The Impact of Public Service Motivation on Reentry Managers' Decision-making Practices

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THE IMPACT OF PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION ON REENTRY MANAGERS’
DECISION-MAKING PRACTICES

by

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated in loving memory
of my Pop, Joseph L. Pryor
1931-2015
Who taught me by example that hard work, kindness, and a sense of humor are the keys to a life fulfilled.
ABSTRACT

The goal of this exploratory study is to examine the effects of public service motivation (PSM) in predicting decision-making of criminal justice personnel (reentry managers) in the management of former prisoners. The overarching research question seeks to answer if, and in what way, PSM score influences reentry managers’ approach to their work with the formerly incarcerated, who are in transition from prison back into the community. The main assumption of this study is that those reentry managers with a higher PSM score will be more inclined to take an assistance oriented approach with former prisoners and be more likely to make rehabilitative decisions than those with lower PSM scores, who will be more inclined to assume a punitive role. This study utilized binomial logistic regression and chi-square analysis to test hypotheses. Survey data was collected over a period of three months in the summer and fall of 2014, and was based upon a national sample of 108 reentry managers whose agencies had received funding from a federal reentry grant. Follow-up interviews were also conducted with nine participants to provide deeper understanding of responses and explain some of the quantitative findings. Overall findings supported the key assumption with the overall sample possessing medium to high PSM scores and a greater frequency of making rehabilitative decisions.
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

According to Durose, Cooper, and Snyder in a Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report (2014), and the most recent data available, 67.8% of offenders are rearrested (recidivate) within three years of release from prison. Approximately 25.3% of those who recidivate are arrested for a technical violation of probation or parole conditions as opposed to having committed a new offense (Durose, Cooper, & Snyder, 2014). When former prisoners recidivate it comes at a great cost to taxpayers and can weaken the target communities to which these individuals return.

Target communities are defined as areas which have large numbers of individuals being incarcerated or released from a period of incarceration. These are usually urban, economically feeble areas, with high rates of crime. When individuals are released onto some form of supervision, various agencies and case managers have professional influence over their reentry process. These reentry managers usually consist of probation and parole officers, social workers, substance abuse counselors, employment counselors, and other faith-based or non-profit volunteers. It is important to note that for this study, the term “managers” is used outside of its usual context and does not explicitly refer to upper level administrators. In this particular context, the term reentry managers is used to describe employees from all levels (mostly entry level employees) who have a role in managing (i.e. overseeing) the reentry population. This is akin to how a case manager is usually an entry level employee of an organization, but holds the title of manager because of their supervisory role over the clientele, despite not being considered managers in the organizational sense.

Because reentry managers have a fairly large impact on the lives of newly released offenders, this population needs to be studied from a public management perspective to determine how their level of public service motivation (PSM) affects their discretionary
decision-making. There is evidence to suggest that conditions of probation and interagency rule
conflict could contribute to rates of rearrest and reincarceration among the population they serve
(Glaser, 1969; Trotter, 1996; Steiner, Travis, Makarios, Brickley, 2011; Ricks & Louden, 2014).
By examining more closely the effects that reentry managers’ motivations have on their
professional decision-making, this study can build on previous studies of correctional orientation
by introducing a public administration measure of motivation as well as expanding the study
population beyond just probation and parole officers. The overall assumption is that similar to
how the decisions of the newly released prisoners themselves can affect their successful
transition, so to can the decisions of all of the professionals charged with overseeing that
transition. This knowledge can ultimately contribute to the discussion of potential barriers to
successful reentry.

Discretionary decisions such as referrals to certain services, deadline extensions, curfews,
and whether or not to revoke probation/parole over missed appointments, or failure to meet a
mandate in a set amount of time can have a significant impact on recidivism rates. For the most
part, reentry managers are regarded as part of the solution to the problem; however, little remains
understood about the possibility of these individuals contributing instead to the problem of
recidivism (Taxman, 2002; Dowden & Andrews, 2004; Paparozzi & Gendreau, 2005; Whetzel,
Paparozzi, Alexander & Lowenkamp, 2011). According to a much earlier study by Truax and
Mitchell (1971) an officer who is detached and antagonistic would be considered a
“psychonxious practitioner” who has a deleterious as opposed to a positive impact on the
clients. The current study takes into account the possibility that not all reentry managers may
serve in a helping role to facilitate successful reintegration, and attempts to explore the
motivations that drive their decision-making using Perry and Wise’s (1990) PSM theory.
Previous work in this area in a criminal justice context has focused on the concept of correctional orientation (Glaser, 1969; Dembo, 1972; Tomaino, 1975; Klofas & Toch, 1982; Dowden & Andrews, 2004) and has applied associated scales to measure orientation, as well as incorporated hypothetical and real world decision-making to test these assumptions. Despite this extensive earlier research, there is still not a consensus as to what scales are the best predictors, and discourse still remains about how orientation is defined, either as a dichotomous dimension (punitive or rehabilitative) or on a continuum scale (high, medium, low). Even the vocabulary differs from study to study with common ways of describing orientation as control or treatment-oriented; authoritative and assistance (Glaser, 1969); subculture custodian, sympathetic, non-sympathetic toward inmates, social distance (Klofas & Toch, 1982); control, authority, and punishment contrasted with rehabilitation and reintegration (Dembo, 1972); reform or control (Johnson, Dunaway, Burton, Marquart & Cuvelier, 1993); punishment or rehabilitation (Steiner, Wada, Hemmens & Burton Jr., 2005). The current study adopts this most recent classification of punitive versus rehabilitative orientation.

