disciplina fuerte y severa
 - b. personas que puedan tolerar a los demás.
57. A un clérigo que tiene un comportamiento inmoral
- a. se le debería permitir volver a ocupar su posición en la iglesia después de que se haya arrepentido y cambiado de comportamiento

b. nunca se le debería permitir volver a ocupar su posición en la iglesia.

58. Yo aprecio

a. la música

b. el arte.

59. Cuando veo un desfile

a. me gusta mirar pero no siento deseos de ser parte del mismo

b. me gustaría formar parte del mismo.

60. Cuando estoy de mal humor

a. tengo ganas de romper objetos

b. me relajo y me digo que las cosas van a mejorar.

61. Las personas que beben antes de manejar

a. deberían ser encarceladas y se les debería aplicar una multa severa

b. deberían recibir apoyo psicológico y educación acerca de los efectos de las drogas y la drogadicción.

62. Prefiero mirar

a. películas de misterio

b. películas humorísticas.

63. Si alguien que conozco se comporta en manera anormal, pienso que yo debería

a. decirle que lo que está haciendo está mal y luego convencerlo de que no siga haciéndolo

b. dejarle que haga lo que quiera, siempre que yo no me vea afectado.

64. Si un país apoya actos de terrorismo, pienso que se lo debería

a. atacar militarmente hasta que esos actos cesen

b. convencer por medio de negociaciones de que deje de apoyar el

terrorismo.

65. Si alguien trata de imponer sus creencias religiosas a los demás, se merecería

a. que se haga caso omiso de él o ella hasta que esté dispuesto a escuchar a

las creencias de los otros

b. que se le pida que se vaya y se lo amenace si se rehúsa a irse

Appendix D: Team-Generated Questionnaire

Name: _____

Jail Identification Number: _____

Age: _____ Sex (circle one) Female Male

How many classes are you enrolled in? _____

What class/classes did you participate in? _____

I took classes at the facility because:

- A. I was advised to by a member of the staff.
- B. I was interested in the subject.
- C. I thought it would improve the quality of my life after I am released.
- D. Other reason: _____

How much homework did you normally have per week?

- A. None
- B. Less than one hour
- C. 1-2 hours
- D. 3-4 hours
- E. More than 4 hours

I work better when I...

- A. Work alone
- B. Work in a small group (4 or fewer people)
- C. Work in a large group (5 or more people)

Rate each of the following statements on a scale from 1-5

1 = strongly disagree

2 = disagree

3 = neutral

4 = agree

5 = strongly agree

I had a close relationship with my teacher.

1 2 3 4 5

I communicated with my teacher about how I was feeling on a regular basis.

1 2 3 4 5

I respect my teacher.

1 2 3 4 5

I received one on one assistance from my teacher.

1 2 3 4 5

I liked the way the teacher taught.

1 2 3 4 5

I learned a lot from this class.

1 2 3 4 5

I looked forward to coming to class.

1 2 3 4 5

I feel more responsible for myself and my actions than I did before taking this class.

1 2 3 4 5

I am more hopeful of my future.

1 2 3 4 5

I would recommend this class to others.

1 2 3 4 5

Describe your favorite activity from class.

What would you have liked to see done differently in your class(es)?

What about the teaching style did you like? Not like?

Team-Generated Questionnaire: Spanish

Cuestionario

Nombre: _____

Número de identificación en la cárcel: _____

Edad: _____

Sexo (circular uno): Mujer

Hombre

¿Cuántas clases estás tomando ahora? _____

¿ Cual(es) clase(s) habías participado en? _____

Tomé clases en esta cárcel porque:

A. Un empleado en la cárcel las me avisó.

B. Estuve interesado en el sujeto.

C. Pensaba que lo mejoraría mi calidad de vida después de mi liberación.

D. Otra razón: _____

¿Cuánta tarea tienes normalmente cada semana?

A. Nada

B. Menos de una hora

C. 1-2 horas

D. 3-4 horas

E. Más de 4 horas

Trabajo mejor cuando yo...

