

Assessing the impact of virtual visitation on familial communication and institutional
adjustment for women in prison

by

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my grandmother, Carolina G. McKenzie who wanted more than anything to see her children and grandchildren educated. And, to my brother, Terrence E. A. Hilliman, whose experiences in life fostered my interest in the criminal justice system.

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Abstract

Assessing the impact of virtual visitation on familial communication and institutional adjustment for women in prison

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Charlyn A. Hilliman

Adviser: Professor Michael D. White

The present study investigated the impact of a two-year video conferencing visiting program on the self-esteem, behavior and contact between incarcerated women and their children. The study compared an intervention group of 335 women to a comparison group of 336 women. The women's infractions were compared and the number of contact visits they received at the end of the study period was also compared. The infractions were separated into minor and major infractions and were assessed for three periods; six months prior to the start of the program, the first six months of the program and the last six months of the program. Finally, the researcher analyzed qualitative data, including a video conferencing visit between an incarcerated woman, her mother and her son; a focus group; and letters and memoranda.

The quantitative analysis found no evidence of a significant program effect. However, the qualitative analysis painted a more positive picture of the program. The women indicated improved self-esteem, improved relationships with children and caregivers, and spoke highly of the program. Additionally, serendipitous results revealed that the majority of the women in both the intervention and comparison groups did not engage in rule violating behavior. Nonetheless, a disproportionate number of infractions were committed by a small percentage of the women.

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Chapter I

Statement of Problem

Introduction

The number of men and women incarcerated in state and federal prisons in the United States has increased dramatically over the last decade. At the end of 1990 1,148,702 adults were under correctional supervision either in state or federal correctional facilities. By 2003 there were 2,085,620 adults under correctional supervision (Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics Online). The number of women under correctional supervision has also increased dramatically over the same period. In 1990, 44,065 women were under correctional jurisdiction, while 101,170 women were in custody in 2003 (Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics Online). Notwithstanding this trend of a rising female prisoner population most of the studies conducted on prison populations tend to focus on male inmates. Moreover, the effect of incarceration on female inmates and their needs, particularly those with children, is quite different (Boudin, 1998).

Compounding the increase in incarceration of both men and women in the United States is the number of children affected by incarceration. By the end of 1999, 1,324,900 minor children had either a mother or a father in state or federal prison (Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics Online). The number of incarcerated parents is likely to increase as the rate of incarceration in the United States increases (Gillard and Mumola, 1999). Greenfeld and Snell (1999) estimated that two-thirds of the nation's incarcerated women have children under 18. DeAngelis (2001) estimated that there are 1.5 million children with one or more parents in correctional custody (DeAngelis, 2001). In Florida

over 75% of incarcerated women reported that they had one or more children under the age of 18 (Florida Department of Corrections Annual Report (1997-98)).

Despite this increase in incarcerated women there has been little research on the institutional behavior of women prisoners (Casey Acevedo and Bakken, 2001; Casey Acevedo and Bakken, 2003; Kruttschnitt and Krmpotich, 1990). Of the existing research, the focus has been on comparing women to men (Tischler and Marquart, 1989). Research also suggests that behavior (Carey et. al, 1986; Carbonell et. al, 1984, Casey Acevedo and Bakken, 2001; Sappington, 1996) and self-esteem (Negy et. al, 1997) are linked to institutional adjustment. Besides the stress of just being in prison, the situation faced by incarcerated mothers is even more precarious. Incarcerated mothers must also deal with the stress of being separated from their children (Henriques, 1982; Henriques, 1996) and they are more likely to serve their sentences far away from their children due to the limited number of women's correctional facilities (Baunach, 1985; Bloom and Steinhart, 1993). Further compounding the problem is the fact that incarcerated mothers report that they rarely receive visits from their children (McGowan and Blumenthal, 1978; Stanton, 1980).

Theoretical Basis for the Study

There are three basic theories that the researcher draws upon as a framework for this study. The first theory is the concept of maternal role strain of incarcerated women discussed by Berry and Eigenberg (2003); the second theory is the life course theory (Sampson and Laub, 1993); and the final theory is self-control theory (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990). Maternal role strain is experienced by incarcerated mothers who often feel incapable of engaging in the mothering aspects of their lives (Berry and Eigenberg,

2003). These women now begin to feel a strain because they cannot perform their mothering duties on a day to day basis. They are unable to take full responsibility for their children, feel serious psychological effects, and lose confidence in themselves and their mothering abilities. Moreover, they feel that they will lose the love of their children and this in turn causes more fear and increases the maternal role strain they are already experiencing (Berry and Eigenberg, 2003). In their 2003 study, Berry and Eigenberg suggested that the longer a woman is separated from her children, the more maternal role strain she will experience. Likewise, they found that time served has a significant effect on maternal role strain. The longer a woman is incarcerated the more difficult it is for her to perform mothering acts and maintain her role as mother thus increasing her maternal role strain (Berry and Eigenberg, 2003).

The life course theory is a multi-factorial theory that combines various factors that have occurred in the development of an individual from childhood to adulthood and focuses on how these age-defined roles have affected social transitions for the affected individuals (Sampson and Laub, 1999). These sequences are described in terms of trajectories or pathways and transitional events that have changed the life course of an individual. Examples of these changes, in the context of this study, include being incarcerated and parenting from prison. The effects of parenting, “informal social control in childhood, adolescence, and adulthood” (Sampson and Laub, 1999, 192) help mediate the effects of life altering experiences in individuals and further equip them for successful adult lives or pathways (Sampson and Laub, 1999).

Life course theory purports that how individuals turns out when they reach maturity is a direct result of what experiences they have encountered and the environment

in which these experiences took place. For example, imprisonment of a parent, ineffective parenting, weakened bonds or relationships with adults and other negative forces can increase the likelihood an individual's criminal trajectory whereas strong family relationship can deflect this criminal pathway (Sampson and Laub, 1993). The negative effects of parental incarceration can lead a child into a delinquent pathway and reinforce a deviant life trajectory. Establishing strong and positive life trajectories can further deflect a criminal pathway (Sampson and Laub, 1993). According to Farrington (1986), Guleck and Guleck reported that dysfunctional parent-child relationships or parenting skills can disrupt the development children and alter their life course. Factors such as a lack of parental involvement in the nurturing of a child, weak emotional ties, a lack of adult supervision and discipline, parental abuse, parental criminality, poor communication within a family, parental rejection, rigid control or weak controls all affect the life course of a child (Farrington, 1986).

Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) discuss self-control theory and how low self-control can lead to criminal choices. Individuals with low self-control have a greater tendency to commit crimes and engage in deviant behaviors in all stages of their lives and across varying social circumstances (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990). Gottfredson and Hirschi view self-control as something that is developed through good parenting and continuous monitoring of a child's behavior. Once a parent punishes a child for exhibiting low self-control and develops attitudes in his/or her children that foster rule conforming behavior and essential social development skills, then a child will grow up to avoid deviant behavior. However, if a child is not attached to his or her parent, or has

parents who are criminally deviant themselves, then the child is more likely to exhibit poor self-control and make poor choices (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990).

How the theories relate to the this research

The research is based on an analysis of the Face-to-Face program. The Face-to-Face program is a videoconferencing visitation program for incarcerated women with children located at Lowell Correctional Institute and the Hernando Correctional Institute in the state of Florida. The Face-to-Face program is a multi-faceted program that includes group counseling sessions where the inmate mothers share their parenting experiences, their prison experiences and discuss their lives prior to incarceration. Each location has a coordinator who facilitates the discussions, contacts and often convinces the caregivers to bring the children to the offsite locations for video visits, and debriefs the inmate mothers after their video visit sessions. The women are encouraged to write letters discussing their feelings and to help in the flow of the group discussions where the letters are often read aloud. The final aspect of the Face-to-Face program includes the selection of books that are sent by the mothers to children as an icebreaker for discussions. There were a total of 335 inmates that participated in the Face-to-Face program, in some capacity, during the two-year period of January 2000 until December 2002.

The aforementioned theories relate directly to the need for correctional programming in particular visitation programs. Arranging visitation for incarcerated women provides opportunities for continued contact with children. Maternal role strain theory suggests that women in prison will experience less role strain if they are actively engaged in mothering activities and maintain their status or roles as a mother. Once the mothers are able to demonstrate that they are interested in their children and their lives

then the children will also feel more connected to the mothers. The Face-to-Face program reconnects incarcerated mothers with their children, provides an alternative for women who rarely or never receive in-person contact visits and incorporates a self-help group setting where the women help each other deal with the many issues related to mothering while in prison. Maternal role strain theory supports and suggests that these factors are important to reducing the maternal role strain experienced by incarcerated women.

The life course theory would support a multi-dimensional program such as the Face-to-Face program due to its focus on strengthening the parenting skills of the women involved, strengthening the mother-child relationship, and improving familial communication. The life course theory would consider the Face-to-Face program an investment into both the life course of the mothers as well as their children.¹

Finally, the self-control theory would view the Face-to-Face program as a measure of improved parenting where the mothers can now correct and monitor the behavior of their children as well as set boundaries for them that could help them exhibit better self-control in their lives. The children may become more attached to their mothers and may be able to make better choices in the future.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to analyze whether video conferencing visits between mothers in prison and their children can be effective in improving the incarcerated mothers' behavioral adjustment in prison, the incarcerated mothers' self-esteem, the mothers' relationship with their children, and the overall institutional adjustment of the

¹ This program may alter the life course of the children in a positive way and may break the cycle of criminality within the family. This particular dimension will not be evaluated in this study but can be analyzed in subsequent research.

incarcerated mother. Researchers have found that an important factor that inhibits mothers' rehabilitation is the overwhelming grief faced when dealing with the loss of their children (Boudin, 1997; Clark 1979; Rocheleau, 1987; Richie, 2001; Wine, 1992). Currently most women are incarcerated far away from their children, due to a limited number of women's facilities nationwide, and although the correctional system provides the women with visitation it is underutilized due to many barriers to visitation, which will be further, discussed in the literature review section of this paper. It is these barriers to visitation that prompted the Florida Department of Corrections to introduce the use of technology as a tool for extending the current visitation model within their female institutions.

This study examined data collected from the Florida Department of Corrections Face-to-Face program during January 2000 until December 2002. According to institutional records maintained by the Florida Department of Corrections, in 1999, the year prior to Face-to-Face, there were a total of 3536 women in the Lowell and Hernando Correctional Institutes. The institutional records also reported 2592 disciplinary infractions that year. The visitation records from the two institutions reported that only 12% of the women in Lowell and Hernando Correctional Institutes combined had received visits from their children during the year of 1999.² This study examines the impact of participating in the program on behavior, self-esteem and visitation. Outcomes for program participants are compared to a random sample of program-eligible female prisoners who did not participate.

² This data was obtained from Research and data analysis division of the Florida Department of Corrections (April, 30, 2003).

Importance of Study

This study evaluates a video conferencing visiting program's effect on behavior, self-esteem and improvements in contact visitation for incarcerated women. The study may have important implications for future family programs designed to facilitate the interaction between incarcerated mothers and their children. Technology can be used to extend current prison visitation programs, thus including a segment of the population that ordinarily does not receive visits from their children (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken 2002). The corrections environment has begun to focus more on reunification of parents with their children after incarceration (Pollock-Byrne, 1990; Block, 1999; Schram and Morash, 2002), and has begun many innovative programs aimed at increasing communication between inmates and their children during incarceration. The study also addresses the basic question of whether or not such programs will improve the adjustment of the inmates to the correctional environment and reduce behavioral and disciplinary problems.

One important argument for fostering the mother/child bond during incarceration is that many mothers want to be reunified with their children upon release from prison. Reunification becomes increasingly difficult as many mothers have faced problems in selecting a caregiver upon incarceration and many have had reoccurring problems with the care of their children and maintaining contact over time (Henriques 1982, Wine 1992; Rocheleau 1987, Wright and Seymour 2002). These issues lend themselves to an inability to maintain consistent contact while incarcerated and create reunification barriers thereafter (Henriques, 1996). Casey-Acevedo and Bakken (2001) suggests "researchers may investigate how visitation policies, release programs, and foster families for inmates'

children affect inmates during their incarceration and following it” (496).³ This study will further this goal and extend the knowledge of how innovative visitation policies affect incarcerated women.

Research Questions

1. Does participation in the Face-to-Face program reduce incidences of behavioral infractions over time?
2. Does participation in the Face-to-Face program improve the self-esteem of women over time?
3. Does participation in the Face-to-Face program improve communication between the women and their children in the form of more contact visits?
4. Are participants’ race, age, educational levels, length of sentence, and time served potential covariates?

Chapter Summary

This chapter introduces the problems of increased female incarceration and of the limited research in the area of female incarceration. It also gives a brief description of the theories the researcher examined in the study. The theories discussed were maternal role strain, life course theory and self-control theory. The researcher connected these theories to correctional program evaluation by suggesting that these theories lay the foundation for why multifaceted correctional visitation programs are necessary for fostering incarceration women’s parenting skills and helping them to establish and maintain contact with their children.

³ Casey-Acevedo, K. and Bakken, T. (2001). The effects of time on the disciplinary adjustment of women in prison. International journal of offender therapy and comparative criminology, 45, 489-497

Finally, the researcher introduced the four research questions to be addressed in this study.

Chapter II

The theoretical perspectives

The theory of maternal role strain

Research suggests that the definition of “role,” “role change” and “role strain” are necessary for formulating an understanding of maternal role strain. According to Turner (1990):

“A *social role* is a comprehensive pattern of behavior and attitudes, constituting a strategy for coping with a recurrent set of situations, which is socially identified --- more or less clearly --- as an entity. A social role is played recognizably by different individuals, and supplies of a major basis for identifying and placing persons in a group, organization, or society (Turner, 1968, p. 552) (Turner, 1990, 87)⁴

“Social roles are of four types: *basic roles*, like gender and age roles, that are grounded in society at large rather than particular organizations; *structural status roles*, like occupational, family, and recreational roles that are attached to position, office, or status in particular organizational settings; *functional group roles*, like the “mediator” and “devil’s advocate,” which are not formally designated or attached to particular group positions or offices, but are recognized items in the cultural repertoire; and *value roles*, like the hero, traitor, criminal, and saint, which embody the implementation or the negation of some recognized value or value complex” (Turner, 1990, 88).

“Role change can be defined as a change in shared conception and execution of typical role performance and boundaries...Roles can change in several ways. A new role can be created or an established role can be dissolved; a role can change quantitatively either by the addition or subtraction of duties or rights or by a gain or loss of power or prestige (role expansion or contractions); and a role can change qualitatively by a change in the relative salience of its component elements, by substitution of elements, or by reinterpretation of its meanings. Since a role always bears a function or representation relationship to one or more other roles, a change in one role always means a change in a system of roles” (Turner, 1990, 88).

⁴ Taken from page 87 of Turner, Ralph, H. (1990). Role Change. Annual review of Sociology. 16, 87-110.

A woman's role in society cannot change without a complimentary change in her children's role, or her husband's role. Thus if a woman is incarcerated her children's role, her mother's role (the children's grandmother) and her husband or significant other's role in society also changes.

“Role strain occurs when people experience conflicting demands in an existing role or cannot meet the expectations of a new one” (Kornblum, 2002, 101). “Role strain in the form of anxiety over poor performance is at least as common as role strain caused by conflicting expectations” (Kornblum, 2002, 101). Maternal role strain can result from a variety of tensions that result when a mother cannot fulfill her expected functions (Morris and Coley, 2004). Mothering is expected to be an essential part of woman's life and mothers are expected to dedicate the majority of their time and efforts to fulfilling this role. Women are perceived to be more nurturing and caring than men and are expected to take an active part in the daily lives of their children. Moreover, a woman's identity is often defined by her role as a mother.

Much of the research conducted on maternal role strain has focused on working outside the home and other family characteristics as causes of maternal role strain (Morris and Coley, 2004). Research has suggested that working outside of the home has caused significant maternal role strain. Women experience greater maternal role strain when trying to balance multiple demands such as working longer hours or a demanding job, caring for young children and experiencing child care difficulties (Morris and Coley, 2004). Low-income women in particular experience high levels of maternal role strain; because they attempt to balance work, school, and young children, while barely making

ends meet (Morris and Coley, 2004). Ironically, some incarcerated women are in prison because they committed crimes in an attempt to fulfill their role as a mother.⁵

Incarcerated women are unable to effectively fulfill this role as a mother for varying reasons. Incarcerated mothers cannot participate in the daily lives of their children, because they are physically not present. They are unable to see their children off to school, cook their meals or tend to the daily nurturing that is required and expected in the role of a mother when raising children. Compounding the problem is their limited access to communication with their children. They are not able to call their children on a daily basis due to financial as well as practical reasons. They are also unable to see their children with any regularity. Incarcerated women often feel the strain of their lost role because being deprived of their children has also removed their only true opportunity to obtain a feminine role (Berry and Eigenberg, 2003).

Maternal role strain involves society's defined role of a mother that a woman accepts and continues to try to fulfill; a change in the women's basic role and the strain that this role change, either voluntarily or involuntarily, causes. Maternal role strain is a commonplace part of female incarceration. Visitation provides opportunities for women to maintain contact with their children and continue to participate in the lives of their children. Despite the obvious advantages to contact visitation it is often sporadic or non-existent (Baunach, 1985; Bloom and Steinhart, 1993; Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2002).

Life course theory

Life course theory is both a developmental and sociological theory. The life course theory is defined as "pathways through the age differentiated life span," where age

⁵ Taken from lit. review of Berry Phyllis, E. and Eigenberg, Helen, M. (2003). Role Strain and Incarcerated Mothers: Understanding the process of mothering. Women & Criminal Justice. 15(1), 101-119.

differentiation “is manifested in expectations and options that impinge on decision processes and the course of events that give shape to life stages, transitions, and turning points” (Elder, 1985, 17)” (Sampson and Laub, 1993, 8).

“Two central concepts underlie the analysis of life-course dynamics. A *trajectory* is a pathway or line of development over the life span, such as work, life, marriage, parenthood, or criminal behavior. Trajectories refer to long-term patterns of behavior and are marked by a sequence of transitions. *Transitions* are marked by life events (such as first job or first marriage) that are embedded in trajectories and evolve over shorter time spans--- “changes in state that are more or less abrupt” (Elder, 1985:31-32)” (Laub et. al, 1995, 92).

Sampson and Laub (1993) reanalyzed the Glueck and Glueck classic delinquency data set and incorporated the life histories of this data to develop what they called Crime in the making. They developed an age-graded theory of informal social control that extends over the life course of an individual. They linked delinquency and adult crime to adult and childhood characteristics and to the influence of the adults in the child’s life (Sampson and Laub 1993; 2003). “Early delinquency predicts weak adult bonds, and weak adult social bonds predict concurrent and later adult crime and deviance” (Sampson and Laub, 1993, 246).

Sampson and Laub found “that the strongest and most consistent effects on both official and unofficial delinquency in adolescence flow from processes or social control connected to family, school and peers. Three factors stood out as strongly predictive of delinquency: low levels of parental supervision; the combination of erratic, threatening, and harsh discipline; and weak parental attachment” (Sampson and Laub, 2003). Incarceration often interrupts social bonding which is vital for the desistance from crime (Sampson and Laub, 1993).

Stability brings change in criminal behavior over the life course of a criminal (Sampson and Laub, 1993). Job stability and marital attachment were significantly related to changes in adult crime. Moreover, the stronger the adult ties to work and family the less crime and deviance occurred. The “late onset of criminal behavior can be accounted for by weak social bonds in adulthood despite a background of nondelinquent behavior. Conversely, desistence from criminal behavior in adulthood can be explained by strong social bonds in adulthood, despite a background of delinquent behavior” (Laub et. al, 1995, 95)

“The concept of pathways suggests that some individuals are set on an often predictable and stable track toward delinquency and adult criminality through the combined negative influence of poor parenting and weak school and peer attachments. At the same time, the notion of turning points suggests that these pathways could be deflected or redirected by positive developments that strengthen social bonds to key institutions in society” (Laub et. al, 1995, 96). In the prison setting, stability and the notion of turning points can be achieved by fostering communication between a woman and her children and through the effects of parenting courses. The Face-to-Face program is both a visitation program and a parenting program. This program can help to provide the life altering pathway that may alter deviance within the women involved and also provide the stability necessary for their children to avoid criminality.

Good parenting skills that were reinforced during the Face-to-Face program included ways for the mothers to communicate with their children, which included discussing appropriate and inappropriate behavior in school. i.e. not fighting, not talking back to teachers, and respecting school property. Other skills reinforced included being

consistent with discipline. The coordinator often told the women that consistent feedback should be given to the children by the mothers particularly when rules of the home have been broken. Finally, the program stressed the need for constant supervision of minor children when they returned home, after incarceration. Good discipline, supervision and communication were seen as forms of good parenting. This notion of good parenting as reinforced by the Face-to-Face program is consistent with what other researchers have suggested (Akers, 1997; Enos, 2001; Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990; Sampson and Laub, 1993).