A number of studies exploring the role of practitioners (mainly probation officers) in the success of offender’s desistance from crime are from the United Kingdom. Authors such as Bur Burnett and McNeill (2005), Trotter (1996), Rex (1999), Barry (2000), Mann (2004), and Dowden and Andrews (2004) have all studied the role and type of supervisory relationship on the experiences and successes of offenders. Burnett and McNeill note that although practitioners of offender management are not therapists, they too are working with individuals to correct behaviors triggered by various mental and social circumstances, as are therapists, and thus need to approach the relationship with a similar helping attitude (2005). Burnett and McNeill also note that “more research is needed in the criminal justice field to identify the particular interpersonal
skills and processes that complement other professional skills and management procedures aimed at reducing re-offending” (2005, p. 233). The current researcher would add to this that more research is also needed in the United States to account for any cultural differences or political contexts which may play a role in affecting the supervisory relationship.

1.1 Problem Statement

There are many components involved in the reintegration of former prisoners back into society; a transition referred to as prisoner reentry. Those involved in the management of this transitory population, such as probation officers, parole officers, substance abuse counselors, faith-based, and non-profit employees, can affect the success or failure of these individuals; success being defined here as obtaining citizenship as a stable and contributing member of the population, and failure defined here as reincarceration (i.e. recidivism). However, the barriers to reintegration alluded to most often are lack of job opportunities, inadequate housing, substance abuse issues and low-levels of educational attainment among the former prisoners themselves (Travis & Petersilia, 2001; Petersilia, 2004). Meanwhile, there is little mention of the effects of post-prison supervision policy conditions such as curfews, fines, employment mandates, and the associated administrator interference. When individuals recidivate it can be costly in terms of both money spent to prosecute, reincarcerate, as well as the less tangible costs of victimization. Communities suffer as a result of career criminals, and the impact that the revolving door of incarceration has on their eligible workforce. Therefore, effective transitional (reentry) services for individuals being released from jail and prison are crucial to ensure successful reintegration and reduced likelihood of re-offending and/or reincarceration.

The role of the reentry manager as a decision-maker in this process is important because little is understood about the impact of their management style or attitude on their ability to facilitate the reentry process (Whetzel, Paparozzi, Alexander & Lowenkamp, 2011). The
prisoner reentry discourse to date focuses on the role of the offender in managing his/her reentry as well as external factors such as job opportunities, gang affiliation, family socialization and educational qualifications. However, the impact of the decision-makers in this process whose choices often determine the type of transition former prisoners experience is largely left out of the discussion. According to Whetzel, et al, 2011) “it is essential for probation organizations to engage in rigorous self-analysis to determine how and to what extent the values and professional orientation of POs [probation officers] might interact with efforts to reduce offender recidivism” (p. 7). Therefore, this exploratory study is an attempt to use Perry and Wise’s (1990) PSM theory to operationalize motivation orientation through a public management framework, to attempt to further contribute to evaluations of this crucial question of how administrator attitudes are associated with decision-making orientations.

It was Perry and Wise (1990) who conceptualized the idea of PSM and Perry (1996) who developed a Likert Scale survey to operationalize and measure PSM (Perry, 1996; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Since its development, other scholars such as Naff and Crum (1998); Brewer and Selden (1998); Rainey & Steinbauer (1999); and Vandenabeele (2007) have built upon these foundations. Naff and Crum (1998) employ an application of PSM on federal employees’ attitudes and behaviors and found that significant relationships existed between PSM and job satisfaction, performance, retention and support for government efforts among public (federal) versus private employees. According to Mann (2006) “most of the initial research on this subject has focused on indicators of motivation and tends to explore the public sector/private sector dichotomy in the context of intrinsic versus extrinsic reward systems” (p. 33). To highlight its unique application in the current criminal justice context, Perry and others have noted that
research about motivation to date has largely been focused on its role in industrial and business organizations (Perry & Porter, 1982; Kelman, 2005; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008).

Given that PSM is such a unique and measurable tool for conceptualizing motivations, attitudes and values, and there exists a need in the criminal justice research field to apply such a tool to fully understand the impact of varying attitude types on administrator management of offenders. This study attempts to shed more light on this complex problem. According to Whetzel, Paparozzi, Alexander and Lowenkamp, “The significance of the failure to examine the relationship between PO [probation officer] orientation and the success or failure of probationers cannot be overstated” (Studt, 1973; Paparozzi & DeMichele, 2008)” (2011, p. 7).