- A. Trabajo solo
- B. Trabajo en un grupo pequeño (4 personas o menos)
- C. Trabajo en un grupo grande (5 personas o más)

Clasificas cada de estas declaraciones de 1 – 5

1= firmamente desacuerdo

2= desacuerdo

3= neutral

4= de acuerdo

5= firmamente de acuerdo

Tuvé una relación fuerte con mi profesor

1 2 3 4 5

Comuniqué con mi profesor mucho sobre como me sentía

1 2 3 4 5

Respeto a mi profesor

1 2 3 4 5

Recibí ayuda uno a uno de mi profesor

1 2 3 4 5

Me gustaba la manera en que el profesor enseñó

1 2 3 4 5

Aprendí mucho de esta clase

1 2 3 4 5

Me gustaba asistir a clase

1 2 3 4 5

Me siento más responsable para yo mismo y para mis acciones que me sentí antes de
tomar esta clase

1 2 3 4 5

Tengo más esperanza para mi futuro

1 2 3 4 5

Recomendaría esta clase a otros.

1 2 3 4 5

Describe a tu actividad favorita de esta clase.

¿Qué te gustaría hacer diferente en tu clase(s)?

¿Qué sobre la manera de enseñar te gustó? ¿No te gustó?

Appendix E: Interview Questions

- 1) How has your stay in the facility changed you as a person? Have you ever approached a situation differently because of something that you learned here?
- 2) How does your experience here compare to your expectations of “jail”?
- 3) Are you satisfied with the programs you are involved in? What are your likes/dislikes? What would you change?
- 4) What kind of activities did you participate in class?
- 5) What do you think of the facility as a whole? What do you like? What would you change? Are there any other programs that you’d like to see?
- 6) How do you think your life will be impacted by your stay in the facility?

Appendix F: IRB Approval

----- Forwarded message -----

From: irb@umresearch.umd.edu <irb@umresearch.umd.edu>

Date: Mon, Oct 19, 2009 at 10:40 AM

Subject: Initial Approval Notice from IRB

To: agaston@crim.umd.edu

Cc: jessieyy@umd.edu, kmatusza@umd.edu

TO: Arnett Gaston (Principal Investigator)

Kevin Matuszak

RE: IRB APPLICATION # 09-0634

PROJECT TITLE: Peace In Prisons

This letter is to inform you that the IRB approved your initial application on October 19, 2009 , and your project will expire on October 19, 2010 .The official approval letter will be sent to the mailing address provided on your application form.

If you have any questions about this approval notice, please contact

at 301-405-4212.

IRB Office

University of Maryland, College Park

Lee Building, Room 2100

Zip 5125

College Park, Maryland 20742-5121

irb@deans.umd.edu

Appendix G: Supplement to Missing Data Analysis

Figure G.1

Are all demographics (sex,race,age,educ) self-reported?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No demographics obtained	92	27.2	27.2	27.2
	1 given	1	.3	.3	27.5
	2 given	16	4.7	4.7	32.2
	3 given	45	13.3	13.3	45.6
	All demographics obtained	184	54.4	54.4	100.0
	Total	338	100.0	100.0	

Figure G.2

Are all demographics (sex,race,age) self-reported?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No demographics obtained	93	27.5	27.5	27.5
	1 given	7	2.1	2.1	29.6
	2 given	30	8.9	8.9	38.5
	All demographics obtained	208	61.5	61.5	100.0
	Total	338	100.0	100.0	

Figure G.3

Is Sex self-reported?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Did not provide	104	30.8	30.8	30.8
	Yes, provided	234	69.2	69.2	100.0
	Total	338	100.0	100.0	

Figure G.4

Is Race self-reported?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Did not provide	113	33.4	33.4	33.4
	Yes, provided	225	66.6	66.6	100.0
	Total	338	100.0	100.0	

Figure G.5

Is Age self-reported?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Did not provide	106	31.4	31.4	31.4
	Yes, provided	232	68.6	68.6	100.0
	Total	338	100.0	100.0	

Figure G.6

Is Education self-reported?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Did not provide	125	37.0	37.0	37.0
	Yes, provided	213	63.0	63.0	100.0
	Total	338	100.0	100.0	

Figure G.7

Group Statistics

Is Sex self-reported?		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Nonviolent Percentage Round 1	Did not provide	104	.6989	.17409	.01707
	Yes, provided	234	.7023	.18848	.01232
Nonviolent Percentage Round 2	Did not provide	12	.7564	.13095	.03780
	Yes, provided	179	.7144	.18569	.01388
Nonviolent Percentage Round 3	Did not provide	10	.7585	.15692	.04962
	Yes, provided	146	.7380	.19664	.01627

Differences between the NVP scores of those reporting and not reporting sex were not found using a T-test analysis. In round 1 the NVP did not differ between the two groups, $t(336) = -0.15, p > .05$. This trend persisted in rounds 2 and 3, $t(14) = 1.04, p > .05$ and $t(154) = 0.32, p > .05$, respectively. For round 2, Levene's test indicated unequal variances ($F = 4.88, p = .028$), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 189 to 14.