Self control theory

Individuals with high self-control will be “substantially less likely at all periods of life to engage in criminal acts” (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990, 89). Although low self-control by itself does not cause crime, if the situations are correct then a lack of self-control will produce crime. Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) indicate that low self-control is not the "motivating force" leading to criminal behavior and that "..... the link between self-control and crime is not deterministic, but probabilistic, affected by opportunities and other constraints" (Hirschi and Gottfredson 1990, 53). Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) suggest that lack of self-control predicts a wide variety of behaviors, including crime and the inability to commit to long-term relationships.

According to Gottfredson and Hirschi, low self-control is displayed in early childhood through certain specific personality characteristics, such as an inability to postpone gratification, a low tolerance for frustration, and a tendency to engage in high levels of risk-taking behavior. Self-control develops through parental emotional investment in the child, monitoring the child's behavior, recognizing deviance when it

occurs, and punishing the child. Parental emotional investment is necessary in order to activate the three forms of parental management (Gottfredson and Hirschi 1990).

Low self-control is a direct product of improper socialization and ineffective child rearing. If parents are attached to their child and provide adequate supervision and punishes or controls deviant behavior then a child will be properly socialized and display a high level of self-control. Self-control theory posits that the family and the parents are the most important factors in the socialization of a child (Akers, 1997).

The self-control theory purports that preventive policies taken early in the life of child can have a positive impact on families and will help to reduce crime and delinquency within that family (Akers, 1997). To that end, programs designed to strengthen family values and connections; and that offers parenting guidance are beneficial in providing self-control for inmates. Good parenting will mediate self-control for both the child and the parent involved. The Face-to-Face program provided inmates with both an option to strengthen family values and a positive hope for the future.

Chapter Summary

This chapter establishes the importance of maternal role strain, the life course theory and self-control theory in analyzing the Face-to-Face program. These theories support the importance of maternal correctional visitation and programs in improving the family communication and commitment of incarcerated mothers. These theories suggest that parental practices and improved parent/child communication will have a positive effect on the life-course of both the incarcerated mother and her children; the development of self control for both the incarcerated mother and child; and finally, help to reduce maternal strain for incarcerated mothers.

Chapter III

Literature Review

Prison Visitation programs

Corrections officials in several states have experimented with innovative prison visitation programs to facilitate contact between incarcerated mothers and the families they have left behind, particularly minor children (Block, 1999; Schram, 2002). Many of these visitation programs were created in the hopes of improving the relationship between the incarcerated mothers and their children and to assist in reunification of the mothers with their children after prison (Block, 1999; Schram, 2002). Visitation, while incarcerated, and maintaining contact between the incarcerated mothers and their children are essential for the well-being of the mothers and their children and is also an important aspect of maintaining parental rights after incarceration (Henriques, 1996). The following review will provide some background and an assessment of these visitation programs and give us a framework from which to evaluate the Face-to-Face program.

Some prisons, such as Bedford Hills Correctional Facility in New York State, have experimented with ground-breaking visitation and family programs. Bedford Hills implemented a child-centered space where the children are provided with an area in the visiting room dedicated to playing and development (Boudin, 1997). In 1901 Bedford Hills began a nursery program (Boudin, 1997; Parke and Clarke Stewart, 2002) where women keep their children with them in the prison nursery until the child is 18 months old. This program affords the mother the opportunity to bond with the

child early on (Boudin, 1997). Despite its long running history there has been no evaluation of this program (Parke and Clarke Stewart, 2002).

Since the time of the Bedford Hills nursery program, a growing number of prisons have begun to provide a nursery for mothers who have children while incarcerated. An example of such a program, modeled directly after the Bedford Hills program, is the program housed in the Nebraska Center for Women where infants live in a nursery on the prison grounds until the age of 18 months. The caveat is that only mothers who are eligible for release within 18 months are eligible to participate in this program.

According to Parke and Clarke Stewart a preliminary study of the Nebraska nursery program by Carlson (1998) found that 8 out of 11 women

“felt that the program increased mother-child bonding and all of them felt that the parenting classes improved their parenting skills. Moreover, misconduct reports for these women while they were in prison decreased, relative to rates observed prior to entry into the program, and recidivism rates after they were released were lower” (Parke and Clarke-Stewart, 2002, 11).

Another program developed at Bedford Hills to address the issues of mothers whose children are simply too far to benefit from these innovative visiting programs or simply to act, as a supplement between visits is the “Story Corner.” In this program mothers are allowed to record a story in their own voice. They then mail the tape and the book to the child. The mothers are also allowed to sing or read a poem to the child. They can record in both English and Spanish (Boudin, 1997). Boudin (1997) provides an informational narrative on the program and anecdotal effects of the program on the women. She suggests that being in the program helps the inmate mothers to feel

involved and connected to their children through the use of the “Story Corner” visitation program and the mailings (Boudin, 1997).

In November 1992, the Maryland Correctional Institution for Women (MCIW) and the Girl Scouts of America developed a program called Girls Scouts Behind Bars (GSBB), which has been replicated in several states nationwide (Moses, 1997). In 1999 Katherine Block conducted a survey of the 11 GSBB programs nationwide, with 9 program directors returning the survey. Block’s questionnaire focused on the various programs’ mission goals, partnerships, structure and staffing, funding, membership, troop activities, transportation and communication, the importance of program features, program challenges and benefits and whether the program enhanced visitation (Block, 1999). Block reported in her literature review section that quantitative data were not available regarding the programs effect on visitation in most programs she examined.

Block and Potthast (1998) analyzed visiting and interview data for the Maryland GSBB and found evidence of enhanced mother-daughter visitation. In a comparison of GSBB mothers and those of a matched group who also met the criteria of membership but for various reasons did not participate, Block and Potthast found that 64% of the GSBB mother received visits from their daughters compared to 49% of the matched group. The GSBB mothers also averaged more visits per year (11.6 versus 6.1) and on average received visits from their daughters during almost 50% of months available while the matched group received visits in only slightly more than 30% of the available months (Block and Potthast, 1998). One Maryland GSBB program reported that 36% of the mothers stated that the GSSB visits represented the

only visitation between them and their daughters. For other mothers the GSSB visits represented supplemental visits, which demonstrated preservation of the mother-daughter relationship. Approximately one fourth of the inmates reported that the GSBB visits improved their relationships and increased the frequency of their regular visits while 53% stated that participation in GSBB had no effect on their daughters' regular visiting patterns (Block and Potthast, 1998). Thus, the program did not improve visitation for the study participants.

Snyder et. al (2001) evaluated a visitation program in a Midwestern women's prison referred to as Mother-Child Visitation Program (MCVP). The program consisted of monthly contact visits, outside of the institutionally designated visiting room, which contains "Barney", Disney figures, and other cartoon characters on the walls. Child-sized furniture, carpeting, games, arts and crafts and quiet time were a designed part of the MCVP. Volunteer drivers and aides were also a part of the program and were all approved to work with the children. Snyder et. al (2001) interviewed 31 mothers who participated in this program and 27 control subjects who were on the waiting-list for the program but did not participate during the study period. Snyder et. al (2001) found that the majority of the women wanted to participate in this program to see that their child/children were "doing okay." The mothers of older children who had more frequent contact with their children, spent time discussing important issues such as behavior, their feelings, staying away from drugs, and safe sex. Mothers of younger children sung songs and told the children's jokes. Snyder et. al (2001) found a moderate association between MCVP participation and the frequency of letters and/or phone calls from the children. The MCVP program

appeared to enable more frequent communication between mothers and their children and several mothers noted that the phone calls and letters now reflected future plans for contact visits. Additionally, the MCVP mothers' reported feeling less fear about parenting and felt that their children were doing better than the mothers on the waiting list (the control group). However, there was little difference in the overall perception of the quality of their relationship with their children (Snyder et. al, 2001).

Klein et. al (1999), based on evaluations of current family education programs in the correctional setting, developed a classification system as a basis for evaluating existing programs. The researchers suggested that the classification include the program purpose, the program content and the level of interaction between professional and participant. The data was based on The Utah Department of Corrections family programs in both the male and female institutions. The researchers also conducted interviews with the inmates before they began the class and on the last class date. The researchers also returned to interview the inmates 2 years later during a post class period. One of the major findings of the research was the significant differences in the closeness of family ties between the male and female prisoners. The females lacked significant ties to their husband, father, or boyfriends and had a general lack of involvement except for some contact with their children (Klein et. al, 1999). The researchers reported that there were numerous challenges experienced by the women that prohibited them from maintaining significant ties, especially related to financial situations at home.

Prison Adjustment (Studies of Male and Female Adjustment)

Adjusting to prison can be difficult for many inmates, yet there is scant research on this issue (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2001; Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2003; Sappington, 1996; Tischler and Marguart, 1989). Often studies of behavioral incidences compare female and male inmates (Tischler and Marguart, 1989) despite the differences in the populations and their needs (Tischler and Marguart, 1989). Paulus and Dzindolet (1993) administered a questionnaire to 106 inmates in a southwestern federal correctional facility and compared reactions to confinement for female and male inmates and found that adjustment to prison did not improve over time (Paulus and Dzindolet, 1993). Pollock-Byrne (1990) suggested that the problems related to prison adjustment in women should be addressed further in subsequent research.

In a study comparing disciplinary infraction rates among female and male inmates Tischler and Marguart (1989) collected official reports of rule violations for a four-year period from the Texas Department of Corrections (TDC). The researchers matched two male and two female institutions based on their security classifications and average yearly populations. Tischler and Marguart (1989) found that for the four-year period of 1983-1986 females committed a total of 17,305 offenses with a mean of 2,163 offenses per year compared to males who committed 17,356 infractions with a mean of 2,169.5 infractions per year. There were no significant differences in the two populations in the number of total offenses committed. However, female inmates had more reported incidents of creating a disturbance and aggressive behavior than their male counterparts. The females were engaged in more physical altercations with other inmates and committed sexual offenses more frequently than their male counterparts (Tischler and

Marguart, 1989). This difference was significant and Tischler and Marguart attributed the difference to the social and role expectations of women. They believed that women were more inclined to respond with hostility to their imprisonment (Tischler and Marguart, 1989).

Another study conducted by Casey-Acevedo and Bakken (2003) examined the disciplinary behavior of a sample of 222 women released from a large maximum security prison. The sample was divided into different disciplinary groups based on the seriousness of the behavior. The disciplinary data was collected from the inmates' institutional records and were separated into categories of "violent," "serious," and "minor (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2003, 46). The researchers found that the majority of women either did not commit infractions or were involved in only minor infractions. Additionally, women who committed minor infractions were indistinguishable from the women who committed no infractions. Moreover, the violent group averaged 6.6 infractions per year compared to the average of 2.0 infractions per year for those offenders who committed only minor offenses (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2003). After analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data in this study the researchers suggested that "focusing on inmates' behavior alone illustrates only some of the factors that contribute to prison adjustment" (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2003, 58). To that end, Zamble and Poporino (1990) did a study on male inmates and the authors suggested that imprisonment fails to change behavior and many prisoners lack sufficient coping skills; thus it becomes more difficult for them to adapt to the prison environment. Zamble and Poporino (1990) further suggest that more prison programs should be adopted earlier on in the imprisonment cycle and should target specific behavioral patterns in order to affect

behavioral changes. Their assumptions were based on structured interviews, self-reported questionnaires, medical files and institutionally reported disciplinary infractions of 133 subjects in a Canadian Correctional Facility (Zamble and Poporino, 1990). The researcher of the current study suspects that Zamble and Poporino's suggestions for prison programming are important to consider in both male and female populations and uses this study as a basis for the current study.

Other researchers have used self-report personality measures to assess the emotional state of inmates and their ability to cope with imprisonment (Carey et. al, 1987; Carbonell et. al, 1984; Zamble and Proporino, 1990). Negy et. al (1997) used both personality assessment tools and disciplinary infractions to measure adjustment of 153 women to prison-life. Negy et. al (1997) used a sample of 153 out of 618 female inmates from a minimum-security prison camp to identify coping strategies associated with psychosocial adjustment. The inmates completed a demographic questionnaire, the COPE inventory, the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, the Beck Depression Inventory and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Negy et. al, 1997). The researchers found that some coping strategies, such as planning actions and reinterpreting stressful events in a positive way, were associated with higher levels of psychosocial adjustment to prison and increased self-esteem for incarcerated women (Negy et. al, 1997).

Sappington (1996) used disciplinary offenses, the Brief Affect Adjective Checklist, trait version (BAACL), and the Brief Novaco Anger Scale to measure prison adjustment for 48 inmates who were in an anger management program (Sappington, 1996). Warren et. al (2004) used institutional disciplinary records, the self-reported Prison Violence Inventory, the Security classification (low, medium or high custody level

according to the institutional records), the Prison Adjustment Questionnaire, and the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI) for 777 maximum-security inmates to assess the prison adjustment for female inmates (Warren et. al, 2004).

Carey et. al (1987) found that personality tests are highly predictive of inmate adjustment. Howze-Browne (1989) used the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) to study self-esteem and adjustment in 29 incarcerated women. Howze-Browne suggested that the maternal role was closely tied to self-esteem. Moreover, most incarcerated mothers perceive their role as mother as primary to their sense of identity (Howze-Browne, 1989; Boudin, 1998). Berry (1999) administered the RSE to 109 incarcerated mothers at a minimum-security prison as one variable in her theory of maternal role strain of incarcerated women. Berry (1999) found that commitment to the parental role had a significant effect on the self-esteem of the women. Berry and Eigenberg (2003) suggested that strategies for reducing maternal role strain should be devised along with finding ways to help women with mothering and maintaining parental relationships while incarcerated (Berry and Eigenberg, 2003).

Other factors have been found to contribute to prison adjustment for female inmates. Genders and Player (1995) suggested that although prison life is stressful for everyone, it is particularly stressful for women in prison. In a study of 55 incarcerated women, Fogel (1993) found that the majority of women stated that worrying about their children, the loss of control over their lives and the separation from their family were the greatest sources of emotional strain. This finding was echoed by other researchers who also found that separation and loss were paramount adjustment issues for incarcerated mothers (Boudin, 1998; Henriques, 1996). Fox (1982) found anecdotal evidence that the

expansion of correctional programs and increased visitation significantly reduced interpersonal conflict and improved prison adjustment for women in Bedford Hills Correctional Center.

The mother/child relationship: Its effects on visitation and adjustment

While there have been many studies and theories surrounding the effect of incarceration and separation on children, little attention has been given to the effects on the mothers (Clark, 1979; Rocheleau, 1987; Wine, 1992). Pogrebin and Dodge's study based on in-depth interviews with 54 female subjects, found that being separated from their children induced stress and threatened the self-esteem of incarcerated mothers (Pogrebin and Dodge, 2001). They found that many mothers were not in contact with their children or had several children separated in different homes. Moreover, they often did not have mail or phone contact with their children and were at a complete loss as to how they can regain contact with their children. Many other women reported no visits with their children and the loss of outside personal relationships with husbands, or other family members who may know where their children are (Pogrebin and Dodge, 2001). Other researchers have found that many women maintain contact with their families, and children through phone calls and letters but they do not receive contact visits from their family members and children (Henriques, 1982; Banauch 1985). Contact visits are an important tool in preserving the mother-child relationship and assist both parties in the eventual reunification after incarceration (Henriques, 1996).

Other researchers have done research on the frequency of contact between incarcerated mothers and their children. Bloom and Steinhart (1993) found that, among the 846 women surveyed, 54% report that they never had any contact with their children

during their incarceration. The reason most often cited by the mothers (43%), for not receiving visits was the distance between where the child resides and the correctional facility. The correctional system often places women at considerable distances from their family due to the limited number of correctional facilities for women. The other predominant reason cited was the unwillingness of the caretakers to visit (Bloom and Steinhart, 1993). Casey-Acevedo and Bakken (2002) reported that of the 158 women who were mothers of minor children in their visitation study, 61% of the women did not receive visits from their children. They reported that women do receive visits from family and friends but not necessarily from their children (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2002). Despite these obstacles many women had plans of rejoining their children upon their release and re-establishing their maternal role.

Further compounding the problem of limited visitation is that many children are deceived as to the whereabouts of their mother. Children are often told that their mother is in the hospital, in school or working far away (Rocheleau, 1987). After the mother is arrested, often times there is no opportunity for the mother to explain her placement to her children, and the caregivers may opt to wait until the children ask questions before telling them the truth (Rocheleau, 1987). Other mothers may prefer to cloak their incarceration in secrecy to protect the child from knowing the truth. These feelings are largely attributed to her feelings of low self-esteem and inadequacy and her feelings of not being worthy of contact with her children (Boudin, 1997; Beckerman, 2001), or feeling that the children will resent her (Baunach, 1985). Moreover, Baunach (1985) states that once the children become aware of their mother's whereabouts there is confusion and reluctance to admit this to others. Other women view visitation as both a

financial and emotional burden on the caregivers and children, and thus prefer not to receive visits (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2002).

According to Boudin (1997) and Baunach (1985), mothers often feel a sense of loss of their maternal influence and identity. They must deal with the fact that they miss many important events in their children's lives and are unable to participate in many important decisions. Furthermore, they often fear that the children will bond more with the caregiver and that their reunification with the child will be problematic (Baunach, 1985; Boudin, 1997). The mothers also worry about their children's health, behavioral adaptation and overall safety (Baunach, 1985; Rocheleau, 1987; Richards 1992). These fears are compounded when visitation and other forms of contact are non-existent (Henriques, 1996). Besides fear, many mothers experience shame and guilt associated with their incarceration (Boudin, 1998). Boudin (1998) reported that when incarcerated mothers shared their stories it helped them to be less defensive, more receptive to visitation by children, and more willing to answer the children's questions regarding imprisonment and other issues related to their incarceration.

Although researchers have found a variety of reasons why women do not receive visits or do not want to receive visits, in some cases; visits by children lessen the detrimental consequences of separation for families and inmates. Moreover, visitation programs can strengthen mother-children relationships and probably increase the possibility of successful prison adjustment and reunification (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2002). Many mothers desire to reunify with their children and many will after incarceration (Dalley, 2002; Henriques, 1996).

The mother/caregiver relationship: Its effect on visitation and adjustment

According to Bloom and Steinhart (1993) more than a third of the children of incarcerated mothers lived with their maternal grandmothers, (36.7%). Bloom and Steinhart (1993) reported that only 17.4% of children with incarcerated mothers live with their father. However, by 1999, 28% of the children of incarcerated mothers reside with their fathers (DeAngelis, 2001b). Incarcerated mothers often rely on several different caregivers to care for their multiple children thus compounding the stress on the children's well being (Wright and Seymour, 2001; Raimon, 2001; Enos, 2001). Irrespective of who the caregivers are, they face multiple problems when they accept responsibility for the children of incarcerated mothers. The most important problem faced by these caregivers is the trauma experienced by the children whose mother has gone to jail or prison. They must help the children deal with a variety of psychological and emotional problems. This is in no way minimized by their own trauma and disappointment in the mother for the actions that led to her arrest and imprisonment (Bloom and Steinhart, 1993; Wright and Seymour 2001; Phillips and Bloom, 2001).

Mothers are often faced with accepting the caregiver as primary parent or disciplinarian and the loss of their own authority as parents. The incarcerated mother is dependent on the caregiver to maintain contact with her child(ren). Some caregivers feel that it is in the best interest of the child to sever ties while others simply cannot handle the financial burden it places on them in caring for the child(ren) (Bloom and Steinhart, 1993; Enos, 2001). This often strained relationship between the caregivers and the mother affects their ability to receive contact visits from their children and is often times a considerable barrier to visitation (Bloom and Steinhart, 1993; Enos, 2001).

Other barriers to visitation

Women who have children under the care of caregivers or foster care have serious barriers to communication and visitation that are a direct result of the inability to use the telephone (Raimon 2001). Incarcerated women have limited access to the telephone or the caregivers are often unable to accept the collect phone calls from the prison or jail (Raimon 2001). Other women reported that they have strained relationships with their children's caregiver, thus the caregivers are reluctant to bring the children to the prison (Bloom and Steinhart, 1993). Studies have also shown that mothers with younger children are less likely to receive visits or be able to maintain continued contact with their children (McGowan and Blumenthal, 1978; Stanton, 1980). Casey-Acevedo and Bakken (2002) noted that the distance from the prison may be a major barrier to visitation.

Factors related to prison misconduct

Race

Race is a predictor of both behavioral infractions and visitation by children. Kruttschnitt and Krmpotich (1990) conducted a study based on data gathered from the Minnesota Correction Facility for female felons and examined the extent of aggressive behavior among female inmates and the factors that were associated with significant aggressive behavior. Among the 53 women surveyed, race, age, and time served were variables found to affect the inmates' behavior (Kruttschnitt and Krmpotich, 1990). According to Kruttschnitt and Krmpotich, white female inmates were less aggressive than minorities (Kruttschnitt and Krmpotich, 1990).

Casey-Acevedo and Bakken found in their 2003 study, where they examined the disciplinary records of 222 women who were released from a maximum security prison, that race was related to violent disciplinary offenses. Moreover, they found that black women were more likely to be involved in disciplinary infractions involving assaults (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2003). In another study Sorenson et. al (1998) found that age and race were consistent predictors of rule violating behavior.

Using both the participant observation method and secondary data analysis in their 2002 study, Casey-Acevedo and Bakken examined the visitation data of 222 women who averaged 22 months of incarceration. Additionally, they conducted unstructured interviews with staff members, inmates, and prison volunteers. The researchers also analyzed visitation by children and they found that there was a significant difference among the women by race. White women received more visits in general than the other races. However, black women received more visits from their children than other groups.