1.2 Background

Data from the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2014) indicates that 82 percent of adults under community supervision in the United States are on probation, equaling about 3.9 million individuals. Despite a steady decrease over the past three years, 1 in 51 adults in the United States were under community supervision (probation or parole) at the end of 2013 (Herberman & Bonczar, 2014). Other methods of release in most states include maxing-out (release following a completed sentence), transition into a work release center (halfway house), or parole supervision. Common practice for those who have maxed out is to give the newly released individual money and a bus ticket (varies by state) and release them into the community. There are usually very limited transitional services for these individuals, except for what little preparation they may have received while still in prison. According to Taxman and Belenko (2012) most corrections officials, including probation and parole officers are not in charge of transitional services, and serve mainly in a referral role to treatment services. Transition into a work release center consists of the inmate serving out the remainder of their sentence while still under corrections custody in a community facility that encourages seeking and maintaining employment. Lastly,
according to the BJS (2014) even though mandatory release to parole has decreased, other means of transition to parole have increased. According to the most recent report by the BJS “the adult parole population increased by about 2,100 offenders between yearend 2012 and 2013, to about 853,200 offenders at year end 2013” (Herberman & Bonczar, 2014, p. 1). Those who end up on parole are monitored by a parole officer after their release into the community in a manner similar to probation.

Also varying by state are the number of individuals who are reincarcerated for a technical violation of their probation, meaning they failed to comply with one or more of the mandated conditions of their supervision (e.g. adhering to a curfew, remaining substance free, staying within geographical bounds) as opposed to having committed a new criminal offense while out on release. Of those on probation who return to prison, the average percentages by state are close in terms of those being returned for technical violations as opposed to a new offense. An overwhelming majority return for a technical violation than any new offense in particular (PEW Center on the States, 2011; Langan & Levine, 2002). Given that large numbers of those returning to prison each year are returning for failure to meet certain conditions of their release, states are spending money to reincarcerate individuals who may have merely missed a curfew, traveled outside the jurisdiction, or failed to meet other mandates. It is important to note that according to Petersilia and Turner (1993) “offenders who committed technical violations were no more likely to be arrested for new crimes than those who did not commit them” (p. 5). This is significant because it calls to question state spending on public safety that is actually spent to reincarcerate these individuals who may pose little or no actual threat to public safety.

Trotter (1996) provides the missing theoretical link between the ideology behind PSM and how it can be applied in a criminal justice context. Three key tenants of Trotter’s pro-social
modeling strategy (similar to PSM, and sharing the same acronym) are pro-social modeling, problem solving and empathy. The first tenant, pro-social modeling and reinforcement, is in essence, leading by positive example. It involves discouraging negative behavior and encouraging/modeling pro-social behavior. Second, problem-solving involves a strategic plan of action for issues and setting goals, which includes monitoring progress. Lastly, empathy requires that the officer be caring and sympathetic, honest, and non-judgmental while exercising active listening and self-disclosure (Trotter, 1996). These tenants are similar to PSM in that someone with a high PSM score would possess many of these qualities. Trotter’s research found that the three factors of empathy, problem solving and pro-social modeling among community corrections officers in a supervisory role fostered lower recidivism rates (1996). In addition, through an examination of factors affecting adoption of evidence-based practices (EBP), Taxman and Belenko found that among other factors that affect adherence to EBP are administrators’ attitudes which either favor rehabilitation efforts or punishment (2012). Therefore, due to this theoretical evidence that levels of PSM may affect behaviors similar to reentry manager decision-making, this exploratory study attempts to test the use of PSM in this area.

1.3 Research Questions

The main goal of this exploratory research is to examine whether or not PSM is a relevant tool to predict reentry managers’ decision-making in the management of former prisoners, which also includes attitude and role perception. The overarching research question seeks to answer if, and in what way, PSM score influences reentry managers’ approach to their decisions with former prisoners. The assumption of this study is that those with higher PSM will be more inclined to take a rehabilitative oriented approach to former prisoners and be less likely to make punitive decisions than those with low PSM, who will be more inclined to assume the enforcer role. These assumptions are based partly off of the tenants of PSM that associate different
behaviors and attitudes with high versus low scores, and previous studies that have differentiated between role types of those dealing with criminal justice populations (Dembo, 1972; McCleary, 1978; Erwin & Bennett, 1987; Hardyman, 1988; Clear & Latessa, 1993; Trotter, 1996; Fulton, Stitchman, Travis & Latessa, 1997; Steiner, Travis, Makarios and Brickley, 2011).

Adopting the former theoretical perspectives, it is expected that higher levels of PSM will influence more assistance based, rehabilitative focused decision-making which in turn will lead to more successful transitions into society for former prisoners. Conversely, lower PSM levels are expected to lead to more punitive, authoritative decision-making which would lead to impaired transition for former prisoners. The following research questions are examined in this study: How does PSM score affect decision-making practices among reentry managers when controlling for various antecedent factors? Does a higher PSM score influence reentry managers to have a more rehabilitative decision orientation? Does lower PSM score influence reentry managers to have a more punitive decision orientation? Does PSM score influence reentry managers’ definitions of successful reintegration?