Figure G.8

Group Statistics

Is Race self-reported?		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Nonviolent Percentage Round 1	Did not provide	113	.6890	.17668	.01662
	Yes, provided	225	.7074	.18753	.01250
Nonviolent Percentage Round 2	Did not provide	15	.6779	.24221	.06254
	Yes, provided	176	.7203	.17727	.01336
Nonviolent Percentage Round 3	Did not provide	9	.6919	.16654	.05551
	Yes, provided	147	.7422	.19566	.01614

Differences between the NVP scores of those reporting and not reporting race were not found using a T-test analysis. In round 1 the NVP did not differ between the two groups, $t(336) = -0.87, p > .05$. This trend persisted in rounds 2 and 3, $t(189) = -.86, p > .05$ and $t(154) = -.76, p > .05$, respectively.

Figure G.9

Group Statistics

Is Age self-reported?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Nonviolent Percentage Round 1 Did not provide	106	.6875	.17125	.01663
Yes, provided	232	.7075	.18945	.01244
Nonviolent Percentage Round 2 Did not provide	11	.7161	.22134	.06674
Yes, provided	180	.7171	.18087	.01348
Nonviolent Percentage Round 3 Did not provide	6	.6333	.20866	.08519
Yes, provided	150	.7436	.19290	.01575

Differences between the NVP scores of those reporting and not reporting age were not found using a T-test analysis. In round 1 the NVP did not differ between the two groups, $t(336) = -0.93, p > .05$. This trend persisted in rounds 2 and 3, $t(189) = -.02, p > .05$ and $t(154) = -1.37, p > .05$, respectively.

Figure G.10

Group Statistics

Is Education self-reported?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Nonviolent Percentage Round 1 Did not provide	125	.6941	.18385	.01644
Yes, provided	213	.7054	.18426	.01263
Nonviolent Percentage Round 2 Did not provide	30	.7251	.16143	.02947
Yes, provided	161	.7155	.18688	.01473
Nonviolent Percentage Round 3 Did not provide	27	.6888	.20154	.03879
Yes, provided	129	.7499	.19148	.01686

Differences between the NVP scores of those reporting and not reporting highest level of education completed were not found using a T-test analysis. In round 1 the NVP did not differ between the two groups, $t(336) = -0.55, p > .05$. This trend persisted in rounds 2 and 3, $t(189) = .26, p > .05$ and $t(154) = -1.49, p > .05$, respectively.

Appendix H: Missing Data Analysis Results

Binary Logistic Regression Results: Are factors influencing attrition throughout study

Round 2

Variable	b	SE
<i>Program Classification - Round 1</i>		
Educational	0.447	0.784
Employment	-0.420	1.127
Rehabilitation	1.657	0.942
Religious	-1.240	1.064
Social	1.355	0.859
<i>Program Frequency - Round 1</i>		
<i>Sex</i>	0.019	0.534
<i>Race</i>	0.419	0.833
<i>Race</i>	0.123	0.220
<i>Age</i>	0.026	0.189
<i>Education</i>	0.100	0.273
<i>NVP score - Round 1</i>		
<i>Constant</i>	0.381	1.124
	0.316	0.330