Berry and Eigenberg (2003) reported that white women experience more maternal role strain than women of color. Berry and Eigenberg (2003) reported that previous research suggests that black women are more likely to have more options in finding a caregiver for their children than white women. They suggest that women of color are less likely to associate physical presence with adequate mothering because they have been disproportionately poorer and have had to work outside of the home to help the family survive (Berry and Eigenberg, 2003).

Education Level and Length of Sentence

Casey-Acevedo and Bakken (2001) researched the effect of time received, by incarcerated women, on prison behavior. The researchers collected data on a sample of

222 women released from a maximum-security prison and focused the article on the 123 inmates who engaged in disciplinary infractions (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2001). Casey-Acevedo and Bakken examined institutional records on the disciplinary offenses, which were classified as violent, serious, and minor. The sample was also divided into short-term and long-term inmates (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2001). The researchers found that long-term female inmates were younger, more educated, and more violent than short-term inmates. Moreover, the long-term inmates spent three times as many months in prison compared to the short-term inmates (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2001). Earlier in a study by Craddock (1996), the researcher found that younger women with longer sentences were more likely to violate prison norms.

Time Served

Researchers believe that time served and the length of sentence given has an effect on inmates' behavior and adjustment to prison (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2001; Kruttschnitt and Krmpotich, 1990; Sorensen and Wrinkle; 1996). Based on the findings of a self-reported questionnaire Kruttschnitt and Krmpotich (1990) reported that there was no correlation between time served or the length of sentence and behavior. However, Sorensen and Wrinkle found that inmates commit fewer infractions with time served (Sorensen and Wrinkle, 1996). Casey-Acevedo and Bakken (2001) examined disciplinary infractions of 123 women who were released from a maximum-security prison located in the northeastern United States. They selected a 2-year cohort that was representative of all women released from the prison for the study period and examined their disciplinary records for the entire time they were incarcerated. They found that female inmates who were incarcerated for 18 months or less were less likely to commit a high number of

infractions in the beginning of their prison terms. However, during the end of their 4th quarter of incarceration their misbehavior escalated (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2001). Casey-Acevedo and Bakken also found that women incarcerated for more than 18 months acted out more toward the beginning of their prison terms and showed improvements in their behavior towards the end of their terms. Despite this difference in the short-term and long-term groups both groups still produced an inverted U-shaped pattern, with higher percentages of infractions in the 2nd and 3rd quarters of their sentences (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2001).

Berry and Eigenberg (2003) suggested that the longer a woman is separated from her children, the more maternal role strain she experienced. Time served has a significant effect on maternal role strain. Moreover, the longer a woman is incarcerated the more difficult it is for her to perform mothering acts and maintain her role as mother thus increasing her maternal role strain (Berry and Eigenberg, 2003).

Age

Craddock found that younger women with longer sentences were more likely to violate prison norms (Craddock, 1996). Casey-Acevedo and Bakken (2001) found that long-term female inmates were younger, more educated, and more violent than short-term inmates. Sorenson and Wrinkle found that younger inmates commit more overall violations, as well as infractions involving assaults (Sorenson and Wrinkle, 1996).

Age was also found to have an effect on prison visitation (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2002). Researchers found that there was a significant difference in age and visitation by children. Younger inmates received significantly more visits from their children than older inmates (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2002). The researchers theorize

that this is due to the fact that the older the inmate the more likely that her child(ren) may be over ten and would have developed negative attitudes about visitation or would have developed other interests (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2002).

Berry and Eigenberg (2003) found that age was not a significant factor for parental role strain. They suggest that this is not unexpected as there was no reason to expect that age would be related to maternal role strain (Berry and Eigenberg, 2003).

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a review of the literature relevant to this study focusing specifically on prison visitation programs, prison adjustment, the mother/child relationship and its effects on visitation and adjustment, the mother/caregiver relationship and its effects on visitation and adjustment, other barriers to visitation and the potential of race, education level, sentence length, time served and age as covariates in the study. The review suggests that prison visitation programs have been a way for incarcerated women to maintain contact with their children. The literature also suggests that visitation helps to preserve the mother-child relationship and decreases the feelings of fear and anxiety experienced by the mothers. The literature review addressed the ways in which prison adjustment has been measured by other researchers suggesting that there has been a precedent set for the use of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale in the incarcerated population. The literature review found that there were several factors that affected the incarcerated mothers' ability to receive contact visits from their children. The factors include the mother/child relationship itself, the mother/caregiver relationship and other issues related to the distance of the prisons to the children's homes and the cost of

visitation. Finally, the literature review gave a foundation for the use of race, age, educational level, time served and the length of sentence as possible covariates.

Chapter IV

Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were 671 female inmates from the Lowell and Hernando Correctional Facilities. The intervention group consisted of 335 women who participated in the Face-to-Face program, during January 2000 and December 2002. The comparison group consisted of a random sample of 336 inmates who did not participate in the Face-to-Face program during the study's two year time interval. The randomization was conducted by the Florida Department of Corrections research division. This was done by removing the Face-to-Face participants from the file and having the computer randomly generate a list of 336 inmates who were also eligible to participate in the Face-to-Face program. The researcher received demographic information compiled by the Florida Department of Corrections, such as age, race, time served, sentence length, educational level, and the number of children for both the intervention and comparison groups. This data was given electronically in a spreadsheet format to the researcher for analysis.

Data Collection Method

The purpose of this study is to analyze whether video conferencing visits between mothers in prison and their children can be effective in improving the incarcerated mothers' behavioral adjustment in prison, the incarcerated mothers' self-esteem, and the mothers' relationship with their children. The Face-to-Face program will be studied using a mixed method approach where quantitative and qualitative data will be analyzed. The

researcher will first describe the Face-to-Face program followed by the methodology used to analyze the program.

This study examined data collected from the Florida Department of Corrections Face-to-Face program during January 2000 until December 2002. The Face-to-Face program is a videoconferencing visitation program for incarcerated women, with children, who are currently located at Lowell Correctional Institute and the Hernando Correctional Institute. The Face-to-Face program is a multi-faceted program that includes group counseling sessions with the program participants that take place once a week for 2 hours, where the inmate mothers share their parenting experiences, their prison experiences and discuss their lives prior to incarceration as well as ways to improve their parenting skills while incarcerated and upon release from prison. The group discussions focus on the development of the female participants' self-esteem, their literacy skills, and the development of their parenting skills. Prior research has found that the participants of a peer support model, within the prison setting, noted that their experience was rewarding and that they were able to help each other cope with the issues of being mothers and prisoners (Boudin, 1998).

The Face-to Face program also includes video conferencing visits with inmates and their children or grandchildren and the caregivers of said children, followed immediately by debriefing sessions with the site coordinators. Each location has a coordinator who facilitates the discussions, contacts and often convinces the caregivers to bring the children to the offsite locations for video visits, and counsels the inmates after their video visit sessions. The women are encouraged to write letters discussing their feelings and to help in the flow of the group discussions where the letters are often read

aloud. The final aspect of the Face-to-Face program includes the selection of books that are sent by the mothers to children as an icebreaker for discussions. During the video visits the women either have the children read the book to them or they read the book to the children. According to the program administration, this component has been motivation for many of the women to improve their literacy skills. There were a total of 335 inmates that participated in the Face-to-Face program, in some capacity, during the two-year period of January 2000 until December 2002.

The analysis of the Face-to-Face program was conducted as both quantitative and qualitative and data for the analysis was collected in four phases from the program administrator who is also the designee from The Bureau of Transition Services Office of Programs, Transition, and Post-release Services. The researcher made several trips to the Florida Department of Corrections in order to obtain IRB approval (see Appendix C), which was obtained electronically via email and sent directly to the researcher. IRB allowed the researchers to interview the Face-to-Face participants, and staff, as well as for gaining access to the program participants' files maintained by the Department of Corrections, which was obtained by the designee and conveyed to the researcher via email.

In Phase I of the data collection the researcher conducted a literature review and obtained background information on the Face-to-Face program. The researcher, through the assistance of her advisors, was able to make contact with the Florida Department of Corrections and obtain more information on the Face-to-Face program and its participants. Much of Phase I was spent obtaining literature and learning more about the program.

During Phase II of the data collection process the researcher obtained permission to meet with the relevant study participants and staff members. The researcher was subsequently scheduled for a visit to Lowell Correctional Facility to conduct semi-structured interviews with the program administrator and the site coordinator. Later the researcher was allowed to observe a 30 minute video visit between an inmate, her mother and her son. Immediately following the video visit the researcher participated in the after-visit debrief between the site coordinator and the inmate. During this debriefing session the researcher was allowed to ask questions directly to the inmate. The data collection method used here is called participant observation or “participant as observer” (Creswell, 2003).

After the 30 minute debriefing session the researcher conducted an open ended focus group with Face-to-Face participants (intervention group) from Lowell Correctional Facility, the site coordinator at Lowell, and the program administrator from the Bureau of Transition Services Office of Programs, Transition, and Post-release Services responsible for overseeing the program and maintaining the inmate records from the program. The focus group was conducted with 16 inmates selected from the Face-to-Face program by the site coordinator. The 16 women selected by the site coordinator to participate in the focus group were interviewed by the coordinator in the days prior to the researcher’s arrival and they gave consent, to the coordinator, to be part of the focus group. The coordinator wanted to select women who were actively receiving visits, women who have not yet received visits, but have participated in other aspects of the program, as well as a few grandmothers who use the program either to visit with their grandchildren or hope to meet with their grandchildren as a result of the program. There

was also one woman present who was neither a mother nor a grandmother and was allowed to participate in the program so that she can visit with her godchildren and her nieces and nephews.

In Phase II, the researcher selected the open-ended and closed-ended interview technique to interview the program administrator and the site coordinator because these interviews would establish the history of the program and familiarize the researcher with the study population. Also in Phase II the researcher participated in a video conferencing visit as an observer and as a participant-observer for the debriefing immediately following. This method was selected because the researcher hoped to witness the format for a technical video visit in its normal setting. The researcher also hoped that participating in the debriefing session would give her an opportunity to ask questions directly to the inmate immediately after the interaction with her child and his caregiver.

In the final data collection portion of Phase II, the researcher selected the focus group method for several reasons. The first reason is that the researcher during this exploratory stage of the research hoped to learn more about the Face-to-Face program, the participants of the Face-to-Face program, and their children. Additionally, the researcher was well aware that much of the Face-to-Face program involved group interactions and that the women were already quite accustomed to working together. As a result they may be more inclined to share their experiences and thoughts on the program if they were in a familiar setting. The researcher also selected the focus group method for logistical reasons. The Department of Corrections impressed upon the researcher that individual interviews were more taxing on the department and would require allocation of personnel that was not feasible at the time requested. The focus group was also easy to

plan and facilitate as it was scheduled during the time of the normal Face-to-Face group meetings. The focus group also laid the foundation for themes that the researcher hoped to assess while analyzing the inmate and staff correspondences.

After the initial visit to the facility, the researcher planned Phase III of the data collection, where the arrangements were made with a designee from The Bureau of Transition Services Office of Programs, Transition, and Post-release Services for the researcher to receive all the data related to the Face-to-Face participants. In order to provide the researcher with these data the inmates' names and the Department of Corrections Number had to be removed from all data, and study numbers were issued instead to each participant. The de-identification of the data protects the identity of the subjects because the data was originally collected by the Department of Corrections for purposes of institutional record keeping and not for research. The designee maintained a separate spreadsheet where the study number and the department of corrections number could be cross-referenced. The process of de-identification was time consuming and took several months to be completed by the designee. Additionally, the researcher received electronic demographic data, including the study numbers for participants and the comparison group, who were also assigned study numbers by the Department of Corrections.

The researcher then scheduled another visit to the Florida Department of Corrections where Phase IV of the data were collected. The researcher copied the de-identified, pre and post tests of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scales and the Holt Survey. The RSE and Holt surveys were originally attached when administered to the women. Once the inmates completed the surveys they were filed in a folder set up for the inmates

with a copy of the surveys sent to the program administrator. The researcher found many of the surveys in a large box where they had been detached because the Department of Corrections was only interested in analyzing the RSE and had no immediate need for the Holt survey. Subsequently, the researcher had to figure out which Holt survey matched which RSE. Unfortunately, many Holt survey responses could not be considered for analysis either because the study number was missing or the date was missing making it impossible to separate the pre-test responses from the post-test responses. Another 34 RSE questionnaires were simply not found within any of the Department of Corrections files and could not be used for analysis.

Another problem encountered with the surveys was that many of them were missing dates. The researcher had to go back to the accompanying memorandum which listed the number of new participant requests for the previous month. The surveys from that file would then be back dated to the middle of the previous month as an estimation date. The major problem with the surveys was that at the end of the study period of December 2002 the coordinators made a hurried attempt to contact as many participants as possible in an effort to obtain post-test surveys to satisfy the grant requirements. This was largely unsuccessful because many participants were either transferred to other facilities or were released prior to this date without completing a post-test survey. Other participants simply could not get over to the coordinators' office to complete the survey on time.

The researcher also received a record of how many video conferencing visits the inmate received and when they received these visits. These data were maintained electronically in a spreadsheet as well as on the written memoranda from the two site

coordinators. The researcher received the data via electronic submission. Finally, the researcher was allowed to review all of the written correspondences related the Face-to-Face program and make copies of letters and the priorities worksheet written by inmates in the Face-to-Face program, the site coordinators monthly narratives and letters submitted by the hosting sites. In all, the researcher analyzed 15 letters written by the inmates, 15 letters written by the hosting off-site coordinators and 17 memoranda written by the site coordinator. The priorities worksheets were originally collected along with the RSE and Holt surveys at the end of study period. However, the Department of Corrections did not have much use for it so it lay separately in the box with the other documents collected from the inmates. The researcher was only able to obtain a small sample of 50 worksheets that was used to obtain common themes which will be discussed in Chapter V along with the letter analysis.

During this final data collection phase the researcher conducted another interview with the program administrator to clarify questions that arose from the previous two stages of data collection. The program administrator reported that the information from Hernando was often transmitted via email or over the telephone. The detailed analysis of the visits and the program operations for the Hernando site simply could not be captured for use within this paper. The researcher will present the findings of the inmate letters in the results sections of this paper.

Throughout Phases II, III and IV the researcher consistently updated the literature to reflect current studies. Moreover, upon final editing the researcher found more literature relevant to the study and includes these studies in the literature review.

Demographic Information

The following demographic information was obtained for the 671 women selected as part of the study: Age, the number of children recorded on the visitation forms, the race of the subject, the education level of the inmate prior to incarceration, the sentence length given to the inmate, the time served (in actual prison time served in months not including any time spent in jail), the location of the inmate (either Lowell or Hernando Correctional Facility), and finally intervention or comparison group status. This data was submitted electronically by study number with no name or Department of Corrections identification number.

Instrument collection and design

The researcher obtained survey data from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scales, and from the Holt Survey of correctional programming. The researcher obtained survey data for only the intervention group based on the fact that the comparison group was assigned after the Face-to-Face program already began and was intended to be used only as a comparison for behavioral data and visit data. The data from the survey was analyzed by the researcher using the quasi-experimental one-group pretest-posttest comparison group design (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). The intervention group (the Face-to-Face participants) was not randomly selected and was based on self-selected volunteers who either wished to reconnect with their children or felt that the coordinators would be able to arrange for video conferencing visitation with their children, through coordination with the child(ren)'s caregivers. The one-group pretest-posttest non-randomized design was

used to assess the self-esteem differences of the intervention group (the Face-to-Face participants) prior to and after completing the Face-to-Face program.

In order to assess the self-esteem of the participants of the Face-to-Face program, The Florida Department of Corrections administered the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale (RSE) (Appendix A) as a pre and post test to inmates participating in the Face-to-Face program. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale is a four point Likert Scale with values of strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem measures the inmates' self-concepts and has been used to measure the inmates' adjustment to prison (Negy et. al, 1997). According to an interview with the program administrator when the researcher asked why the Department of Corrections decided to select RSE the administrator stated that,

“The RSE was selected prior to my joining this department. However, based on the notes left by my predecessor, the Florida Department of Corrections selected this particular scale because the prison population includes individuals of varying education levels. The scale is written in simple language and is an ideal choice for this group. I have also found it very easy to score. There is so much information available about this scale on the Internet that it was just the best choice for us.”

The researcher asked “how is self-esteem related to the Face-to-Face program? Why did you decide to even look at self-esteem?”

“The women learn about how self-esteem is important in parenting. It's important for them to build up their self-esteem so that they can be better mothers when they get out and hopefully they won't come back.”

Regarding the use of the Holt Survey the program administrator stated that,

“The Holt Survey is just a standard form we use for all corrections programs. It helps us know what programs the inmates are

interested in and it also gives us some information on their family life.”

The researcher received 301 completed pre-test Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scales and 105 completed post-test surveys available for analysis. The site coordinators reported that they were unable to contact all of the Face-to-Face participants to complete the post-test surveys at the end of the 2 year period. The participants who were unreachable were either transferred without notice or neglected to complete a survey before being released from the institution.

The researcher also compared the intervention group’s behavior and frequency of contact visits to the comparison group. These data were collected for the six month period prior to the start of the program/study, the first six months of the program/study and the final six months of the study period.

Finally, the researcher analyzed the contents of 15 letters from an off-site video location, 17 memoranda from the site coordinator, and 15 letters written by participants of the Face-to-Face program and 50 worksheets collected at the end of the Face-to-Face program.

Quantitative Data

Measurement of key variables

- Age: The age of the participants was calculated as of the last day of the year prior to the study period (December 31, 1999).

- Education Level: The educational level of the subjects was based upon demographic data collected upon the inmates' original admission into the correctional system.
- Length of Sentence: The length of sentence data was based upon the institutional records of how much time the inmates were sentenced to by the courts.
- Time Served: The time served was calculated as of the last date of the year prior to the study start date (December 31, 1999). This variable does not include time spent in county jails.
- The number of children below 18: These data were taken from the visit forms and is only available for inmates who have received institutional contact visits.
- The number of minor DRs (disciplinary infractions) for time period A: These data reflect the institutionally collected cumulative number of minor infractions committed by the inmates immediately prior to the start of the study period, (July 1, 1999 until December 31, 1999). The minor or major categories were already designated by Florida DOCs and required no further action by the researcher.
- The number of minor DRs for time period B: These data reflect the institutionally collected cumulative number of minor infractions committed by the inmates during the first six months of the study, (January 1, 2000 until June 30, 2000).
- The number of minor DRs for time period C: These data reflect the institutionally collected cumulative number of minor infractions committed by

- the inmates during the final six months of the study, (July 1, 2002 until December 31, 2002).
- The number of major DRs for time period A: These data reflect the institutionally collected cumulative number of major infractions committed by the inmates immediately prior to the start of the study period, (July 1, 1999 until December 31, 1999).
 - The number of major DRs for time period B: These data reflect the institutionally collected cumulative number of major infractions committed by the inmates during the first six months of the study, (January 1, 2000 until June 30, 2000).
 - The number of major DRs for time period C: These data reflect the institutionally collected cumulative number of major infractions committed by the inmates during the final six months of the study, (July 1, 2002 until December 31, 2002).
 - The number of contact visits for time period C: These data were based upon a cumulative number of institutionally recorded contact visits. These data were not available electronically for the other time periods because prior to June 2002 these data were not maintained by the Florida Department of Corrections.
 - Self-Esteem: These data were based on the responses to the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scales. The responses for items 1, 4, 6 and 7 are evaluated for this study. Question 1: *"I am able to do things as well as most people."* Question 4: *"I take a positive attitude toward myself."* Question 6: *"On the whole, I am satisfied with myself."* Question 7: *"I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least*

as good as others.” These questions have responses of 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree and 4=Strongly Agree. These four questions were selected by the researcher from a group of ten questions related directly to self-esteem. On Table D-1 of Society and the Adolescent Self-Image (Rosenberg, 1965) these questions were related to Self-Esteem while the other questions on the scale refer to Stability of Self Scale, Faith in People Scale and sensitivity to Criticism Scale (Rosenberg, 1965, 305-319).

Quantitative analysis

The quantitative portion of the study consists of a multi-part analysis including descriptive statistics, t-test analyses and regression analyses. The descriptive analysis was conducted to provide summary information on the study participants. T-test analyses were conducted to compare the independent variables of the Face-to-Face participants to the comparison group. Finally, the researcher performed regression analyses to test for differences in outcomes while controlling for group differences.

Table 0 *Methodology Summary Table*

Measures	Intervention	Comparison Group
Major/Minor Infractions	X	X
Independent Variables	X	X
(RSE)/Holt Survey	X	
Contact Visits (Time C)	X	X
Video Visits	X	
Letters	X	
Memorandums	X	
Video Analysis	X	

Descriptive analysis

The researcher performed descriptive analysis to establish whether or not there were significant differences between the intervention and comparison groups. This was necessary because the study was not a true experiment and the researcher suspected that there may be differences in the two groups. The intervention group was a self-selected group of volunteers who wanted to participate in the Face-to-Face program. On the other hand, the comparison group was chosen randomly by the Department of Corrections research division from the sample of inmates in the Hernando Correctional Facility and the Lowell Correctional Facility who were not already in the Face-to-Face program. The research division simply removed the Face-to-Face participants and then used the computer to randomly select the 336 comparison group subjects.