This exploratory study builds upon earlier PSM research and correctional orientation research to take a more applied approach to PSM theory, and attempts to validate a measure for testing correctional orientation. The majority of previous studies have examined PSM mainly as a dependent construct to be tested, and rarely test the theory in practice as an applied predictor variable. These are discussed more in depth in the literature review. Given that this study uses PSM as the independent variable to predict decision-making, it is among the minority of other studies which do the same. The closely related work of Trotter’s pro-social modeling also justifies the use of PSM in this manner. This present study analyzes the effect of PSM levels on reentry manager decision-making which balances the vast amount of criminal justice literature
discussing flaws in the reentry system from the former prisoners’ perspective. Earlier studies such as that by Rodriguez & Webb (2007) have found that despite the large number of probation officers, there are few studies that examine their decision-making processes. Little analytic attention has been paid to an administrative theory applied to the issue of prisoner reentry. This study addresses this issue by studying the effects of PSM levels on the ability of reentry managers to facilitate or interfere with successful reentry of former prisoners.

1.4 Significance

This exploratory study is significant in its potential community and administrative impacts. At the community level, the revolving door of incarceration devastates communities who suffer the economic and social strains associated with a large portion of their population involved in the criminal justice system. These target communities, as they are called, serve time along with the offenders whose repeat criminality and inability to successfully reintegrate contribute to the communities’ cycle of social and economic decline. Many current criminological studies of crime explain re-offending behavior through community factors such as poverty, inadequate education, lack of job opportunities and gang culture. However, few focus on all of the types of individuals former prisoners encounter as they engage the reentry system that is designed to help them successfully reintegrate. During this reentry process, former prisoners encounter many administrators who are there to facilitate the reentry process. However, little attention has been paid to the efficiency of this reentry system as a whole, mainly how the differences among the attitudes and motivations of reentry managers impact their decisions in the reintegration process.

At the administrative level, various studies have examined the role of attitudes and behavior on administrative effectiveness. PSM theory has been used in a number of these studies as a way to quantify attitude, or more specifically, motivation. This study stands to evaluate the
ability of PSM to predict decision-making behavior of administrators in the reentry process. The significance of this study lies in its ability to more fully explain success or failure of formerly incarcerated individuals, and more importantly, its potential to provide a measure by which to evaluate (or pre-screen) administrators that are involved in the delicate task of helping offenders rebuild pro-social lives. The few scales that have been developed and applied in correctional settings consist of self-report measures of officer orientation (e.g., Glaser, 1969; Klofas & Toch, 1982; Tomaino, 1975). These scales have been adapted over the years, but have not lead to a general consensus, standardized measure, or even consistent typologies to categorize ‘orientation’.

According to Whetzel, Paparozzi, Alexander and Lowenkamp (2011) “many in the field of corrections would agree that staff orientation can ‘make or break’ a program or policy” (p. 7). Possible outcomes from this study could change the way reoffending is viewed in terms of how much control the offender actually has over their arrest-free status versus how much that status is dependent upon the discretion of the administrator. More recently, Ricks and Eno Louden, (2014) reiterate this lingering need to understand the “relationship between approach to supervision and offender outcomes” (p. 2). Ricks and Eno Louden conclude that “in order to make lasting improvements in community corrections training and policies, we must understand the mechanisms through which officer orientation influences how officers supervise offenders, and by extension, offender outcome” (2014, p. 2).

1.5 Outline of the Study

This dissertation contains the following three chapters in accordance with the outline of the study. Chapter one contains the introduction to PSM and its use in the current context of evaluating criminal justice administrator decision-making. It includes the problem statement and the history of prisoner reentry in the current United States criminal justice system in order to
draw attention to the need for administrative research in more criminal justice contexts. This chapter concludes with the research questions and the significance of the study.

Chapter two contains a literature review of PSM, as it has evolved as a theory and as a method of study since its inception in the early 1990’s. The literature review employs a systematic approach to gathering literature to ensure a comprehensive review of relevant studies. Through this approach, the validity of PSM as a predictor variable is discussed, as well as providing justification for the variables being used in this study. In addition to a review of PSM literature, previous criminal justice research around the area of prisoner reentry, correctional orientation, and administrative decision-making is also reviewed, in addition to a general overview of the secondary theory of decision-making. The follow section is also dedicated to review the theoretical perspectives. Lastly, the literature review concludes with the study hypotheses and conceptual models.

Chapter three in this dissertation includes an overview of the methodology. Included in this chapter are the sampling strategy, units of analysis, procedure, recruitment strategy, instruments, and review of statistical methods being used. It also includes the procedures associated with the follow-up interviews and introduces the qualitative and quantitative data analysis. This chapter concludes with the data analysis tools including a brief introduction of the descriptives, chi-squares, and binomial logistic regressions, the results of which are discussed in chapter four.