Binary Logistic Regression Results: Are factors influencing

attrition throughout study

Round 3

Variable	b	SE
<i>Program Classification - Round 1</i>		
Educational	0.847	1.098
Employment	0.301	1.317
Rehabilitation	0.429	0.988
Religious	1.450	1.605
Social	0.103	0.841
<i>Program Classification - Round 2</i>		
Educational	0.701	1.050
Employment	2.313	1.240
Rehabilitation	0.870	1.087
Religious	0.916	1.326
Social	0.557	0.927
<i>Program Frequency - Round 1</i>	-0.730	0.727
<i>Program Frequency - Round 2</i>	-0.593	0.755
<i>Sex</i>	-0.910	0.682
<i>Race</i>	0.006	0.236
<i>Age</i>	-0.360	0.227
<i>Education</i>	0.395	0.294
<i>NVP score - Round 1</i>	-1.659	1.779
<i>NVP score - Round 2</i>	3.130	1.830
<i>Constant</i>	-0.070	1.222

Appendix I: Referenced Questionnaire Quotes

Presented below are comments from the questionnaire that were used to supplement the Discussion section. Comments are ordered by participant's JID. The questions they responded to are also indicated and were:

(1) Describe your favorite activity from class.

(2) What would you have liked to see done differently in your class(es)?

(3) What about the teaching style did you like? Not like?

(AC) Additional Comments:

5 – 1

I liked the writing. I gave me a chance to express myself.

(Speaking of GED)

20 – 3

Good teacher explains everything and no one is left behind

(Speaking of GED)

101 – 1

I loved this program-10 weeks long-made a huge impact on me

(Speaking of the Job Partnership Program)

111 – 1

Learning to maintain and receive a job

(Speaking of Job Partnership)

111 – 2

more hands-on experiences

(Speaking of Job Partnership)

111 – 3

i like the teaching style, there is always a one-on-one talk

(Speaking of Job Partnership)

165 – 3

I did not like that alcoholics were mixed in with the drug addicts. I understand that an addiction is an addiction no matter what it is but it was hard to relate at times and took the focus off my recovery.

(Speaking of JAS)

165 – AC

JAS is a good program for people who honestly (key word) want to change!

178 – 3

I like how it motivates you to do positive.

(Speaking of the 12-step Program)

182 – 3

Teacher is good because she explains everything and it's easy to understand

(Speaking of being a Pod Worker)

182 – 3

she always explain what she talking about so you will understand better.

(Speaking of being a Kitchen Worker)

195 – 1

People there are responsible and religious

(Speaking of Bible Study Class)

195 – 3

I like how they speak to us as equals

(Speaking of Bible Study Class)

197 – 1

I like that there's always time to be a better person and I like being able to say what I feel

(Speaking of ESOL)

197 – 2

that we get more time we paid more attention

(Speaking of ESOL)

197 – 3

I like being able to speak my mind and be heard.

(Speaking of ESOL)

215 – 3

I like the fact the inmate with my problem ran the pod and hearing from my same type of people. Not like: how people who don't know your life can judge you.

(Speaking of JAS)

221 – 1

The valuable advice and information I receive [sic] from people sharing in groups.

(Speaking of JAS)

232 – 1

This program has changed my life. I am now more open to others, and aware of myself and my surroundings. I can be honest with myself and others, and I have grown to love myself

(Speaking of JAS)

232 – 2

My favorite activity from the JAS program - That's a tough one. I enjoy NA meetings, Yoga, Meditation. So my favorite activity is exploring myself, and working on myself and my attitudes. I can stop focusing on what to be changed in the world, and focus on what needs to be changed in me and my attitudes

(Speaking of JAS)

232 – 3

I would like to have seen everyone open up more, and be more honest with others. Change we must or die we will. Without pain there is no change. I enjoyed the difficulty of the change process... I like the personal touch. It is the same info, but different teachers, and students add their own style and input.

(Speaking of JAS)

235 – 1

I like when speakers from the outside come to share their experiences, strength, and hope.

(Speaking of Alcoholics Anonymous and Narcotics Anonymous)

240 – 2

Ensuring more active participation.

(Speaking of Alcoholics Anonymous)

246 – 2

The blacks officers [sic], give the better positions to the black dudes, and have more tolerance whit [sic] them (blacks)

(Speaking of being a Kitchen Worker)

266 – 1

Science- A couple of years from now I expect to be working at NIH.

(Speaking of GED)

270 – 1

I feel that the bible study programs here are very positive to one's mind and views on life. My favorite activity is group prayer. Wish the volunteers would be more open to discussion.

(Speaking of Bible Study Class)

332 – 2

I wish we had a wider variety of educational classes (once you get your GED they take you out of school, I wanna take college courses).

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