Dependent Variables

The study examined three main dependent variables: behavioral adjustments, self-esteem, and the number of contact visits between the incarcerated mothers and their children. Behavioral adjustments were measured using the official institutional disciplinary records (DRs). The DRs were recorded electronically by Florida DOCs and was given to the researcher for analysis. The DRs were broken down, by DOCs, into major and minor infractions. The researcher was provided with the official Department of Corrections list of infractions but was not provided with the formula for how an infraction is designated as minor or major. The Department of Corrections provided the researcher with the total number of major and minor infractions committed by the inmates for the three given time periods; Time Period A (July 1, 1999 until December 31, 1999); Time Period B (January 1, 2000 until June 30, 2000); and Time Period C (July 1, 2002 until December 31, 2002). The behavioral measures for the 335 Face-to-Face participants were compared to a random sample of 336 inmates not participating in the program.

The self-esteem variable was a self-analysis measure and was computed only for the Face-to-Face participants using four questions selected by the researcher from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scales. Finally, the number of contact visits received by the Face-to-Face participants, between the mother and their children, were compared to the comparison group.

Behavior

Information regarding how many DRs the inmate received was examined for the participants of the Face-to-Face program and the randomized comparison group sample

during different time intervals. The DRs were separated into major and minor infractions and were obtained for the following time periods: six months prior to the start of the Face-to-Face program (July 1, 1999 to December 31, 1999), the first six months of the Face-to-Face program (January 1, 2000 to June 30, 2000) and the final six months of the Face-to-Face program (July 1, 2002 to December 31, 2002).

Hypothesis I: Women who participated in the Face-to-Face program would show significant improvements in their behavior at the conclusion of the two year study period, participating in fewer incidences of rule violating behavior than the comparison group.

It was expected that many of the women participated in rule violating behavior and compiled many disciplinary infractions. The Department of Corrections believed that discipline was a problem in their facilities (Florida Department of Corrections Annual Report (1997-98)), and hoped that this program to extend visitation would help alleviate the problem of misconduct.

Statistical method used to test Hypothesis I:

The DRs data was analyzed using an Independent-Samples T-Test where the groups were designated as intervention (participants of the Face-to-Face) program and comparison group (randomly selected women not participating the Face-to-Face program during the 2-year time period). The independent samples t-test compares the mean scores of the intervention group and the comparison group. This method was selected because the study consisted of only two groups and the independent samples t-test compares the means of two groups while other forms of analysis such as ANOVA assumes more than two groups. Moreover, the t-test allows the research to either accept the null (if the means

of the two groups are not significantly different) or reject the null (if the means of the two groups are significantly different (Kurtz, 1999).

Limitations of Hypothesis I:

The study was limited to self-selected subjects whose children also reside near the location of the video conferencing equipment and have caregivers who are willing to participate. The researcher was provided with the official department of corrections list of infractions but was not provided with the formula for how an infraction is designated as minor or major. This limited the researcher's ability to understand what types of infractions were categorized as either minor or major. Moreover, the researcher was not provided with the criteria used by the corrections officers in writing up disciplinary referrals. Besides these limitations the study may be subject to a historical threat and differences in behavior may be a direct result of historical changes within the prison itself and not a result of the program intervention.

Hypothesis II: Face-to-Face participants will show significant improvements in their self-esteem by the end of the study period.

Statistical method used to test Hypothesis II:

The researcher conducted a self-comparison using the Paired-Samples T-Test on the 105 participants that completed both Survey 1 and Survey 2. This method was used to compare the pre test questionnaire responses to the post test questionnaire responses. The paired samples t-test compares the means of two variables (in this case, pre and post test responses), and computes the difference between the two variables for each case to see if the average is significantly different from zero (Kurtz, 1999). In accepting the null the researcher assumes that there is no significant difference between the means of the two

variables. In rejecting the null the researcher assumes that there is a significant difference in the means of the two variables.

Limitations of Hypothesis II:

In measuring the self-esteem of the participants the researcher used the one-group pretest-posttest design which measures the difference in Outcome (O_1) and Outcome (O_2) based on X (The Face-to-Face program). This difference may actually be produced by other events in history based on the length of time between the pre and posttest, which in the study is 2 years (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). Much of the missing methodological data from (O_1) to (O_2) affected the researcher's ability to assess the differences in self-esteem from the beginning of the program to the end of the program.

Self-Esteem

The study also examined the self-esteem of the women that participated in the Face-to-Face program during the same 2-year time period. These data could not be obtained for the comparison group because they were not administered the questionnaire during the study period by Florida DOCs. The department of corrections administered the Rosenberg Scales to the women in the program when they signed up to participate and upon the end of the study period. The department of corrections staff believed that building self-esteem was a major goal for the Face-to-Face program⁶. Prior research suggests that incarcerated mothers may have difficulties in the future if they suffer from low self-esteem (Howze-Browne, 1989).

To measure the self-esteem of the women in the Face-to-Face program, the researcher analyzed the data collected from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scales that were

administered to participants. The researcher selected questions 1, 4, 6 and 7 for analysis. The researcher conducted self-comparisons of the participants using the paired samples t-test method.

Questions from RSE:

The researcher used the following items from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale to measure the self-esteem of the women:

1. (Quest1) I am able to do things as well as most people.
2. (Quest4) I take a positive attitude toward myself.
3. (Quest6) On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
4. (Quest7) I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least as good as others.

The questions were framed a four-point Likert-Scale with answers of 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=disagree and 4=strongly disagree. The entire survey can be found in Appendix A. There were a total of 301 first surveys (Survey1) completed and available for analysis and a total of 106, second surveys (Survey2) completed and available for analysis. Survey2 was reduced to 105 after the researcher discovered that only the Holt Survey was submitted for one of the participants and the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale portion was not attached and could not be matched. The researcher matched the study numbers for survey 1 to survey 2, comparing the dates on the top of the form to insure which survey was the predecessor. To conduct the analysis, the researcher used only the surveys in which both survey 1 and survey 2 were present (n=105). The remaining surveys could not be used in analysis because the researcher selected the paired samples t-test as her method of analysis.

Scoring the RSE

⁶ This information was obtained during the semi-structured interview process with the program administrator.

The researcher selected 4 of the 10 questions on the scale that were directly related to self-esteem. The remaining sections of the survey, which were not applicable to this particular study, are broken down into stability, faith and sensitivity to criticism. Besides being classified into self-esteem, stability, faith and sensitivity to criticism the RSE was also classified into Scales 1-VI (Rosenberg, 1965). A low score, on the questions evaluated by the researcher, indicated a high self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965). It is important to remember that the subjects were given the entire survey to complete with questions alternating between negative and positive statements “to reduce the danger of respondent set” (Rosenberg, 1965, 305). Based on the methods described in the aforementioned question, the researcher viewed a lower mean score as indicative of a higher self-esteem.

The number of contact visits

The researcher collected data on the number of contact visits between the incarcerated mothers and their children, the number of video conferencing visits between the incarcerated mothers and their children and the self-reported frequency data on how often the women received visits from their children.

Hypothesis III: It is expected that the women who participated in the Face-to-Face program will have more frequent contact visits with their children by the end of the study period.

Statistical Method used to test Hypothesis III:

The contact visits data at the end of the study period was analyzed using an Independent-Samples T-Test where the groups were designated as intervention (participants of the Face-to-Face) program and comparison group (randomly selected

women not participating the Face-to-Face program during the 2-year time period). The independent samples t-test compares the mean scores of the intervention group and the comparison group.

Limitations of Hypothesis III:

The study was not a true experiment and many of the study participants are self-select thus limiting their generalizability.

Hypothesis IV: The more video visits an inmate received the more the inmate will demonstrate improvements in behavior. Additionally, more video visits will in turn lead to more contact visits at the end of the study

One of the Face-to-Face program's goals was to establish or re-establish contact between the program's participants and their children, often for the first time, and to help them regain ongoing communication with their children. Based on the nature of the intervention provided by the site coordinator the researcher expected to find that there would be a significant correlation between receiving Face-to-Face visits and receiving contact visits. It is also expected that the more Face-to-Face visits an inmate received the more inmate will demonstrate improvements in behavior. There should be a negative correlation between the number of Face-to-Face visits and the number of infractions a women receives during period C. In terms of program dosage, more Face-to-Face visits should yield fewer infractions.

Statistical method used to test the Hypothesis IV:

The researcher conducted a correlation table with Pearson's r using the total number of Face-to-Face visits and the number of contact visits during the last six months of the study (period C). Pearson's r correlation provides the magnitude and direction of

the correlation (the direction should be positive). More Face-to-Face visits should yield more contact visits.

Limitations of Hypothesis IV:

Many of the study's limitations affect the experimental nature of the study and can be found in the summary of limitations section of this chapter.

Independent Variables

The Florida Department of Corrections provided the researcher with demographic information for the study population, both intervention and comparison groups, for the following independent variables: Race, Age, Education Level, Sentence Length, and Time Served. These variables have been found by other researchers to be predictors of rule violating behavior or of visitation. (See literature review section). The data for education level, sentence length and time served were presented as continuous variables to the by DOCs. In order to simplify classification of the findings the researcher broke these variables down into categorical variables.

The researcher changed the variable "age," to "age II" and re-categorized the participants' age into the following groups:

- 1=subjects under the age of 19;
- 2=subjects 19 to 25 years old;
- 3=subjects 26 to 35 years old;
- 4=subjects over 35 years old.

The variable "education level," which contained the education level at the time of incarceration of each subject in the intervention and comparison group became "education level II." The researcher separated the subjects into the following groups:

- 1=inmates with no formal education up until those with a 3rd grade education;

2=inmates who spent at least 1 month in the 3rd grade (3.1 years of education) to inmates who made it to the 6th grade;
 3=inmates who spent at least 1 month in the 6th grade (6.1 years of education) to those who were in the 8th grade for at least 9 months (8.9 years of education);
 4=inmates who made it to the 9th grade to those who spent 9 months in the 12th grade (12.9 years of education); and finally,
 5=inmates who completed high school and began college (13 or more years of education).⁷

The variable “sentence length” became “sentence length II”. The researcher separated the subjects into the following groups:

1=subjects who have been sentenced to 0 to 5 years;
 2=subjects who have been sentenced to 5.5 to 10 years;
 3=subjects who have been sentenced to 10.5 years to 15 years;
 4=subjects who have been sentenced to 15.5 years to life (the researcher used 150 years to cover all years above 15.5).⁸

Finally the researcher modified the “time served” to a variable entitled “time served II.” The researcher further separated the subjects into the following categories:

1=subjects who have served 0 to 18 months of their sentence;
 2=subjects who have served 18.1 to 42 months of their sentence;
 3=subjects who have served 42.1 to 60 months of their sentence;
 4=subjects who have served 60.1 to 180 months of their sentence;
 5=subjects who have served 180.1 to 500 months of their sentence.

Regression analysis

The researcher conducted regression analysis with the above independent variables and the dependent variables, behavior (DRs) and contact visits. This analysis was necessary for comparison between the intervention and comparison groups for the

⁷ The researcher chose to break down the variable “education level II” based on the way the data was presented by DOCs. i.e. .1 = 1 month and .8= 8 months. This was confirmed by the researcher with the research group at DOCs

⁸ The researcher broke the “sentence length II” variable down using increments of .5 because all the data received by DOCs included sentence lengths in that manner i.e. some inmates were sentenced to 1.5 years while others have sentences of 2.5 or 100 years.

following variables: race, age II, sentence length II, and time served II, where significant differences existed between the groups. Group assignment was also included as a predictor. Regression will control for the differences that exist in these other variables and provides a measure of the independent contribution of group assignment to the outcomes. In other words, when controlling for group differences, do the two groups differ on outcomes?

Summary of Study Limitations

The study was limited to self-selected subjects whose children also reside near the location of the video conferencing equipment and have caregivers who are willing to participate; therefore several characteristics have to exist in order to replicate the study. The self-selected nature of the participants may impact the study's findings. Additionally, the self-selected nature of the subjects may affect the study's generalizability to other locations.

The Florida Department of Corrections currently measures the number of women with children under 18 from self reported data on the visitation forms, which may greatly under represent the true number of women who have children. Despite attempts to collect this data on the Holt Surveys the large attrition rate of these surveys still left the researcher unable to really assess the number of children the women in the Face-to-Face program have. The researcher's inability to measure this precluded the use of regression analysis of this independent variable, which has been found to be a predictor of rule violating behavior and of visitation.

The researcher was provided with the official department of corrections list of infractions but was not provided with the formula for how an infraction is designated as minor or major. This limited the researcher's ability to understand what types of infractions were categorized as either minor or major. Moreover, the researcher was not provided with the criteria used by the corrections officers in writing up disciplinary referrals.

Many of the procedures for data collection such as the administering of the questionnaires were done by the same staff members who were running the program. The program coordinators functioned in many roles, they administered the questionnaires, initiated the first contact between the women and the caregivers, scheduled the video visits, conducted the group counseling sessions and also conducted the post-visit counseling sessions. This duplication of roles may function to limit the reliability and validity of the data collected because, the inmates may alter their behavior patterns to please the coordinators if they believed that they would be more inclined to help them reconnect with their children. Additionally, the women may have answered the questionnaires with responses that they felt were appropriate and pleasing to the coordinators but did not reflect their true feelings. In addition to the multi-role position as coordinator, the coordinators were not permanent staff members and consistently lived with the fear of losing their jobs if the funding for the program ran out. In simple terms, the staff had a vested interest in the program evaluation. Also, the coordinators were not given in specific training on how to deal with the issues of the incarcerated populations or with their family members on the outside.

Finally, study was not a true experiment and the comparison and intervention groups were not randomly assigned. In addition, in measuring the self-esteem of the participants the researcher used the one-group pretest-posttest design which measures the difference in Outcome (O_1) and Outcome (O_2) based on X (The Face-to-Face program). This difference may actually be produced by other events in history based on the length of time between the pre and posttest, which in the study is 2 years (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). Much of the missing methodological data from (O_1) to (O_2) affected the researcher's ability to assess the differences in self-esteem from the beginning of the program to the end of the program. Additionally, the study may be subject to a historical threat and differences in behavior may be a direct result of historical changes within the prison itself and not a result of the program intervention.

Chapter Summary

This chapter summarized the mixed model analysis used by the researcher to evaluate the Face-to-Face program. The researcher conducted qualitative and quantitative analyses in four phases. The first phase included a literature review and the collection of background information on the Face-to-Face program. In Phase II the researcher collected qualitative data and obtained all the necessary approval to conduct the study. In Phase III the researcher received electronic demographic data. In Phase IV the researcher collected more quantitative and qualitative data. Throughout the process the researcher reviewed and updated the literature.

This chapter also described the various quantitative methods used to analyze the data collected. The methods included descriptive analysis (Crosstabs), Independent

Samples T-Test, Paired Sample T-Test, Pearson's R Correlation (Dosage of Intervention Data), and Regression Analyses to determine the covariates.

Chapter V

Quantitative Results

Chapter Introduction

This chapter is presented in sections that describe the quantitative data analysis outlined in the methodology section of this paper. The first section investigates whether there were potential differences on several descriptive variables, within the intervention and comparison groups, such as race, education level, age, sentence length, and time served. The second section of this chapter presents the independent samples t-test results for the intervention and comparison groups based on the behavioral measures of major and minor infractions and the number of contact visits received by both groups at the end of the study period. This analysis will identify if there are any significant differences between the intervention and comparison group in terms of behavior and the number of contact visits received.

The third section will present paired samples t-test results for the pre and post test questionnaires completed by the intervention group. This will identify if there were any significant differences in the women's perception of their self-esteem before and after their completion of the Face-to-Face program. The fourth section will present the results of the Pearson's r correlation tables for the intervention group. This section examines the dosage of intervention data and tests whether there are significant correlations between receiving visits in the Face-to-Face program and receiving contact visits at the end of the study period; as well as the dosage data for infractions, which will identify if receiving Face-to-Face visits and receiving minor and major infractions at the end of the study

period are correlated significantly. Finally, the fifth section of this chapter will present the results of the regression analysis, which examines outcomes while controlling for group differences.

Section 1 - Descriptive Analysis using Crosstabs

This section will discuss Table 1, which contain the results of the descriptive analysis, conducted using cross tabs with Chi-square results. Table 1 also displays the mean and standard deviations of the independent variables.

According to the results displayed in Table 1 there are significant differences among the two groups for race, sentence length, time served, and age. There are significantly more black women in the intervention group and significantly more white women in the comparison group. The women's education levels are comparable with the majority of the women having less than 12 years of education. The intervention group has significantly more women with sentences of 5.5 to 10 years and significantly more women serving 15.5 to 150 years. In the comparison group significantly more women have served 0 to 18 months of their sentence with significantly fewer women in the comparison group serving 18.1 to 42 months of their sentence. Finally, there are significantly more women in the intervention group between 19 and 25 years old and there are significantly more women in the comparison group who are over 35 years old.

According to Table 2, the mean education level for both the comparison and intervention groups is about 8 years. In the intervention group the mean sentence length is 7.3 years while the mean sentence length for the comparison group is only 4.5 years. The mean time served for the intervention group is 26 months compared to 16.6 months for the comparison group. The mean age for intervention group was approximately 30

years old and 32 years old for the comparison group. In sum, the intervention group has a higher percentage of minority women who are younger and who have received longer sentences (and served more time) than the comparison group.

Table 1 *Independent variables for intervention and comparison groups*

Variable	Intervention Group % (n)	Comparison Group % (n)	Chi-Square
Race			.000**
White	23.6 (79)	50.3 (169)	
Black	70.4 (236)	46.4 (156)	
Hispanic	6.0 (20)	2.7 (9)	
Other	.0 (0)	.6 (2)	
Total	100 (335)	100 (336)	
Education			.074
0-3 years	3.4 (11)	4.8 (16)	
3.1-6 years	28.5 (93)	21.8 (72)	
6.1-8.9 years	27.9 (91)	24.8 (82)	
9-12.9 years	40.2 (131)	48.5 (160)	
Total	100 (326)	100 (330)	
Sentence Length			.029**
0-5 years	73.7 (247)	82.4 (277)	
5.5-10 years	14.6 (49)	9.2 (31)	
10.5-15 years	4.5 (15)	4.5 (15)	
15.5-150 years	7.2 (24)	3.9 (13)	
Total	100 (335)	100 (336)	
Time served			.000**
0-18 months	49.3 (165)	75.3 (253)	
18.1- 42 months	37.6 (126)	16.1 (54)	
42.1-60 months	6.3 (21)	2.7 (9)	
60.1 - 180 months	6.3 (21)	6.0 (20)	
180.1-500 months	.6 (2)	.0 (0)	
Total	100 (335)	100 (336)	
Age			.000**
Under 19	3.0 (10)	1.5 (5)	
19-25 years old	36.4 (122)	22.6 (76)	
26-35 years old	33.1 (111)	28.9 (97)	
Over 35 years old	27.5 (92)	47.0 (158)	
Total	100 (335)	100 (336)	

**Statistically significant results

Table 2 *Means and standard deviations for all independent variables*

	Intervention Group	Comparison Group
Number of subjects Educational Level in years	<u>N</u> 326 <u>M(SD)</u> 8.00/3.00	<u>N</u> 330 <u>M(SD)</u> 8.46/3.12
Number of subjects Sentence Length in Years	<u>N</u> 335 <u>M(SD)</u> 7.30/15.70	<u>N</u> 336 <u>M(SD)</u> 4.50/8.90
Number of subjects Time Served in Months	<u>N</u> 335 <u>M(SD)</u> 26.00/28.40	<u>N</u> 336 <u>M(SD)</u> 16.60/25.00
Number of subjects Age	<u>N</u> 335 <u>M(SD)</u> 29.70/8.40	<u>N</u> 336 <u>M(SD)</u> 31.90/9.20

Section 2- Independent samples T-tests

Section 2 presents the independent samples t-test results for the intervention and comparison groups using behavior and contact visits as the dependent variables. The t-test results for behavior can be found on Table 3 and Table 3.1. The behavior variable is separated into minor and major infractions and into time intervals. The time intervals are Time A (7/1/1999-12/31/1999, which represents the 6 months prior to the start of the program), Time B (1/1/2000-6/30/2000, which represents the first 6 months of the program), and Time C (7/1/2002-12/31/2002, which represents the final 6 months of the program).

According to Table 3 the independent samples t-test revealed mostly non-significant findings with the exception of a significant difference in minor infractions, between the intervention and comparison groups, during Time C. In this case, the women in intervention group received significantly more infractions than those in the comparison group (.21 versus .13). However, in general the number of infractions appeared to be small and was inconsistent with the behavioral problems reported anecdotally by the

Florida Department of Corrections. Based on this the researcher continued to investigate the belief by the DOCs that there was a major behavioral problem in their institutions. The researcher reviewed email correspondences, notes taken during meetings, and phone calls. Finally, the researcher confirmed that there were several incidences of infractions reported on the Department of Corrections website and this led to a reanalysis of the infraction data. Upon reanalyzing the data the researcher found that during the three time periods 85% or more of the women did not commit any infractions. The data was skewed to the left; even the majority of women who did commit infractions had only 1 infraction and a few outliers were responsible for the majority of the behavioral infractions in the prisons (Histograms for these data can be found on Figures 1 thru 6 in Appendix). Moreover, when all of the infractions were combined, the intervention group received slightly more infractions than the comparison group, though the difference was not statistically significant.