The fourth chapter contains the results of the study following in accordance of the order in which the results were computed using SPSS. It begins with basic descriptive analyses, followed by chi-square analyses, and concludes with binomial logistical regression, and ANOVA. The qualitative results of the follow-up interviews are also used in this section to
explain findings and interpret results. In this chapter the data is discussed in terms of supporting or disproving the study hypotheses.

Chapter five is the final chapter in this dissertation and contains a discussion of the study limitations, implications of the findings and pathways for future research in this area.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature was reviewed to provide a comprehensive review of both PSM and decision-making theories in order to justify their use in the current study. For this study PSM is used as an independent measure to predict the dependent decision-making of reentry managers. Therefore, although the literature review is comprehensive, past studies which have used PSM in a similar manner are discussed in more detail. A review of decision-making literature also includes articles with greater focus on studies which have used decision-making as an outcome measure in criminal justice. The literature review was compiled using a variety of methods to ensure that the search was comprehensive, including; the ancestry approach, an inquiry posed to the top ten PSM researchers, as well as an Internet database search. This section focuses on the history of PSM research by its supporters, as well as its critics, the validity of PSM as a measure, the criminal justice context to which PSM is currently applied, and lastly an overview of decision-making theory.

This initial systematic literature review is comprised of four channels through which relevant research was collected; a bibliography provided by the primary researcher and developer of PSM James Perry, the ancestry approach, an inquiry to the top ten authors of the most highly cited PSM studies, and an Internet database search. They follow in accordance with Cooper’s (2010) recommendations for conducting a thorough and methodologically sound review.

The working bibliography was provided by the developer of PSM, James Perry, during the inquiry to the ten most cited authors on PSM. The bibliography includes an inclusive (but not exhaustive) list of articles relevant to PSM that were current as of 2013. A limitation of this method, as mentioned by Cooper (2010), is that comprehensive lists such as these may be homogenous in their results and thus should be balanced with other methods. Therefore, the varying methods employed to collect literature attempt to overcome this limitation. The ancestry
approach used here, although subject to the same limitation, will identify research left out of the list provided by the primary researchers who were asked to recommend the most critical contributions to PSM.

The ten most cited PSM authors were selected based upon a Google Scholar search on “Public Service Motivation” which yielded a list of authors ordered from most to least cited. The ten most frequently cited authors, excluding repeats and second and third authors (with the exception of one), were sent emails requesting their recommendation of the top five most critical works to the theory of PSM. Email addresses were obtained through a Google search of each of the identified authors.

From this list of works (Table 1) the ancestry approach was employed to identify other related works. This method is supplemented by working back through the references of identified articles and searching their reference lists for other relevant works (Cooper, 2010). The search ended once studies became outdated, or results became repetitive. Also worth noting is that publications with titles that did not contain a combination of the words ‘Public Service Motivation’ were for the most part excluded from this search. Another limitation of this approach is that it lacks results of the most recent reports. Thus, the Internet database search attempts to overcome this limitation and was ongoing throughout the duration of the study. It was conducted through various peer review search sites such as Google Scholar and Academic EBSCO Host. Key words relevant to PSM such as “public service AND motivation,” “PSM,” “pro-social modeling,” “public service motivation,” “decision-making,” “decision making” as well as the related criminal justice keywords (i.e. probation, criminal, offender, offender management, reentry, community corrections, correctional orientation) were used in various
formations to yield a list of more recent relevant research around this topic. Duplicate results from the ancestry approach and the personal contact list were excluded.

Google Scholar alerts were the final method that attempted to fill in any gaps left by the other methods. These Google Scholar alerts were set up in the final six months of the study to avoid missing any newly rereleased studies up until the date of completion for this dissertation. The Google Scholar alerts contained similar key words as the initial search terms and also included any articles that cite some of the foundational works relevant to this study.

2.1 Systematic Literature Review

In accordance with Cooper’s (2010) strategy of mass solicitation, emails were sent out to the first authors of the ten most cited PSM articles. One of the first author’s contact information was unable to be located after a thorough search, so the second author was contacted instead. Because these individuals belong to various organizations, and are not personal contacts of the current researcher, this greatly minimizes the bias Cooper warns of in these types of inquiries (2010). However, only six out of the ten authors responded to the inquiry, and it could be argued that a self-selection bias exists among those who responded (Table 1). Given that this is not the only means of gathering PSM literature; the other varying methods exist to minimize homogeneity among them.

The responses from the ten most cited authors came in over the course of two weeks, and after a week a reminder email was sent to the authors who had not yet responded. Following the reminder email two more authors responded. Of the four who did not provide recommendations to prominent articles, Phil Crewson and David Houston did not respond to the inquiry at all which could be attributed to inaccurate contact information or a lack of desire to respond. The remaining two, Katherine Naff and Leonard Bright responded but declined to provide any information for various reasons, respectively, having not kept up with the literature and feeling
that the request was not necessary as literature is readily available. At the time of the completion of this systematic review, two authors have still not responded. Of those who did respond, some provided more than five works, others provided less (Table 1).