Table 3 *Independent Samples T-Test for Groups and Behavior*

	Status	T	Mean number of infractions	Df	Sig. (2-Tailed)
Number of minor infractions Time A (7/1/99-12/31/99)	Intervention Comparison	.139	.06 .06	669	.89
Number of major infractions Time A (7/1/99-12/31/99)	Intervention Comparison	.622	.23 .19	669	.53
Number of minor infractions Time B (1/1/00-6/30/00)	Intervention Comparison	.614	.07 .06	669	.54
Number of major infractions Time B (1/1/00-6/30/00)	Intervention Comparison	.954	.32 .25	669	.34
Number of minor infractions Time C (7/1/02-12/31/02)	Intervention Comparison	2.01	.21 .13	628.99	.04**
Number of major infractions Time C (7/1/02-12/31/02)	Intervention Comparison	1.50	.27 .19	636.29	.13
Total number of infractions (Times A, B and C)	Intervention Comparison	1.85	1.17 .88	669	.06

**Statistically significant results

Table 3.1 *Descriptive of Infractions for Time period A, B and C*

Intervention or comparison	Number of minor infractions 7/1/99-12/31/99	Number of major infractions 7/1/99-12/31/99	Number of minor infractions 1/1/00-6/30/00	Number of major infractions 1/1/00-6/30/00	Number of minor infractions 7/1/02-12/31/02	Number of major infractions 7/1/02-12/31/02	Total number of infractions
Intervention Mean	.06	.23	.07	.32	.21	.27	1.17
N	335	335	335	335	335	335	335
Std. Dev	.266	.736	.359	.790	.604	.771	2.032
Comparison Mean	.06	.19	.06	.25	.13	.19	.88
N	336	336	336	336	336	336	336
Std. Dev	.322	.896	.272	.926	.468	.614	1.966
Total Mean	.06	.21	.07	.28	.17	.23	1.02
N	671	671	671	671	671	671	671
Std. Dev	.295	.820	.319	.861	.542	.698	2.003

Tables 4 and 4.1, reports the results of the independent samples t-test for the groups and contact visits during Time C. The intervention group received fewer contact visits than the comparison group. However, these results were not significant and both the intervention and comparison groups received less than 2 visits during the last six months of the study. Based on the literature review the researcher suspected that there may be only a small percentage of women who are receiving contact visits with their children. The researcher combined the samples, reanalyzed the data, and discovered that 78.1% of the women did not receive visits at all. Once the data were combined for the intervention and comparison groups the mean number of visits was 8.02 with a median of 5.00. There were a few outliers who received as many as 58 visits (The histogram data for this can be found on Figure 7 in the Appendix).

Table 4 *Independent Samples T-Test for Groups and contact visits Time C*

	Status	T	Mean number of contact visits	Df	Sig.
Number of contact visits Time C (7/1/02-12/31/02)	Intervention Comparison	-.374	1.67 1.84	669	.70

Table 4.1 *Descriptive of visitation data for the intervention and comparison groups*

Number of contact visits 7/1/02-12/31/02

Intervention or comparison	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Intervention	1.67	335	5.776
Comparison	1.84	336	5.622
Total	1.76	671	5.695

Section 3 –Paired samples t-test results for self-esteem (intervention group)

This section reports the results of the intervention samples pre and post test self-esteem questionnaires. The women completed the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scales prior to beginning the Face-to-Face program and upon completion of the Face-to-Face program. The paired samples t-test was conducted to find out if there were significant differences in self-esteem before the women started the Face-to-Face program and after they completed the program.

According to Table 5 for each question the women's mean self-esteem score improved from the beginning of the study to the end of the study. A lower mean self-esteem score indicates a higher self-esteem while a higher mean self-esteem score indicates a lower self-esteem. Despite the improvement in self-esteem for each question, the differences were not statistically significant. Moreover, it appears that the women reported having a high self-esteem even before starting the Face-to-Face program and that their self-esteem became even higher by the end of the program.

Table 5 *Paired Samples T-Test (pre-post for self-esteem)*

		T	Mean self-esteem score	Df	Sig (2-tailed)	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Quest1 first survey	.575	1.36	103	.56	.084
	Quest1 second survey		1.31			
Pair 2	Quest4 first survey	.429	1.55	104	.66	.111
	Quest4 second survey		1.50			
Pair 3	Quest6 first survey	.923	1.49	104	.35	.093
	Quest6 second survey		1.40			
Pair 4	Quest7 first survey	.422	1.75	103	.67	.114
	Quest7 second survey		1.70			

Section 4 - Pearson's r correlation for the intervention group (Face-to-Face visits and Contact visits; Face-to-Face visits and minor and major infractions Time C)

This section reports the results of the Pearson's r correlation for the intervention group. The researcher conducted a Pearson's r correlation for the intervention subjects using the number of contact visits they received during Time C (7/1/2002-12/31/2002) and the number of Face-to-Face visits they received. The researcher's objective was to see if receiving Face-to-Face visits, as part of the program, correlated with receiving contact visits. Although correlation does not establish causation the researcher felt it was important to determine if there was a relationship between the variables. This analysis is a rough estimate of dosage: does greater exposure to the program produce better outcomes? The researcher also conducted a Pearson's R correlation using Face-to-Face visits and minor and major infractions during Time C.

Table 6 reported that there was a negative correlation between receiving Face-to-Face visits and receiving contact visits. More Face-to-Face visits, received by the women, resulted in less contact visits at the end of the study period. Although the number approached significance it was not statistically significant (.068). Additionally, Table 6 reported that there was also a negative correlation between the number of Face-to-Face visits and the number of minor and major infractions. More Face-to-Face visits resulted in fewer major and minor infractions. The correlation between major infractions and Face-to-Face visits approached significance but was not statistically significant.

Table 6 *Correlations for Face-to-Face and other variables*

		Total number of visits while in face-to-face	Number of contact visits Time C	Number of minor infractions Time C	Number of major infractions Time C
Total number of visits while in face-to-face	Pearson's r Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 335	-.100 .068 335	-.068 .215 335	-.102 .063 335

Section 5 – Regression analysis on independent variables

In Section 1, the descriptive analysis, found significant differences between the intervention and comparison groups for the following variables: race, age, sentence length, and time served. Regression is employed to determine whether, when controlling for these group differences, participation in the program predicts infractions and contact visits. Regression analysis was conducted for minor and major infractions during Time B, minor and major infractions during Time C and contact visits during Time C. In simple terms, regression is being used to investigate whether program effects are being “washed out” by group differences.

The results of the regression analysis are reported in Table 7. According to Table 7 being in the intervention or comparison groups had no impact on minor or major infractions during Time B. However, age and time served were statistically significant predictors of committing major or minor infractions during that time period. During Time C there were no significant differences in outcomes once group differences were held constant. However, age and sentence length were significant predictors of minor infractions during Time C and age also predicted major infractions in Time C. The results

are similar for contact visits in Time C: group assignment was not significant, but several other covariates were (race, sentence length, and time served).

Table 7 *Regression*

	<i>Unstandardized Coefficients B / Std. Error</i>	<i>Standardized Coefficients Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Adj.R- Square</i>
<i>Time B/Minor</i>					
Constant	.141 / .078		1.817	.070	.016
Race	-.023 / .023	-.041	-1.020	.308	
Int/Comp. Status	.007 / .026	.011	.257	.798	
Age	-.036 / .015	-.097	-2.411	.016**	
Sentence Length	-.020 / .019	-.052	-1.087	.277	
Time served	.058 / .018	.157	3.233	.001**	
<i>Time B/Major</i>					
Constant	.495 / .206		2.401	.017	.049
Race	.113/ .060	.074	1.878	.061	
Int/Comp. Status	.071/ .069	.041	1.028	.304	
Age	-.197/ .039	-.199	-5.063	.000**	
Sentence Length	-.091/ .050	-.085	-1.824	.069	
Time served	.139/ .048	.139	2.903	.004**	
<i>Time C/Minor Infractions</i>					
Constant	.408 / .132		3.098	.002	.022
Race	-.006 / .038	-.006	-.153	.879	
Int/Comp. Status	-.052 / .044	-.048	-1.170	.243	
Age	-.076 / .025	-.122	-3.046	.002**	
Sentence Length	.079 / .032	.118	2.501	.013**	
Time served	-.018 / .030	-.029	-.603	.547	
<i>Time C/Major Infractions</i>					
Constant	.593 / .171		3.475	.001	.011
Race	-.025 / .050	-.020	-.497	.619	
Int/Comp. Status	-.063 / .057	-.045	-1.093	.275	
Age	-.082 / .032	-.102	-2.540	.011**	
Sentence Length	.074 / .041	.085	1.794	.073	
Time served	-.048 / .039	-.060	-1.225	.221	
<i>Time C/Contact Visits</i>					
Constant	3.068 / 1.361		2.255	.024	.054
Race	-1.545 / .396	-.154	-3.904	.000**	
Int/Comp. Status	-.387 / .547	-.034	-.845	.398	
Age	.276 / .258	.042	1.069	.285	
Sentence Length	1.667 / .328	.237	5.091	.000**	
Time served	-.815 / .315	-.123	-2.585	.010**	

** Significant values

Chapter Summary

This chapter reported the results of the quantitative analyses conducted by the researcher in five sections. Section 1 presented the descriptive analysis of race, age, sentence length, education, and time served in Tables 1 and 2. According to the chi-square results there were significant differences between the intervention and comparison group in age, race, sentence length and time served.

Section 2 reported that results of the independent samples t-test for infractions and contact visits in Tables 3, 3.1, 4 and 4.1. During Time C there were significantly more minor infractions committed by the intervention group. However, the total number of infractions was relatively small. Also in Section 2 the researcher found that intervention group received less contact visits than the comparison group.

Section 3 reported the results of the paired samples t-test pre and post test questionnaire for the RSE in Table 5. There were no significant differences in the women's self-esteem before or after the study. The women reported a high self-esteem prior to beginning the program and an even higher self-esteem by the end of the study.

In section 4 the researcher reported the results of the Pearson's r correlations (Dosage of intervention data) for Face-to-Face visits and contact visits; and for Face-to-Face visits and minor or major infractions during Time C, in Table 6. According to this section there were no significant correlations between receiving Face-to-Face visits and any of the dependent variables. As a result, there appears to be no dosage effect: higher levels of participation did not equate with better outcomes.

Finally, Section 5 reported the results of the regression analysis on the significant predictor variables: group status, race, age, sentence length and time served, in Table 7.

According to this section group status was not a significant predictor of minor or major infractions during Time B or Time C; or of receiving contact visits during Time C. However, age, time served, race, and sentence length were all found to be predictors of infractions or receiving contact visits.

In sum, results from the quantitative analysis found no evidence of a significant program effect. Women in the intervention group did not experience fewer infractions, did not receive more contact visits, and did not experience significant improvements in self-esteem. In short, none of the research hypotheses were supported. The next chapter examines the impact of the program from a qualitative perspective.

Chapter VI

Qualitative Results: Video Visit, Focus Group and Letter/Memorandum analysis

Analysis of video visits

The researcher observed an inmate's video visit with her mother and young son. This analysis was a case study done by the researcher and may not reflect the interactions of all the inmates' video visits. However it helped the researcher to obtain information on the procedures followed by the site coordinators during the visits and revealed some of the themes used in analyzing the quantitative portion of this paper. The researcher used the qualitative analysis sections to establish common self perceptions of the Face-to-Face inmates.

The visit began with the mother of an inmate inquiring why a visit was scheduled so suddenly and whether or not the inmate was okay. The site coordinator apologized to the inmate's mother and assured her that nothing was wrong and that the spontaneous visit was due to the researcher's visit to the facility. The coordinator went on to reassure them that the regularly scheduled visit would not be cancelled. The coordinator advised the program administrator and the researcher to move out of the range of the camera so in order to provide the family with more privacy, or at least have the inmate's mother believe that no one else was in the room. Immediately after that they began to converse as if no one else was present. The inmate's mother told her about various family members and about her son. The mother mentioned that she was running out of money often and requested that the daughter not call until she tells her to. She explained that the phone calls were so expensive that she might as well save all of her questions until they meet

over the computer in the next few days. The inmate promised not to call and told her mother that she would write instead.

The visit continued on a positive note. The inmate was told that her son has wanted to visit with her more often than the usual once a week and that he was actually quite excited when he learned that they would be going to “the center” today to see his mother on “TV.” Despite the mother’s reports on the child’s enthusiasm he appeared quite shy and was peeking at his mother from the side of his grandmother often placing his head on her lap. He would smile and appeared to be blushing every time his mother talked to him. The visit lasted about 30 minutes. When the site coordinator told the inmate that her visit was ending both the inmate and her mother began to cry. However, her son did not cry and smiled broadly.

At the end of the visit the site coordinator began the counseling session with the inmate. The program administrator and the researcher were asked to participate. The site coordinator asked the inmate how she felt seeing her son. She said, “He seems bigger every time we visit. He’s always so shy when he sees me.” The site coordinator asked the researcher if there were any questions that she wanted to ask. The researcher asked,

“How often do you get to visit with your son?” The inmate replied, “Oh every week, sometimes twice if mamma can make it.” The researcher asked, “How does it feel to visit with your son over the computer?” The inmate replied, “It’s great because I don’t want him coming up here no how. This ain’t no place for children and mamma can’t afford it. We live in Broward county, this is a far way for them.” I hope to see them for Christmas but I don’t know ‘cause money is tight now for mamma with the baby and everything to take care of.” The researcher asked, “How long have you been incarcerated?” “I been here 18 months now and I only seen him once. If it wasn’t for the program I’d never get to see him grow and stuff. But he so shy.”

The coordinator told us that the session had to end because the other women were here for the focus group.

The inmate appeared very receptive to the questions of the researcher and answered them without reservation. The researcher felt that the inmate was comfortable with the coordinator and was more than willing to share with both the researcher and the program administrator. Although this visit was planned just for the benefit of the researcher it was still appeared realistic and the inmate, her mother and her son interacted in what appeared to be their customary fashion. They were not apprehensive about revealing negative family situations and this gave the researcher the ability to witness first hand the nature of the “typical” interactions between family members during the video visits. According to the coordinator the sessions always included a visit followed by a debriefing/counseling session.

Focus group analysis

The focus group approach was used by the researcher to further develop common themes and perceptions of the Face-to-Face participants. This analysis served as an important backdrop for the quantitative analyses portion of the study. The focus group allowed the researcher to interact first hand with the inmates and inquire about the functions of the Face-to-Face program.

The focus group was scheduled for an hour and the discussion began with a brief introduction of all the attendees. There were 16 women present for the focus group. The researcher explained to the women that she would be analyzing the data from the Face-to-Face program and would not be able to match any of the surveys or the demographic information directly to any particular inmate. The researcher also explained that this

would be their only in-person interaction with the researcher. The focus group began with the researcher asking the women, “What do you think about the program and what is your favorite part about being in Face-to-Face? Why did you sign up for the program? The responses varied but some prevalent themes arose. Despite the short time span there were five prevalent themes identified by the researcher.

Themes from the focus group

The Face-to-Face program helped many women reunite with their children.

Most of the women remarked that they had not seen their children since their incarceration. One young mother just 19 years old said,

“I haven’t seen my son since he was born. He loves to see me over the computer but he doesn’t talk when I call on the phone. Maybe it’s because he’s so young. My mom can’t bring him to see me ‘cause she got a record to and they won’t approve her for visits. She the only one that can bring him so I guess I’ll only be able to see him over the computer ‘til I get out of here.”

A grandmother said,

“I haven’t seen my daughter since I got arrested that night. It’s been almost 18 years since she’s talked to me. If it weren’t for the coordinator⁹ I would have never gotten in touch with her. She got her to talk to me and she even came to see me with my granddaughter. We haven’t had any Face-to-Face visits yet but I know it will happen soon.”

Another woman said,

“I got a life sentence. Don’t nobody come see you when you got life. Ms. X spoke with them at home and my children’s father gonna bring them to the center so that they can see me. She got him to change. He and his mother hated me but now they gonna bring my babies to see me.

⁹ The word coordinator has been substituted with Ms. X throughout the narratives in instances where the inmates used the actual coordinator’s name. This is done to protect her identity.

The Face-to-Face program provided a safe, inexpensive way for children to see their parents.

All of the participants agreed that their incarceration placed a significant financial burden on their families. One woman stated,

“My mom was all the time complaining about how much it cost to come here and about how much the kids is costing...That’s why I signed up when I heard about the program. I figured I’d get to see the children and she would not have to pay all that money. The problem is that the closest center is still a few hours away and she got to take the bus there. She still need money but it ain’t as much as coming on a visit. So I guess I like the program because I don’t have to hear my mother complaining all the time.”

Another inmate said,

“I signed up because it is free and then I don’t have to call home or wait a year for to see my kids. My kids is spread out all over but the coordinator got my cousin to bring my son. She really couldn’t afford no visits so you know this was the best thing for her. She live near the center so can come any time. I want to see the others but they not as close. The coordinator working on it though.”

The Face-to-Face program helps the women to understand how their incarceration affects their children.

Many women felt that the group discussions helped them understand their children more and how being in prison affected their children. One woman said,

“My aunt and my mom said that my little boy is all the time getting in fights and that he lies to people telling them that I’m in college. My aunt think everybody know where I am at and that the other kids must have started teasing him and now he fighting all the time. That made me feel bad and I ain’t really asked the coordinator for them to visit me again. Everybody said that I should have them visit again but that only makes my time here harder. I never knew it would be so hard on him. What I’m supposed to tell him? He ain’t gonna listen to me.”

The Face-to-Face program helps the women feel connected to the outside.

Many women did not know what was going on with their children or other family members after their incarceration. Now they feel more connected to the outside. One woman was allowed to participate even though she did not have children of her own. She said,

“My family was happy when they heard about Face-to-Face. Now my nieces, and nephews and my godson get to see me. I get to hear about everything that’s happening at home. I can get to hear about my appeal. You know I got life and my family is trying to get me out of here.”

The Face-to-Face program helped bridge a gap between the inmates and the caregivers.

One woman remarked,

“My husband left me as soon as I got arrested and wouldn’t let my son talk to me. The coordinator was able to get him to see that I changed. He came to a Face-to-Face visit last month.”

At the conclusion of the focus group the researcher was able to greet each inmate individually. Some inmates were curious about the researcher but most felt that somehow the researcher had some sort of influence on keeping the funding for the program so they continued to reiterate the values of the program. It was apparent that whether or not the inmates were actually receiving Face-to-Face visits yet, the group sessions were a valued component of the program and allowed them to help each other through various problems. It was also evident that the coordinator played a large part in the reuniting of families.

Letter analysis

The researcher received copies of letters and priorities worksheets written by the Face-to-Face participants, the prison coordinators and memoranda written by the site coordinators. The priorities worksheets were completed by the women and they used this space to document their goals while in prison (particularly while in the Face-to-Face program) and their opinions of themselves and their parenting skills. The memoranda from the center coordinators and the off-site coordinators were monthly requirements for project management purposes while the inmate letters were requested during the last 6 months of the study period as part of the final program analysis. These data were analyzed as a final qualitative measure of prevalent themes for the Face-to-Face program. The researcher wanted to see if the themes from the earlier qualitative analyses were reinforced and additionally, the researcher hoped to discover new themes that may be relevant to the quantitative analysis.

The inmates were asked to write letters that reflected their perceptions of the Face-to-Face program. In general many of the themes discussed during the focus group analysis were also prevalent in the analysis of the inmate letters. However, there were other themes that were not mentioned during the focus groups. Some of the letters included negative aspects of the program, usually related to the technology and the lack of appropriate funding. Overall, the prison coordinators focused on the things that were going wrong, while the off-site coordinators and the inmates focused on how the program benefited them. These themes will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Prison improved self-esteem

One surprising but common theme among the women was that their overall self-esteem improved as a result of just being in prison. As part of the self-reported letters the women wrote about ways that they felt better about themselves since arriving in prison. However, they have not revealed what has contributed to this change in their self-esteem. As part of the priorities worksheet the women were asked to list things that they have gained since their incarceration. Based on this request one inmate wrote, "I have gained self-esteem, I have learned patience and tolerance. I have learned from my past mistakes. I have learned to block out negative things." Others overwhelmingly said that they have gained self-respect since being in prison and have changed their attitude about themselves. One woman said that, "I have gained my self-esteem, I have gained productive thinking and a different thought process. I have also finally lost weight. I feel better about myself."

Prison made them lose their families

Many of the women when asked what they lost since their incarceration responded that they lost their families. Others felt that they lost their family support and communication with the outside.

Video visits Improves Familial Communication

A center coordinator wrote,

"As the result of this program we have been able to see reunions of families who have not seen their love ones in months. There was one child who had not seen his mother in five (5) years; and a mother who had not seen her family in four (4) years."