Table 1. PSM Author Recommendations

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Author</th>
<th>Recommended Articles</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gene A. Brewer</td>
<td>Ritz, A., Brewer, G. &amp; Neumann, O. 2013**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greg B. Lewis</td>
<td>Ritz, A., Brewer, G. &amp; Neumann, O. 2013** Lewis, G.B. &amp; Ng (forthcoming)</td>
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** Indicates article was recommended by more than 1 author.

At the time of this inquiry, a PSM literature review had already been developed and therefore some of the recommended articles had already been reviewed for this study. The focus
was thus on those articles that the present author had not come across yet in other searches. Priority was given to articles that were recommended by more than one author. Thus, from this mass solicitation of critical PSM articles, Ritz, Brewer and Neumann (2013) was the most highly recommended work, as it was suggested by three separate authors. Therefore, this systematic review commences with Ritz Brewer and Neumann (2013) which also happens to be a systematic literature review in itself. It is also the most current on PSM which is helpful in ensuring inclusiveness of the PSM review. Most relevant to the current study is Ritz et al.’s breakdown of types of PSM study to date. In their analysis they find that “85 (28.91%) studies assessed the relationship between public service motivation and various outcome variables” (p. 16). This is relevant because of the aims of the current study to use PSM as a predictor of an outcome variable. Also, according to Ritz et al. (2013), PSM was found to have “positive relationships with job satisfaction, individual and organizational performance, choosing or intending to choose a public sector job, and organizational commitment, although there were also some mixed and neutral results in some instances” (p. 17). This is important for accounting for intervening factors in this study that could affect the ability of PSM to predict ideologically similar pro-social outcome measures.

Ritz, Brewer and Neumann (2013) point out that the previous systematic reviews of PSM have been narrative reviews in lieu of more rigorous meta-analyses. These other major reviews on PSM identified as Perry and Hondeghem 2008, Perry, Hondeghem, and Wise 2010, and Wright and Grant 2010 are the starting point for this narrative review that provides a theoretical framework for the current study. As mentioned, additional methods are employed to account for articles published between 2011 and the present.
The ancestry approach continues with Perry and Hondeghem (2008) which addresses the theory and empirical evidence of PSM. Their symposium piece focused on seven studies from various countries, mainly European countries such as the Netherlands, Denmark and Belgium, as well as the United States and Australia. Perry and Hondeghem (2008) identify two tracks of a PSM research agenda which articulates the diversity of possibility for PSM research. According to Perry and Hondeghem, “The first [research] track involves how the study of other-regarding orientations in disciplines outside public management and administration can help to close gaps in our knowledge about public service motivation and vice versa” (2008, p. 8). This is congruent with the application of PSM to the field of criminal justice as it has yet to be purposefully applied to criminal justice populations. PSM studies that have included employees from criminal justice populations thus far include them arbitrarily within a medley of public employees (Bright, 2005; 2008; Rotolo & Wilson, 2006). Thus the impact of PSM on criminal justice issues specifically has not been the focus of previous works. The second research track discussed by Perry and Hondeghem calls for PSM research testing the measure in public management and administration, exploring its relationship to performance, studying the construct in different settings and improving public management practice (2008). Most importantly, Perry and Hondeghem emphasize that “despite growth of research in recent years, many ambiguities, gaps, and uncertainties remain in our understanding of public service motivation” (2008, p. 8). Within Perry and Hondeghem’s (2008) narrative review, one of these gaps was identified by François (2000) which focused on bridging the gap of PSM to economics. Taking an economics perspective, François examines the conditions under which government can yield more public service motivated employee efforts than private, for profit organizations (2000).
A later contributor to the application of PSM as a predictor variable is Steijn (2008) whose study found a correlation between workers with a PSM “fit” (workplace and attitude alignment) and higher satisfaction and job retention than workers without such a fit. The 2006 study surveyed 29,987 Dutch public sector workers, however, these conclusions pertain to a subset of 4,502 representative respondents who work for the national civil service. An additional survey was administered to 1,947 private sector workers to provide a comparative population (2008). However it is important to note that this study used limited measures from Perry’s (1996) PSM instrument, and thus generalizations to PSM are limited (Steijn, 2008). This is useful to the current study because it demonstrates use of PSM as a predictor of a particular outcome measure.

Setijn (2008) drew largely from Naff and Crum (1998) who employ an application of PSM and in their 1998 study found that significant relationships existed between PSM and job satisfaction, performance, retention, and support for government efforts among public (federal) versus private employees. Job satisfaction is commonly explored as a correlate of PSM in the literature. Taylor (2008) also examined the relationship of PSM and the related variables of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In her study of over 2,000 Australian public and private employees she found that “what can, however, be inferred from this research is the direct, positive, and significant effects of PSM-fit on favorable work outcomes” (2008, p. 82).