A site coordinator wrote, “All visits have been successful...one visit working with the caseworker bringing the children who were court ordered for monthly visits, and one family getting visits ordered through divorce court.” The program coordinator remarked, when asked regarding these visits said, “Such court ordered visits may have taken much longer to happen or may not have happened at all with out the Face-to-Face program.” In general a visit was considered successful if the caregivers showed up for the visit, the inmate was on time for the visit and all aspects of the technology worked.

One inmate wrote in her testimonial,

“This program has benefited me and my family to the upmost. The first thing it has helped us with is our communication with each other. I had chosen to give up my parental rights because it was in the children’s best interest (because of my long term sentence). However, I didn’t want to give up contact with them.”

Another inmate wrote,

“This program is a strong foundation for us mothers incarcerated and helps our children to stabilize a firm trust relationship with them because we’re away for a period of time. I recommend this program to any mother currently incarcerated and also all guardians of children with parents incarcerated.”

Yet another inmate wrote,

“I really like that I get to see my kids and speak with them on the computer and helps me out a lot when they can’t come up here.”

Another participant reported in her testimonial that,

“Without it, I would have little or no contact with my family. I’m very thankful to have this program available I love being able to see and talk to my daughter and my man. Since I have so long to do at least my daughter can recognize who I am and I won’t be a total stranger to her when I finally do go home.”

One women stated in her letter,

“The reason I got involved was because I was not able to have visits with my daughter. If this program were not an option to women with children then contact with my child would not have been an option...This program has helped not just me but also my mother and daughter. We have been able to reunify our relationship honestly.”

Other women wrote things like,

“I feel that the program helped me a lot. Brought me close to my daughter and my family”;

“I will get to speak to my son and this give me a good change of getting him to know me better not because I am away and a far distance I can still get to see my son over the Internet and that is very helpful”;

“I get to see my oldest child and mother and the rest of my family. This program is a big help to me.”

“The program helps me to communicate. It has taught me about my feelings.”

Video visits overcomes transportation problems

Many inmates wrote about how the use of the computer for visitation has overcome the transportation problems that have prohibited visitation.

“Another factor that is important too, is the fact that my family lives in Miami, transportation is next to impossible for them to come up here”;

“I feel this program is unique in a lot of ways being able to keep in touch with your family cause of the distance and being able to reach out to them thru this program”;

“It’s also cheaper for my mom to go to the site, instead of driving 8 hours to come see me”;

“My baby’s in Ft. Lauderdale Fla and that is very far from here and this program helps a great deal.”

Children love the technology

An unexpected bonus to the Face-to-Face program has been the children’s reactions to the technology. The inmates as well as the coordinators have written about

the positive responses received from the children regarding the use of such technology to visit their mothers. During an interview with the Lowell Correctional Facility site coordinator she said, “The children today are used to the computers and some may prefer meeting with their mothers over the computer. It’s just like TV or a video game to them. They love it.” An inmate wrote, “My family loves visiting me that way.”

Using technology has its problems

When analyzing the letters the researcher had only one inmate comment on technical issues. “[B]esides the computer not coming in clear and the robotic movements it be doing everything is wonderful.” However the site coordinator’s letters often spoke of the technical issues encountered using NetMeeting. This theme was reiterated in several memorandums spread out over several months.

“The obstacles encountered during this month have been the constant problems with the computer. The computer has not been able to connect to the ISP, in order to be able to obtain the email and to connect through the Net Meeting to have the visual contact meetings”; No visits “were scheduled for the Miami area due to continued equipment problems”. The coordinator also reported screen freezes.

The equipment problems included lost connections, possibly from the use of NetMeeting over a telephone line; freezing of the computer, which may have been a result of suboptimal computers (The researcher has not verified this but suspects this based on the lack of funding complaints that have been recalled throughout the data collection phases); and a general inability to communicate effectively when email is down.

Other visitation problems

Like many other prison visitation programs video visits are not without its prison related obstacles. Based on the analysis of the coordinator’s memoranda it appears that

there are two main reasons why visits had to be canceled. The reasons remain consistent from month to month. The first reason was that the family members of many of the inmates either did not show up for the visit at the satellite locations or canceled. The second reason was that during the time of the scheduled visit the inmate was on confinement and could not participate. Depending on the nature of the disciplinary referrals received by the inmates they may be denied visitation by video. However, they were not denied contact visits if the family visited the institutions.

Also worth mentioning is that some women felt that they have learned to control themselves more since they have gotten to prison. However, what has attributed to this change was not revealed.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter the researcher explained the process and the results of the video visit analyzed during Phase II of the data collection. The researcher learned that the inmate selected to receive a video visit was in regular contact with her mother and her son. She also learned that child's caregiver was experiencing some financial difficulties that would limit the incarcerated mother's ability to call home often. The inmate's son apparently enjoyed visiting over the computer although he appeared shy and did not express his feelings openly. The researcher was able to ask questions directly to the inmate immediately following the video visit. The inmate was receptive to the researcher and the questioning went smoothly.

During the focus group section of this chapter the researcher identified five prevalent themes:

1. The Face-to-Face program helped many women reunite with their children.
2. The Face-to-Face program provided a safe, inexpensive way for children to see their parents.
3. The Face-to-Face program helps the women to understand how their incarceration affects their children.
4. The Face-to-Face program helps the women feel connected to the outside.
5. The Face-to-Face program helped bridge a gap between the inmates and the caregivers.

Finally, during the letter and memorandum analysis section of the chapter the researcher found additional themes that were not revealed during the video visit case analysis and the focus group. The researcher found that:

1. Prison improved self-esteem
2. Prison made them lose their families
3. Video visits Improves Familial Communication
4. Video visits overcomes transportation problems for the caregivers
5. Children love the technology
6. Using technology has its problems
7. And that there were other visitation problems

The negative aspects of the Face-to-Face program were not introduced to the researcher prior to the letter and memorandum analysis.

Possible reasons behind the differences between the quantitative and qualitative results.

Overall, the quantitative findings suggest that the program had no impact on the women who participated in it. Moreover, they had less contact visits at the end of the program than the comparison group, although this finding was not significant. The qualitative analysis on the other hand suggested that the program had a positive impact on their lives and improved familial communication for them.

Although, the researcher found that there was a negative correlation between the Face-to-Face visits and contact visits, and this was contrary to the researcher's hypothesis, one alternative explanation is that after visiting via videoconferencing the women's family members may have found that it was not only more convenient but cheaper and less intrusive on the children than coming to the prisons. Researchers in the past have found one of the chief complaints of visiting the prisons have been the intrusive nature of the visits on the children and the trauma that it may cause (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2002; Bloom and Steinhardt, 1993). Other researchers have identified the cost of visitation as a barrier (Bloom and Steinhart, 1993). This theme was also documented by the researcher during the video visit and focus group analysis.

Another reason for the lack of program effect seen in the quantitative section could be that much of the program effect was not captured in this study. For example in subsequent research the program participants could be administered instruments that measure the interaction of the group therapy sessions or the contents of the letters sent to and from the children. The researcher may also chose to participate or observe the group

therapy sessions over a period of time assigning measurements for reoccurring themes that can be later analyzed quantitatively.

The researcher also found that there was a negative correlation between the total number of Face-to-Face visits and receiving either minor or major infractions at the end of the study period. This correlation was not significant. Overall the researcher believes that regaining contact after a long hiatus may introduce knowledge about their children that they may not have expected. The women may find that things are not well with their children or the caregivers. This new found knowledge may produce stress and anger that manifests itself into subsequent disciplinary referrals. For example, the researcher witnessed an inmate, during the video visit session, find out about financial problems her mother was experiencing. News like this can be emotionally trying, especially since many of the women may feel powerless or may be experiencing maternal strain based on the loss of their parental role while incarcerated. During the focus group one mother even expressed that she no longer wanted to visit with her child.

“My aunt and my mom said that my little boy is all the time getting in fights and that he lies to people telling them that I’m in college. My aunt thinks everybody knows where I am at and that the other kids must have started teasing him and now he fighting all the time. That made me feel bad and I ain’t really asked the coordinator for them to visit me again. Everybody said that I should have them visit again but that only makes my time here harder. I never knew it would be so hard on him. What I’m supposed to tell him? He ain’t gonna listen to me.”

Although the emotional consequences of visiting via video conferencing was not addressed in this study, the researcher through anecdotal evidence thinks that it may be a factor and that it should be addressed in subsequent research; and that professional counseling should also be incorporated into future programs.

In sum, the results from the qualitative analysis paint a much more positive picture of the program than the earlier quantitative analysis. Women indicate improved self-esteem, improved relationships with children and caregivers, and speak highly of the program. The next section will discuss these contradictory findings and consider the theoretical and practical implications of the research.

Chapter VII

Discussion of findings, implications and conclusion

Discussion of Findings

The quantitative and qualitative results from this study produced some contradictory findings. The quantitative results did not support the hypotheses suggested by the researcher. However, some of the qualitative findings were more supportive of the hypotheses.

Hypothesis I: Face-to-Face participants engage in fewer rule violating behavior than the comparison group.

Hypothesis I expected to find that the Face-to-Face program would improve the behavior of the participants. Based on the results of the independent samples t-test, the intervention group received significantly more minor infractions during the last six months of the study. Despite this significant difference the researcher reported that the regression analysis found no statistically significant differences in outcomes between the two groups, when controlling for group differences. As a result, differences in prison behavior appear to be related to age, sentence length, time served and not the intervention. The qualitative analysis did not test this hypothesis therefore the researcher was not able to obtain more insight into how the program affected women's behavior. Notwithstanding the researcher's hypothesis, this finding was not altogether contradictory to prior research. The literature suggests that behavior has been one of the problems faced in the prison adjustment of women (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2001; Tischler and Marguart, 1989). Furthermore, female prisoners tend to be more aggressive than male prisoners (Tischler and Marguart, 1989). The literature also suggests that adjustment to

prison does not necessarily improve over time (Paulus and Dzindolet, 1993). Alternatively, the program may have produced more stress and anger among women who have not been in touch with their children previously, intensifying their desire to reunite with their children and regain custody of them.

Hypothesis II: Face-to-Face women will show improvements in their self-esteem

The researcher expected that participating in the Face-to-Face program would have a positive effect on the women, measured through significant improvements in their self-esteem. In the quantitative results section the researcher found that the women did show improvements in their self-esteem; when evaluating the four self-esteem questions the researcher found that in all cases the women's self-esteem improved. However, the improvements were not significant. Moreover, the women reported having a positive self-esteem prior to start of the Face-to-Face program. This finding was also a consistent and recurring theme analyzed during the letter analysis in Chapter VI; the women reported that prison improved their self-esteem. However, this feeling was not attributed to anything specific so it would be premature to assume that the Face-to-Face program caused this improvement. For some of the women prison may represent a safe place where they are free from abuse and victimization thus improving their overall self-esteem. In 1997 Kathy Boudin found that for many women prison has been the one place where they were not victimized or abused physically, sexually or mentally.

Hypothesis III: Face-to-Face participants will have more contact visits than the comparison group.

Based on the results of the independent samples t-test, the women in the intervention group had a lower mean number of contact visits during the final six months of the study period than women in the comparison group. However, this number was not statistically significant.¹⁰ Although the women in the intervention group had fewer contact visits at the end of the study than the comparison group the women reported in the qualitative analysis section that the video visits fostered reunions, created bonds between the incarcerated mothers and their children, and increased contact because prior to receiving the video visits many of them received no visits at all. Face-to-Face visits in itself can be viewed as positive because these visits provide continued contact between mothers' and their children who they hope to reunify with after their incarceration.

Hypothesis IV: The more Face-to-Face visits the women receive the more contact visits they will receive, which will also produce fewer infractions.

The researcher found that there was no significant correlation between having Face-to-Face visits and having contact visits. Moreover, there was a negative correlation between having Face-to-Face visits and contact visits. This difference was non-significant. Thus, the greater their participation in the Face-to-Face program the fewer contact visits they received.

¹⁰ The researcher conducted an independent samples t-test that combined the Face-to-Face visits with the contact visits and the results were significant.

Serendipitous findings

One unanticipated finding was that the majority of the women in both the intervention and comparison groups did not commit infractions during the three, six month, time periods examined. Furthermore, once the researcher separated the inmates who did not commit infractions from those that did, the majority of those who committed infractions still committed less than 2 infractions. A relatively small group of inmates committed a disproportionate number of infractions. This was also suggested by Casey-Acevedo and Bakken (2003). Casey-Acevedo and Bakken (2003) found that relatively few of the women actually committed infractions and that this group was not very different from the women who committed only minor infractions (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2003). The results of this study support the chronic offender theory (Tracy et. al, 1990). Regardless of whether or not the women participated in the Face-to-Face program the chronic offenders remained as chronic offenders and few women committed infractions (whether in the program or not).

Despite the belief of the Department of Corrections that there was a huge discipline problem within their women's facilities the researcher found that it was only a small percentage of inmates that were committing the infractions. Most women committed none or very few infractions and a small percentage of women were responsible for the majority of the infractions.

The researcher has also tested some of the findings of prior researchers that found that relatively few women actually receive contact visits from their children (Casey-Acevedo and Bakken, 2002; Enos, 2001; Fox, 1982; Henriques, 1996; Jones, 1993). The researcher found similar results with only 22.9% of the women in study (both

intervention and comparison groups combined) receiving any visits at all. Therefore, the Face-to-Face program could be viewed as an extension of the current visiting program/policy of the Department of Corrections that serve as a way of including many women who are currently being excluded from contact visits due to varying circumstances detailed in the literature review section of this paper. The program adds visits, but visits of a different kind (video). This is positive by itself, regardless of whether it results in more actual visits to the prison.

Theoretical implications

Maternal Role Strain

In the quantitative analysis section there were no significant differences between the two groups in terms of behavior, self-esteem or the number of contact visits. Although the measures used in the quantitative section were appropriate for testing the researcher's hypotheses, they were not useful for testing the maternal role strain theory; the researcher relied on the qualitative section to test this theory. The qualitative analysis revealed that maternal role strain was experienced by the women in the Face-to-Face program. The data suggest that even after participating in the program and gaining access to their children some women still experienced some level of strain related to their feeling of helplessness (i.e. not being able to help their children through crisis and helping the caregivers provide for the children). According to the regression analysis on Table 7, the researcher found that sentence length and time served were significant predictors of infractions at varying time periods suggesting that the longer a women is separated from her child(ren) the more strain she experienced. On the other hand, the research did show

that the group sessions were a great recourse for the strain they experienced on a day-to-day basis in prison and that the women were able to help each other through many of the issues associated with mothering and with reconnecting with their children and other family members. The women provided words of support and used their own stories to help each other overcome some of the strain associated with being a mother in prison.

Life Course Theory

The quantitative findings on the surface suggested that the Face-to-Face program was not useful in altering the life course of the study participants. The women in the intervention group already displayed high levels of self-esteem and did not receive more visits than the comparison group. However, as the researcher noted earlier, many of the women who participated in the Face-to-Face program were women who did not have any contact with their children at all; despite not have more contact visits than the comparison group they did receive video visits; participating in the program offered them an opportunity to regain contact with their children and the caregivers, which supports the life course theory.

The qualitative findings also supported the notion that the Face-to-Face program was a positive program that could alter the life course of the women who participated in the program. Many of the women felt that the program was a positive part of their lives while in prison and that it allowed them to begin mothering again. They felt also that their parenting and literacy skills improved after participating in the program.

Self control theory

The quantitative analysis found that there was no significant difference between the two groups' behavior at the end of the study. This finding suggests that the program did not influence participants' self control. On the other hand, the qualitative analysis suggests that the women believed that they were in better control at the end of the program. Nonetheless, there was not enough evidence to attribute this perceived self-control to the Face-to-Face program. This theory was not adequately substantiated by either the quantitative or qualitative research conducted in this study.

Program recommendations

In general the Face-to-Face program had many desired attributes such as the group therapy sessions, the literacy component, the parenting courses, the visitation and especially the reunification of incarcerated mothers with their children. Despite the great built in program attributes issues related to the implementation of the program, lack of funding and the lack of a built in evaluation system contributed to the lack of program effect witnessed by the researcher. Additionally, given the mixed finding presented here, the researcher would recommend certain procedures that would improve the program.

1. The program can be enhanced to include more post release interventions that include how to arrange and manage child care issues, skills assessment and referrals to specific job training programs within the facility.
2. The program should include post release follow ups that involve outside agencies such as those focused on housing, job training and referrals, child care and if needed child welfare agencies. These outside agencies can begin

working with the women while they are incarcerated and continue post incarceration. This collaboration should include the off site facilities and off site coordinators who are already familiar with the caregivers and the children of the incarcerated mothers. This would provide a more comprehensive support system.

3. The Department of Corrections should have more than one staff member working with the program. For example, the person who administers the questionnaires and registers the women should not be the same person who runs the group sessions and oversees the literacy program. Along with this diversifying of staff, the program should include a more proactive use of the information furnished by the women on the Holt Survey and the priorities worksheets. The women are asked information regarding prior sexual, physical and emotional abuse; this information can be combined with prison program and post-release services on a more individualized basis.
4. The scale issued to measure self-esteem of the inmates should be accompanied by either a brief instruction sheet that asks the women to compare themselves to other women not incarcerated, or another scale should be selected that addresses the incarcerated population. The scale used in this study was originally designed for adolescents in the school setting not incarcerated mothers.
5. The records from the program should be computerized making it easier to obtain information on the program for subsequent evaluation by the Department of Corrections.

6. The Department of Corrections should look into a more reliable form of videoconferencing than the use of “Netmeeting” over telephone lines. Currently ISDN lines or other more reliable technology have become very affordable and would improve the quality of the video and reduce some of the technical frustrations experienced by the staff and visitors.

Future research recommendations

The researcher suggests that future research examine the use of video conferencing as a way to extend the current visitation programs. The Face-to-Face program can be used as a mechanism to provide visitation to a segment of the prison population who currently do not receive visits or whose family members find contact visits an additional burden associated with the women’s imprisonment. During the focus group and letter analysis the researcher found themes that suggest that financial burdens are a factor prohibiting contact visitation. One inmate said about her mother, “She really couldn’t afford no visits so you know this was the best thing for her.” Another woman said, “My mom was all the time complaining about how much it cost to come here and about how much the kids is costing.”

Future researchers can look at the impact of video visitation on reunification of women and their children after incarceration. Researchers can examine how video visitation can assist social services in meeting the goals of contact between a mother and her children while the children are in foster care. Additionally, future research can look at the perceptions of video conferencing visits by the children. Do the children find visiting virtually as good as visiting in person? Do they prefer one over the other? Surveys can be

administered to the caregivers and the children to assess the impact of the program on them. Additionally, future research can test video conferencing visits against the life course theory in the children of incarcerated mothers. Follow-up research can also be done into whether or not connecting via video conferencing has improved the relationship of the incarcerated women and the children's caregivers. Have the women been able to become more involved in the day-to-day lives of their children?

Another recommendation for future research is directly related to the apparent lack of program impact on the contact visits of the women in the current study; future research could look at the impact of the videoconferencing program on race. The researcher found that one of the prevalent themes in the current study was that "video visits overcomes transportation problems," which the researcher suspects would be more of a factor that inhibits visitation for minority women.

Appendix A

Rosenberg Scales

Instructions: Completely fill in the appropriate bubble for each question.

--

Important: Answer each item-do not skip any item-review. Notify instructor if you need to make any changes.

Phase: 1 2 Institution: 1 2 3 4 5 6 DC#:

Date: __/__/__ Instructor: _____ Class: _____

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least as good as others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. All in all, I tend to feel that I am a failure.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. I certainly feel useless at times.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. At times I think I am no good at all.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	<u>Agree</u>		<u>Disagree</u>	
11. I have noticed that my ideas about myself seem to change very quickly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Some days I have a very good opinion of myself; other days I have a very poor opinion of myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. I feel that nothing, or almost nothing, can change the opinion I now have of myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. No one is going to care much what happens to you, when you get right down to it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. It is human to be really cooperative.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. If you don't watch yourself, people will take advantage of you.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. Criticism or scolding hurts me terribly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. Does your opinion of yourself tend to change a good deal, or does it always continue to remain the same?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Changes a Great Deal	Changes Sometimes	Changes Very Little	Does Not Change At All
19. Do you ever find that on one day you have one opinion of yourself and on another day you have a different opinion?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Often Happens	Sometimes Happens	Rarely Happens	Never Happens
20. Some people say that most people can be trusted. Others say you can't be too careful in your dealings with people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Most People Can Be Trusted		You Can't Be Too Careful	
21. Would you say that most people are more inclined to help others or more inclined to look out for themselves?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	To Help Others		Look Out for Self	
22. How sensitive are you to criticism?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Extremely Sensitive	Quite Sensitive	Somewhat Sensitive	Not Sensitive
23. How disturbed do you feel when anyone laughs at you or blames you for something you have done wrong?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Deeply Disturbed	Fairly Disturbed	Not Disturbed	

Questions used for analysis are indicated in bold.

Appendix B

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale
FAQ (Frequently Asked Questions)**May I have permission to use the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale in my research?**

Dr. Florence Rosenberg, Manny's wife, has given permission to use the Self-Esteem Scale for educational and professional research. There is no charge associated with the use of this scale in your professional research. However, please be sure to give credit to Dr. Rosenberg when you use the scale by citing his work in publications, papers and reports. We would also appreciate receiving copies of any published works resulting from your research at the University of Maryland address listed below.