However, Gabris and Simo (1995) challenge this idea of PSM as an adequate independent variable used to predict other behavior. They argue it is hard to isolate as a variable and is too closely tied to other factors to be a valid measure (1995). This is a substantial critique that should not be discounted, however, the amount of work supporting the use of PSM as a strong predictor variable, including a confirmatory factor analysis conducted by Vandenabeele
(2008) and Perry (1996) appears to outweigh these and other similar claims such as those by Lewis and Alonso (1999) who also challenge its validity.

Exploring Perry and Wise’s (1990) assumption of differing effects of financial motives on PSM between the public and private sector, Andersen and Pallesen (2008) designed a study to test the motivating factor of such incentives. In their study of Danish research institutions they found that financial incentives had mixed effects. Although overall the assumption was supported that financial incentives can be a motivating factor, it was subject to other conditions. This includes the employees’ perception of the package as either supporting or controlling (2008). In the current study, there is no incentive for participation in the survey portion.

In accordance with studies that test influences on motivation, Grant (2008) attempted a longitudinal, quasi-experimental study to determine what factors can influence motivation. When comparing the experimental group to the control group he found that “connecting public service employees to the prosocial impact of their work can enhance their motivation” (2008, p. 55). Therefore, those who were given a personal connection to the impact of their work (experimental group) experienced increased motivation and productivity than those who were not exposed (control group). This supports the idea that PSM can be enhanced by external factors and therefore is not a fixed innate characteristic as initially thought. The methodology of Grant’s study is less relevant to the current study than the theoretical implications extracted from the findings.

Pandey, Wright and Moynihan (2008) tested the relationship between PSM and interpersonal citizenship behavior (ICB). PSM was evaluated as a possible antecedent variable of ICB when tested among public employees. ICB is associated with a helping orientation toward co-workers (Mossholder, Settoon, & Henagan, 2005; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). In their
analysis, Pandy et al., also defined PSM in terms of their application as “an individual’s predisposition to enact altruistic or pro-social behaviors regardless of setting” (2008, p. 91-92). Pandey et al. found that PSM fosters routine helpful behaviors that are associated with the dependent measure of ICB. This holds relevance to the current study utilizing PSM as a predictor variable of assistance oriented behavior.

Effective leadership styles, such as combinations of transactional and transformational leadership can impact PSM (by increasing intrinsic motivations) among public employees (Park & Rainey, 2008; Rafferty and Griffin 2004; Rainey 2003). This implies that leadership styles, as well as organizational influences can impact the PSM levels of employees (Park & Rainey, 2008). The last author to be discussed by Perry and Hondeghem (2008) is Vandenabeele (2008) who tested the dimensions of PSM using confirmatory factor analysis and found that for the most part they were supported. This is discussed further in the justification of statistical methods section in this literature review. It is included here because it is part of the ancestry approach to the review, but the relevance of its content is more suited for the methods chapter.

The second major review of PSM identified by Ritz, Brewer and Neumann (2013) is one published by Perry, Hondeghem and Wise (2010) which reviewed the past twenty years of PSM research. From this symposium piece various definitions of PSM were outlined to demonstrate how the concept has been diversely applied and interpreted. The main definitions as outlined by Perry et al. (2010) are as follows; Perry and Wise define PSM as “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (1990, p. 368). Rainey & Steinbauer (1999) interpret PSM as the “interests of a community of people, a state, a nation” (p. 20). Brewer & Selden (1998) succinctly pair these synonyms with PSM, “public, community, and social service” (p. 417). Lastly, Vandenabeele, (2007) defines
PSM as “belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity” (p. 547). According to Perry and Hondeghem (2008) this definition by Vandenabeele is the most current adaptation of PSM and is differentiated from other definitions by the incorporation of values as a factor of institutional identity. It is also the most relevant definition to the application of PSM in the current study.

Perry, Hondeghem, and Wise (2010) also describe recent studies on motivation being studied often in the context of work. However, they state that “we do not limit the scope of our review to work motivation, in part because the forces are not bounded by work tasks alone, but involve institutional and environmental forces, the work itself, and individual needs and motives” (2010, p. 681). In essence, PSM deals with intrinsic initiative to do philanthropic work, and shares many of the values of the larger realm of public service. Those who possess a high level of PSM are assumed to be more altruistic than those with lower PSM. Perry et al. (2010) pose the argument that “PSM originates from beliefs that unique motives are found among public servants that are different from those of their private sector counterparts” (p. 681). A possible explanation for this would be that the motivations referred to in PSM describing public organizations are not those equated with financial gains, and thus allude to more altruistic motives over financial motives for those with high PSM; motivations such as compassion, civic duty, self-sacrifice, commitment to the public interest (Perry et al., 2010).