How do I cite the scale?

You should cite the scale according to the standards of your discipline. The most appropriate citation is:

Rosenberg, Morris. 1989. *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image*. Revised edition. Middletown, CT: Wesleyan University Press.

Appendix C

Holt Survey

Holt Survey
of Incarcerated Parents

Phase: 1 O 2 O Institution: 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O DC#: _____
Date: __ / __ / __ Instructor: _____ Class: _____

Q-1 Which of the following self-development activities would you sign up for if they were available? PLEASE CIRCLE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING THAT APPLY:

Academic Education:

- 01 Basic Education
- 02 G.E.D.
- 03 Correspondence Courses

Vocational Education:

- | | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| 01 Computer Literacy | 10 Masonry | 19 Auto Repair |
| 02 Office Methods | 11 Plumbing | 20 Electrician |
| 03 Cosmetology | 12 Power Sewing | 21 Truck Driving |
| 04 Horticulture | 13 Apparel Production | 22 Heat & AC Service |
| 05 Small Engine Repair | 14 Apparel Design | 23 Carpentry |
| 06 Waste Water Plant Oper. | 15 Law Clerk Training | 99 Other |
| 07 Water Plant Oper. | 16 Master Cook | explain) _____ |
| 08 Computer Drafting | 17 Greenhouse Mgmt. | _____ |
| 09 Desk Top Publishing | 18 Computer Technician | ----- |

Wellness/Life Skills:

- | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------|
| 01 Aerobics | 10 Journal Writing | 19 Soccer |
| 02 Fitness Instructor | 11 Storytelling | 20 Football |
| 03 Movement | 12 Handcrafts | 21 Weight Training |
| 04 Drawing | 13 Parenting | 22 Golf |
| 05 Chorus | 14 Basic Life Skills | 99 Other |
| 06 Rhythm Band | 15 Self-Expression Therapy | (explain) _____ |
| 07 Reading/Writing Music | 16 Yoga | _____ |
| 08 Poetry Writing | 17 Basketball | _____ |
| 09 Short Story Writing | 18 Baseball | _____ |

Q-2 Have you ever been abused? (Please circle one) 01 - YES 02 - NO

If yes, how were you abused? (Circle one or more) 01 - Physical 02 - Verbal/Mental 03 - Sexual

Q-3 Do you have children under 19 years? (Please circle one) 01 - YES 02 - NO

If you circled YES in Q-3, turn the page and complete the survey.
If you circled NO in Q-3, return this survey to the instructor.

Q-4 With whom are your children currently living? (Please circle one):

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 01 Child's father | 09 Father's Relatives |
| 02 Child's mother | 10 Mother's Relatives |
| 03 Child's father's mother | 11 Current Spouse/partner |
| 04 Child's father's father | 12 Adoptive parents |
| 05 Child's mother's mother | 13 Foster home |
| 06 Child's mother's father | 14 Group home |
| 07 Child's mother's grandparents | 15 Friend |
| 08 Child's father's grandparents | 99 Other (explain) _____ |

Q-5 Will your children be living with you upon your release?

(Please circle one) 01 - YES 02 - NO

99 Other: (Please Explain) _____

Q-6 Do you have regular contact with your children? (Please circle one) 01 - YES 02 - NO

If you circled yes, please circle how **they contact you** and how often.

- | | | | | | |
|------------|--------------------|------------|--------------|-----------|--------------------------|
| 01 - Phone | 01-every two weeks | 02-monthly | 03-quarterly | 04-yearly | 05-other (explain below) |
| 02 - MAIL | 01-every two weeks | 02-monthly | 03-quarterly | 04-yearly | 05-other (explain below) |
| 03 - VISIT | 01-every two weeks | 02-monthly | 03-quarterly | 04-yearly | 05-other (explain below) |

99 - OTHER: (Please explain):

Q-7 If your children DO NOT visit you, please indicate why. (Please circle all that apply):

- 01-DISTANCE 02-COST OF TRIP 03-TIME 04-NO TRANSPORTATION

99-OTHER: (Please explain):

PLEASE TURN PAGE

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION ABOUT EACH OF YOUR CHILDREN:

I. Child #1 Age _____

Please circle one: 01 Female 02 Male

Q-8 To your knowledge, has this child experienced problems since you have been incarcerated?
(Please circle all that apply).

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|
| 01 Misbehave at home | 08 Arrest |
| 02 Misbehave at school | 09 Nightmares |
| 03 Trouble with school work | 10 Withdrawal |
| 04 Aggression | 98 Unknown |
| 05 Speech Difficulty | 99 Other |
| 06 Bed wetting | (explain)_____ |
| 07 Trouble with juvenile authorities | _____ |

II. Child #2 Age _____

Please circle one: 01 Female 02 Male

Q-9 To your knowledge, has this child experienced problems since you have been incarcerated?
(Please circle all that apply).

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|
| 01 Misbehave at home | 08 Arrest |
| 02 Misbehave at school | 09 Nightmares |
| 03 Trouble with school work | 10 Withdrawal |
| 04 Aggression | 98 Unknown |
| 05 Speech Difficulty | 99 Other |
| 06 Bed wetting | (explain)_____ |
| 07 Trouble with juvenile authorities | _____ |

III. Child #3 Age _____

Please circle one: 01 Female 02 Male

Q-10 To your knowledge, has this child experienced problems since you have been incarcerated?
(Please circle all that apply).

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|
| 01 Misbehave at home | 08 Arrest |
| 02 Misbehave at school | 09 Nightmares |
| 03 Trouble with school work | 10 Withdrawal |
| 04 Aggression | 98 Unknown |
| 05 Speech Difficulty | 99 Other |
| 06 Bed wetting | (explain)_____ |
| 07 Trouble with juvenile authorities | _____ |

Appendix D

Florida Department of Corrections Rules of Prohibited Conduct

Florida Department of Corrections
33-601.314 Rules of Prohibited Conduct and Penalties for Infractions

SECTION I - ASSAULT, BATTERY, THREATS, AND DISRESPECT

- 1-1 Assault or battery or attempted assault or battery, with a deadly weapon
- 1-2 Other assault or battery or attempted assault or battery
- 1-3 Spoken or written threats
- 1-4 Disrespect to officials, employees, or other persons of constituted authority expressed by means of words, gestures, and the like
- 1-5 Sexual battery or attempted sexual battery

SECTION 2 - RIOTS, STRIKES, MUTINOUS ACTS AND DISTURBANCES

- 2-1 Participating in riots, strikes, mutinous acts or disturbances
- 2-2 Inciting or attempting to incite riots, strikes, mutinous acts or disturbances--Conveying any inflammatory, riotous or mutinous communication by word of mouth, in writing or by sign, symbol or gesture
- 2-3 Participating in or inciting a minor disturbance
- 2-4 Fighting

SECTION 3 - CONTRABAND-ANY ARTICLE NOT SOLD IN THE CANTEEN, OR ISSUED BY THE INSTITUTION, OR FOR WHICH YOU DO NOT HAVE A SPECIFIC PERMIT AUTHORIZED BY THE INSTITUTION WHERE PRESENTLY HOUSED

- 3-1 Possession or manufacture of weapons, ammunition or explosives
- 3-2 Possession of escape paraphernalia
- 3-3 Possession of narcotics, unauthorized drugs and drug paraphernalia
- 3-4 Trafficking in drugs or unauthorized beverages
- 3-5 Manufacture of drugs or unauthorized beverages
- 3-6 Possession of unauthorized beverages
- 3-7 Possession of aromatic stimulants or depressants, such as paint thinner, glue, toluene, etc.
- 3-8 Possession of negotiables--unauthorized amounts of cash where cash is permitted, cash where cash is not permitted, other inmate's canteen coupons, other inmate's cashless canteen or identification cards or gift certificates, checks, credit cards or any other negotiable item which is not authorized
- 3-9 Possession of unauthorized or altered identification--driver's license, social security card, cashless canteen identification card, etc.
- 3-10 Possession of unauthorized clothing or linen--State or personal
- 3-11 Possession of stolen property--State or personal
- 3-12 Possession of any other contraband
- 3-13 Introduction of any contraband

SECTION 4 - UNAUTHORIZED AREA

- 4-1 Escape or escape attempt
- 4-2 Unauthorized absence from assigned area, including housing, job or any other assigned or designated area
- 4-3 Being in unauthorized area, including housing, job, or any other assigned or designated area

SECTION 5 - COUNT PROCEDURE VIOLATIONS

- 5-1 Missing count
- 5-2 Failure to comply with count procedure

SECTION 6 - DISOBEYING ORDERS

- 6-1 Disobeying verbal or written order--any order given to an inmate or inmates by a staff member or other authorized person
- 6-2 Disobeying institutional regulations

SECTION 7 - DESTRUCTION, MISUSE, OR WASTE OF PROPERTY

- 7-1 Destruction of State property or property belonging to another
- 7-2 Altering or defacing State property or property belonging to another
- 7-3 Destruction of State property or property belonging to another due to gross negligence
- 7-4 Misuse of State property or property belonging to another--use for purpose other than the intended purpose
- 7-5 Willfully wasting State property or property belonging to another--any waste of edible or usable property
- 7-6 Arson or attempted arson

SECTION 8 - HYGIENE

- 8-1 Failure to maintain personal hygiene or appearance
- 8-2 Failure to maintain acceptable hygiene or appearance of housing area

SECTION 9 - MISCELLANEOUS INFRACTIONS

- 9-1 Obscene or profane act, gesture, or statement--oral, written or signified
- 9-2 Bribery or attempted bribery
- 9-3 Breaking and entering or attempted breaking
- 9-4 Attempt, conspiracy, or attempted conspiracy to commit any crime or violation of the Rules of Prohibited Conduct
- 9-5 Theft of property under \$50.00 in value
- 9-6 Bartering with others
- 9-7 Sex acts or unauthorized physical contact involving inmates
- 9-9 Tattooing or being tattooed
- 9-10 Lying to staff member or others in official capacity, or falsifying records
- 9-11 Feigning illness or malingering as determined by a physician or medical authority
- 9-12 Gambling or possession of gambling paraphernalia
- 9-13 Insufficient work: This constitutes an inmate not working up to expectation, taking into consideration the inmate's physical condition, the degree of difficulty of assignment, and the average performance by fellow inmates assigned to the same task.
- 9-14 Mail regulation violations
- 9-15 Visiting regulation violations
- 9-16 Refusing to work or participate in mandatory programs
- 9-17 Disorderly conduct
- 9-18 Unauthorized physical contact involving non-inmates
- 9-19 Presenting false testimony or information before Disciplinary Team, Hearing Officer, or Investigating Officer
- 9-20 Extortion or attempted extortion
- 9-21 Fraud or attempted fraud
- 9-22 Robbery or attempted robbery
- 9-23 Theft of property exceeding \$50 in value
- 9-24 Loaning or borrowing money or other valuables
- 9-25 Telephone regulation violations
- 9-26 Refusing to submit to substance abuse testing
- 9-27 Use of unauthorized drugs - as evidenced by positive results from urinalysis test or observable behavior
- 9-28 Canteen Shortage under \$50.00
- 9-29 Canteen Shortage over \$50.00
- 9-30 Self Mutilation - includes self disfigurement such as body piercing, scarring or other non-life threatening acts. Determination of whether an act constitutes self-mutilation as opposed to a suicide attempt shall be made by health care staff.
- 9-31 Use of Alcohol -- as evidenced by positive results from authorized tests, or by observable behavior
- 9-32 Is found by the court to have brought a frivolous or malicious suit, action, claim, proceeding or appeal in any court which is filed after June 30, 1996, or is found by the court to have knowingly or with reckless disregard for the truth brought false information or evidence before the court.
- 9-33 Tampering with, defeating or depriving staff of any security device. Security devices include: locks; locking devices; electronic detection systems; personal body alarm transmitters and receivers; handheld radios; restraint devices such as handcuffs, waist chains, leg irons and handcuff covers; keys; video and audio monitoring and recording devices; security lighting; weapons; and any other device utilized to ensure the security of the institution.
- 9-34 Tampering with or defeating any fire or other safety device. Safety devices include: fire, smoke, and carbon dioxide detection devices; alarm systems; fire suppression systems and devices such as fire sprinklers, fire extinguishers, and dry chemical systems; safety and emergency lighting; exit lights; evacuation route and warning placards; self-contained breathing apparatuses; personal protective equipment; first aid kits; eye wash stations; and any other device utilized to ensure the safety of the institution, staff and inmates.

Appendix E
Informed Consent

John Jay College of Criminal Justice/The Graduate School and University Center
Of the City University of New York

Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Study Title: Assessing the impact of virtual visitation on familial communication and institutional adjustment for women in prison

Study Purpose: The purpose of this study is to analyze whether teleconferencing visits between mothers in prison and their children can be effective in improving the mothers' institutional behavioral adjustment in prison, the women's psychological adjustment in prison and the overall well-being of the mother. Once the mother begins to communicate with her child(ren) on a consistent basis incidences of behavioral infractions should decrease, her psychological adjustment should improve and her overall well-being will also improve.

Study procedures: If you decided to participate, you will be asked to fill out 2 surveys equaling 3 to 5 pages depending on the number of children under 18 that you have, on 2 separate occasions. The first survey will be given to you today and the other will be given to you in 4 months. The survey takes approximately 20 minutes to fill out.

Study Risks: Participating in the research presents no more than minimal risks to you. The questions on the survey may cause you to think about your children and yourself in a manner that you may not already be doing. If this makes you uncomfortable then you can decline to participate in the study. If you choose not to participate in the study neither the Florida Department of Corrections, nor myself can or will do anything to negatively affect you.

Statement of Consent

I have discussed this study with Charlyn A. Hilliman or another member of the research team. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw at any time without prejudice. I have read the above and agree to enter this research study. Signing this form does not waive any of my legal rights as they would ordinarily exist in my current situation.

I have been informed that if I believe that I have sustained injury as a result of participating in this study, I may contact Charlyn A. Hilliman at 646-996-1091 or the Institutional Review Board at 212-237-8960, so that I can review the matter.

I understand that to participate in this study I must be at least 18 years old. I will receive a copy of this consent.

Signatures:

Participant

Date

Investigator Eliciting Consent

Date

The solicitation of subject into this study has been approved by the John Jay College or Criminal Justice Institutional Review Board and the Florida Department of Corrections Institutional Review Board.

Study benefits: There are no direct benefits to you personally. You will not receive special treatment for participating in this study.

Alternatives: You may decline to participate in this study. You can drop out of this study at anytime.

Costs: There are no costs to you for participating in this study.

Compensation: There is no monetary or other compensation for participating in this study.

Compensation for injury: We do not expect any injuries from this study, and there is no compensation available.

Confidentiality: Any information obtained during this study and identified with you will remain confidential. Information will be coded and protected such that only the representative from The Bureau of Transition Services Office of Programs, Transition, & Post-release services will know your identity. Only summary information will be reported; no individual information will be reported.

Participation if voluntary: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You can refuse to participate, or withdraw from the study at anytime.

Questions: If you have any question, please ask, and I will do my best to answer them. If you have any questions in the future, you can reach Charlyn A. Hilliman, principal investigator at:

Charlyn A. Hilliman
John Jay College of Criminal Justice
899 Tenth Avenue, Room 520T
New York, NY 10016
Or phone 646-996-1091

Appendix F



FLORIDA
DEPARTMENT of
CORRECTIONS

Governor
JEB BUSH

Secretary
JAMES V. CROSBY, JR.

An Equal Opportunity Employer

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<http://www.dc.state.fl.us>

February 27, 2003

Charlyn A. Hilliman
Adjunct Professor
John Jay College of Criminal Justice
899 Tenth Avenue Room 520T
New York, NY 10016

Dear Ms. Hilliman,

The Research Review Committee and appropriate offices in the Department have reviewed your request to conduct a study entitled "Virtual visitation: Bridging the gap of communication, and improving institutional adjustment for women in prison".

The study as outlined in your methodology is approved. Per the Department's rules, no inmate may receive compensation for this study; no identifying information on individuals will be released; and inmates may withdraw from the study at any time.

Please continue to work with Anne Means in Central Office to coordinate data collection and advise of progress of the study. Please advise me ahead of time when you are going to the institutions so I can let the wardens know of the research approval.

If this Department may be of further assistance please contact me via email at fitch.neal@mail.dc.state.fl.us or phone at 850-410-0351.

Sincerely,

R. Neal Fitch
Operations & Management Consultant II
Research Review Committee

cc: Research Review Committee File

Appendix G

IRB clearance letters from John Jay College and The Graduate Center



JOHN JAY COLLEGE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE

The City University of New York
 899 Tenth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10019
 (212) 237-8000

To: Charlyn Hilliman
 Study: Virtual Visitation: Bridging the gap of communication, and improving institutional adjustment for women in prison

The John Jay College Institutional Review Board has approved the above study involving humans as research subjects. This study was approved after full review.

Approval Date: Feb 3, 2003
Expiration Date: Feb 3, 2004

This approval is for a one-year period. You should receive a courtesy renewal notice approximately six weeks before the expiration of this project's approval. However, it is your responsibility to insure that an application for continuing review approval has been submitted by the required time. In addition, you are required to submit a final report of findings at the completion of the project.

Consent Form: The approved consent form must be used by all subjects. You are responsible for maintaining signed consent forms for a period of at least three years after study completion.

Reporting: The principal investigator must report to the IRB any serious problem, adverse effect, or outcome that occurs with frequency or degree of severity greater than that anticipated. In addition the principal investigator must report any event or series of events that prompt the temporary or permanent suspension of a research project involving human subjects.

Modifications: All modifications of protocols involving subjects must have prior approval except those involving the prevention of immediate harm to a subject which need to be reported within 24 hours to the IRB.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me through the IRB Office at (212) 237-8364.

Good luck on your project.

Sincerely,




Martin Wallenstein
Ph.D. J.D.
Chairperson
John Jay College IRB

Verification: By signing below, I acknowledge that I have received this letter and am aware of and agree to abide by all of its stipulations in order to maintain active approval status, including prompt reporting of adverse events/serious problems and annual continuing review. I am aware that it is my responsibility to be knowledgeable of all federal, state and university regulations regarding human subjects research including CUNY's Multiple Project Assurance (MPA) with the Department of Health and Human Services.

Signature of Principal Investigator

Date



3-10-03

Date

Signature of Advisor for Student Research

(Revised, September 5, 2000)

The Graduate School and University Center
The City University of New York
365 Fifth Avenue
New York NY 10016

HUMAN PARTICIPANTS CERTIFICATION

Must be submitted with dissertation by all students

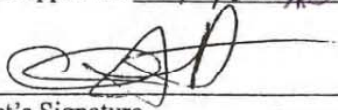
Student's Name: CHARLYN A. HILLIMAN

Project Title: VIRTUAL VISITATION: BRIDGING THE GAP OF
COMMUNICATION, AND IMPROVING INSTITUTIONAL ADJUSTMENT FOR
WOMEN IN PRISON

NO, this dissertation does not involve human participants.

YES, this dissertation involves human participants. The dissertation proposal has been reviewed and approved by the Committee on the Protection of Human Subjects.

Date of Approval: 2/3/2003



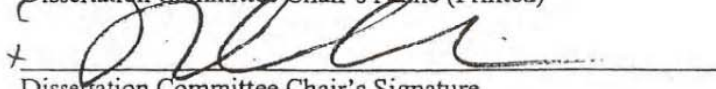
Student's Signature

3/10/03

Date

TODD R. CLEAR

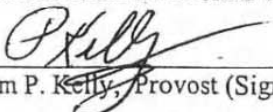
Dissertation Committee Chair's Name (Printed)



Dissertation Committee Chair's Signature

3.10.03

Date



William P. Kelly, Provost (Signature)

3.14.03

Date

Appendix H

Table 8 *Frequency of infractions for Time periods A, B and C*

	Number of minor infractions 7/1/99-12/31/99	Number of major infractions 7/1/99-12/31/99	Number of minor infractions 1/1/00-6/30/00	Number of major infractions 1/1/00-6/30/00	Number of minor infractions 7/1/02-12/31/02	Number of major infractions 7/1/02-12/31/02
N Valid	671	671	671	671	671	671
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	.06	.21	.07	.28	.17	.23
Std. Error of Mean	.011	.032	.012	.033	.021	.027
Median	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Mode	0	0	0	0	0	0
Std. Deviation	.295	.820	.319	.861	.542	.698
Variance	.087	.672	.101	.741	.293	.487
Skewness	6.623	6.890	6.166	4.442	4.675	4.270
Std. Error of Skewness	.094	.094	.094	.094	.094	.094

Table 8.1 *Frequency of only inmates with infractions for Times A, B and C with Histograms*

	Minor infractions Time A	Major infractions Time A	Minor infractions Time B	Major infractions Time B	Minor infractions Time C	Major infractions Time C
N Valid	34	64	35	99	82	98
Missing	637	607	636	572	589	573
Mean	1.21	2.17	1.29	1.93	1.39	1.60
Std. Error of Mean	.101	.210	.105	.137	.093	.108
Median	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mode	1	1	1	1	1	1
Std. Deviation	.592	1.677	.622	1.365	.843	1.072
Variance	.350	2.811	.387	1.862	.710	1.149
Skewness	3.660	3.516	2.845	2.318	2.957	2.291
Std. Error of Skewness	.403	.299	.398	.243	.266	.244
Range	3	11	3	8	5	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	4	12	4	9	6	7
Sum	41	139	45	191	114	157

Appendix I

Figures 1-6 (Histograms)

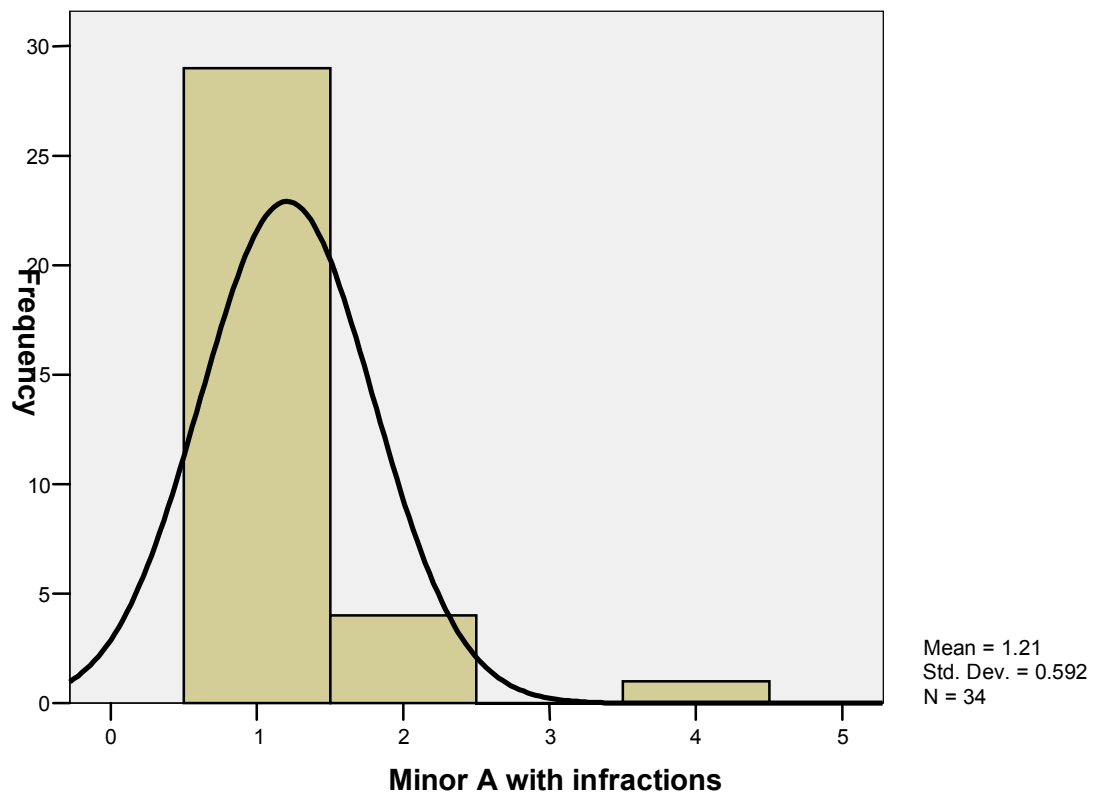
Figure 1: Minor infraction Time A

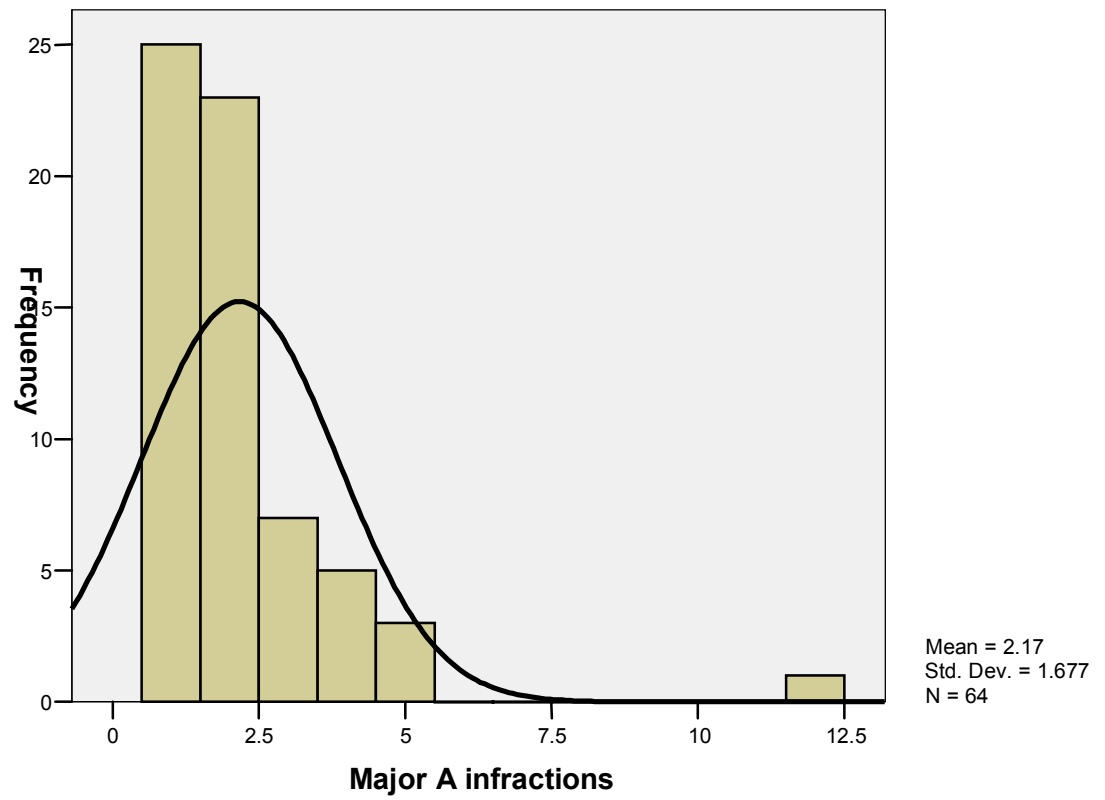
Figure 2: Major infractions Time A

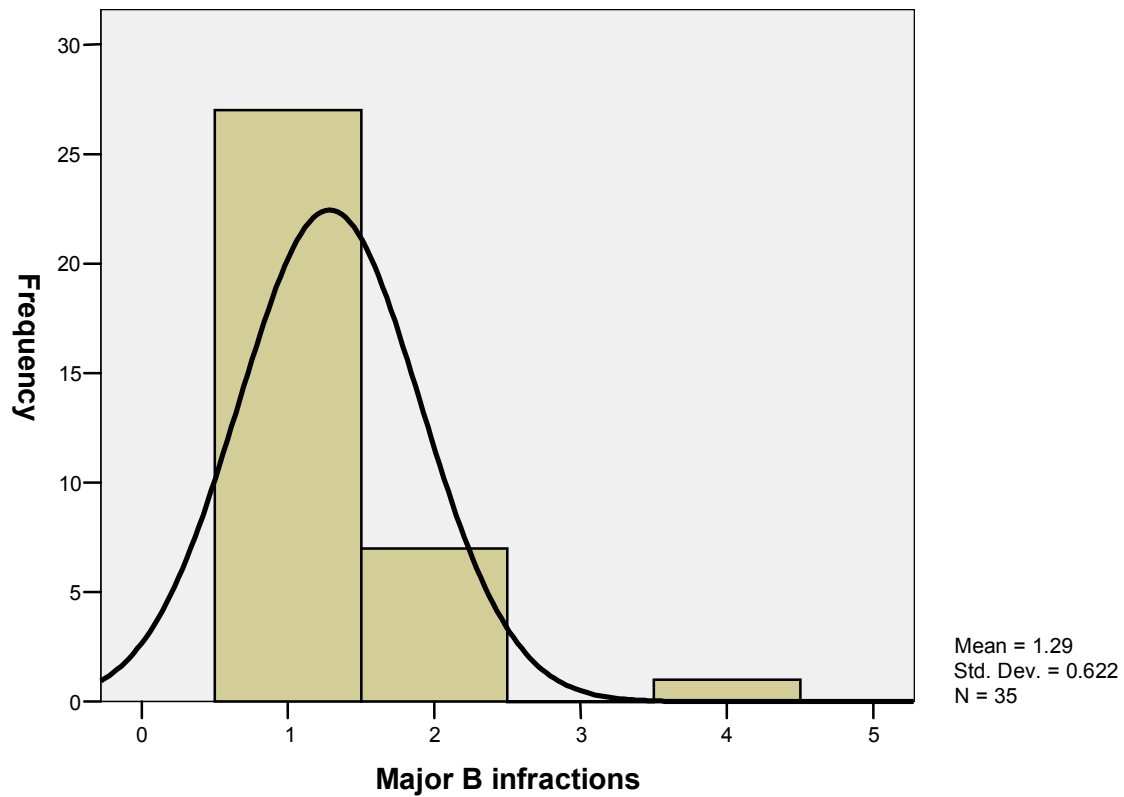
Figure 3: Minor infractions Time B

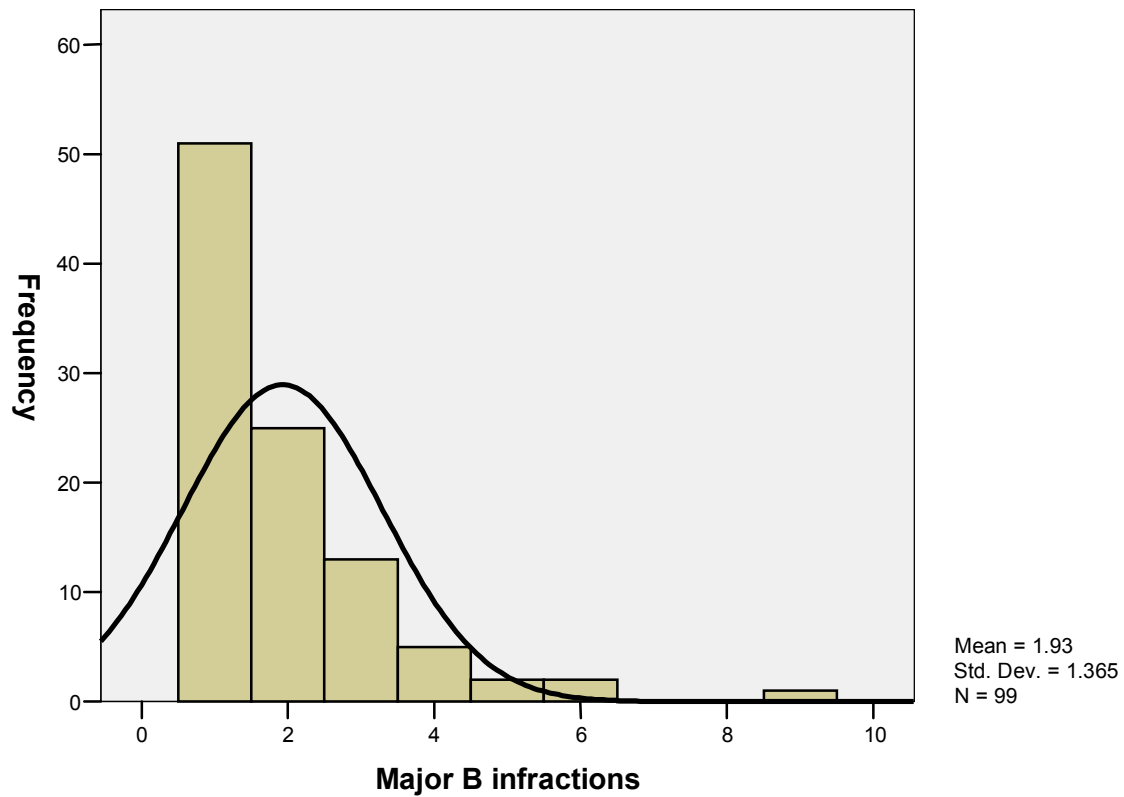
Figure 4: Major Infractions Time B

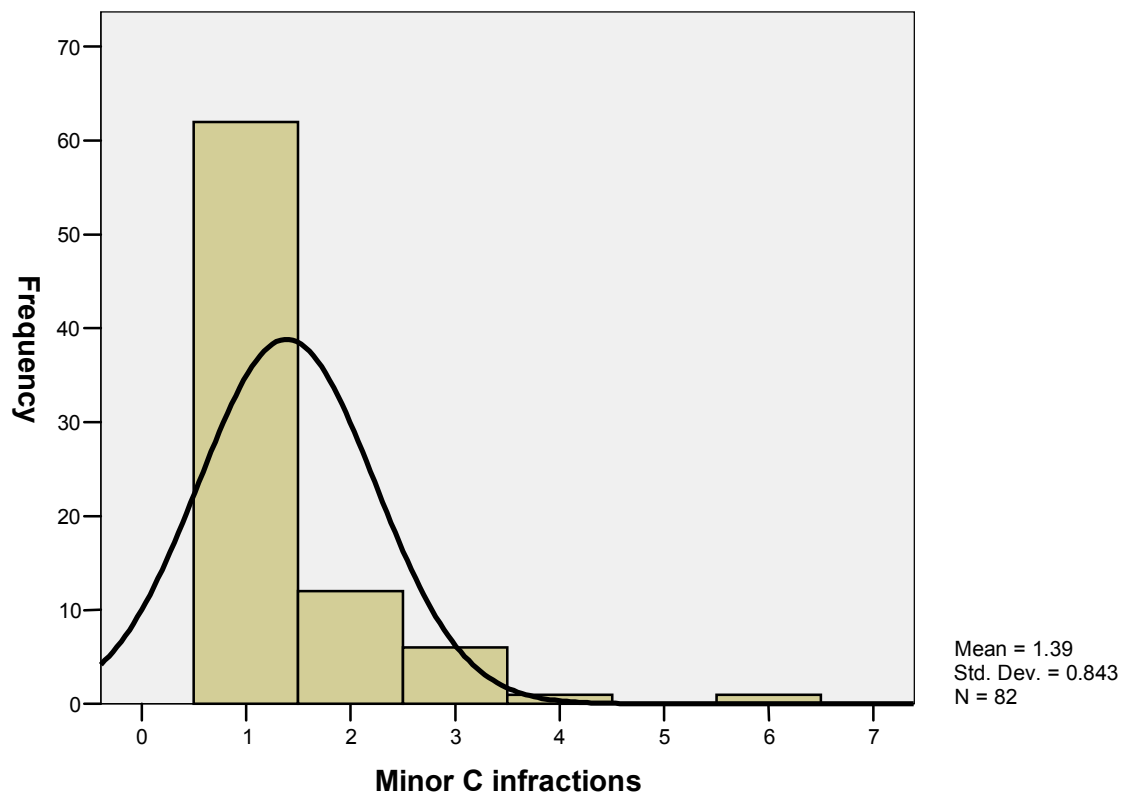
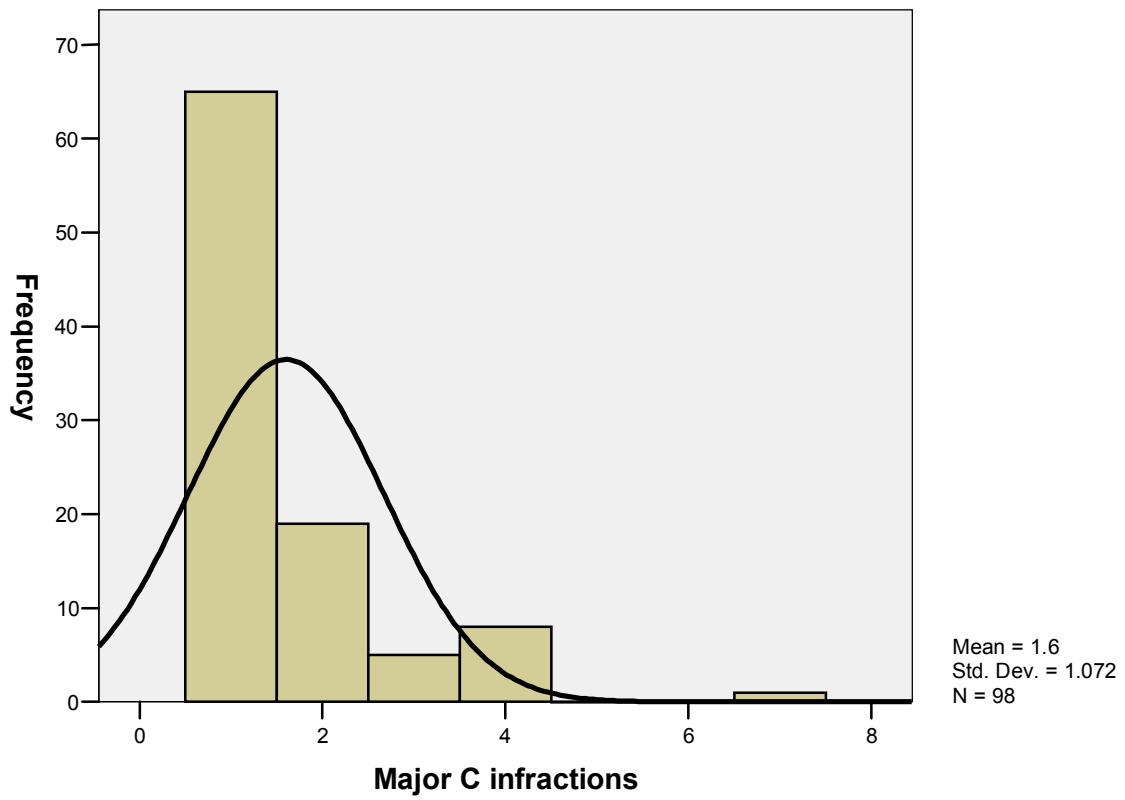
Figure 5: Minor infractions Time C

Figure 6: Major Infractions Time C



Appendix J

Table 9 *Descriptive of visitation data for the intervention and comparison groups*

Number of contact visits 7/1/02-12/31/02

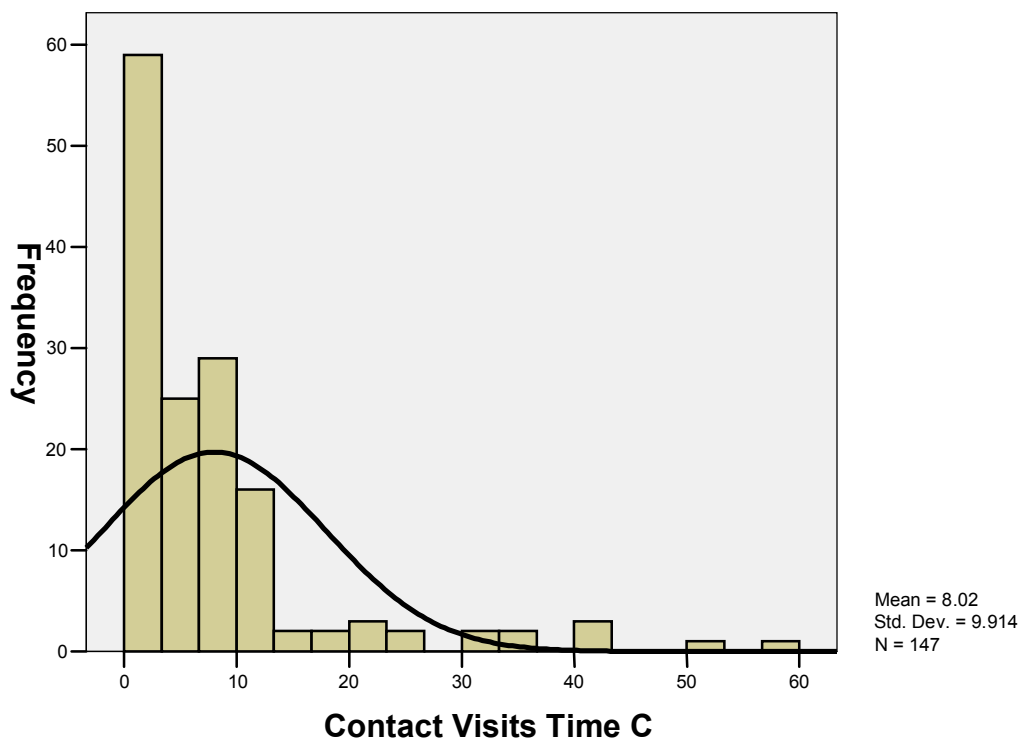
Intervention or comparison	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Min	Max	Sum	Range
Intervention	1.67	335	5.776	0	58	561	58
Comparison	1.84	336	5.622	0	52	618	52
Total	1.76	671	5.695	0	58	1179	58

Table 9.1 *Frequency Data for women who received visits*

N	Valid	147
	Missing	524
Mean		8.02
Std. Error of Mean		.818
Median		5.00
Mode		2
Std. Deviation		9.914
Variance		98.280
Skewness		2.786
Std. Error of Skewness		.200
Range		57
Minimum		1
Maximum		58
Sum		1179

Appendix K

Figure 7: Histogram of contact visits for the intervention and comparison groups



Chapter VIII

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