Perry, Brudney, Coursey, and Littlepage (2008) study the impact of antecedents such as volunteer experience, religious activity, and parental socialization as determinants of public sector motivation. The sample included 525 national volunteer award winners with a 38 percent response rate, who were mailed a shortened version of Perry’s PSM instrument and asked questions related to “religiosity, voluntarism, motivations for volunteering and family
influences” (2008, p. 448). An earlier study by Perry (1997) also looked at other antecedents including parental socialization, religious socialization, professional identification, political ideology, and individual demographic characteristics such as gender. These are also important antecedents to use as controls in the current study as they are shown to be factors influencing the moral underpinnings of PSM.

More recently, Christensen and Wright (2011) exercise a valid attempt to summarize current literature around PSM and the recent shift in explaining the real role of PSM in person-fit and person-job fit. They bring to light the notion that it is not so much the sector that individuals choose due to PSM but that “individuals with high PSM may find some public sector jobs or organizations may be more attractive than others perhaps due to important differences in mission, practices or even reputation” (p. 724). Therefore, it is not the sector that attracts them, but shared values with the actual organization. This revelation is hinting at a spurious relationship between PSM and sector that includes the organizational mission as the latent third variable, which is vital to this study. Because the population in this study is cross-sectoral, the nature of the work—not the sector—could be a determinate of PSM score and associated decision-making.

In accordance with the ideology that the organization plays a role in PSM regardless of sector is Davis (2011), who conducted a two phase, mixed modes (survey and interviews) study with 602 of the possible 1,115 municipal employees from 14 departments. The results specifically focused on 359 union members (2011). Davis found in his study of PSM among union members, “the quantitative findings suggest that union socialization is associated with lower compassion, higher self-sacrifice, and greater commitment to the public interest” (p. 705). These three measures are three out of the four indicators of the PSM construct—the last one was
found to be irrelevant to Davis’ work. However, this supports the idea that socialization into an organization and adoption of its ethos can affect PSM score, or at least be more attractive to those with similar PSM. Moynihan and Pandey (2007) support the positive relationship of PSM and membership in professional organizations as well as educational level. Their findings state that “results also underscore the significant influence of organizational institutions” (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007, p. 40). These findings are important for informing the current study that organizational culture and mission can be intervening factors and they are incorporated into the survey instrument to account for this effect.

2.2 Validity of PSM as a Predictor Variable

Several scholars have attempted to validate the PSM measure, and some have been more successful than others. According to Mann (2006), “The attitudes and intrinsic motivations that give rise to PSM are generally studied by way of questionnaires, but survey instruments that rely solely on self-reported attitudes or motivations as data points present some serious challenges” (p. 36). Naff and Crum (1998), despite finding a positive correlation between PSM and performance also voiced concerns about the self-report nature of the data. According to Andersen, Heinensen and Pedersen (2014), and Dixit (2002), due to the team setting and cumulative efforts of many public service objectives, “finding an objective outcome measure that can be combined with information about the individual motivation of the relevant public employee is like finding a needle in a haystack” (Andersen et al., 2014, p. 2). Due to the rarity of these ideal scenarios, there is approximately only one PSM study to date which was able to use a truly objective outcome measure and that is Bellè, 2012 (Andersen, Heinesen and Pedersen, 2014). Rainey (1982) also acknowledged some issues of construct validity that arise from the tendency of respondents to provide socially desirable answers in the survey.
Despite these issues raised regarding construct validity, the creators of PSM, as well as its critics still advocate for future research regarding this measure. According to Wise (2004) “another charge for future research is to experiment with alternative methods for capturing information related to both bureaucrats’ motives and organizational outcomes.” (p. 678). Wise also highlights the importance of future studies taking into account contextual factors (Wise, 2004; Perry, Hondeghem & Wise, 2010). It appears the recent review of literature presented here does not appear to have addressed this issue.

In regards to current research specifically, Perry, Hondeghem and Wise (2010) state that “At this juncture, the research points to the conclusion that PSM matters for performance, but a good many questions remain unanswered about the degree to which it matters and whether its effects are collective rather than individual” (p. 685). This study does not aim to answer this question specifically, as the focus is not on the divergence of PSM score by sector, but rather on using PSM score to predict decision-making behavior of administrators working with former prisoners. A final point of Perry, Hondeghem and Wise does advocate for the use of PSM research in this manner, as they state “finally, research clarifying the relationships between PSM and different types of performance (individual/collective, efficiency/effectiveness) would advance understanding” (2010, p. 685). This current study attempts to foster this approach from Perry et al., advocating advanced understanding through examining the relationship of PSM as it is tied to performance.

The most recent work containing direct relevance to the study at hand is a study that was conducted by Steiner, Travis, Makarios and Brickley (2011) that is closely aligned with this research design. Steiner et al., surveyed all of the Adult Parole Authority (APA) officers in Ohio responsible for offenders who had been released onto post prison supervision (n= 454) with an
82% response rate. A mixed mode study was conducted using mail and Internet survey instruments to examine the influence of officers’ attitudes on their job performance (2011). The aims of the study by Steiner et al., (2011) and the methodology are very similar to the current study, with differences in the study instrument, and the main difference here being an expanded population and the use of PSM as an additional survey instrument.

2.3 Variables

In this study, PSM is used as an independent measure. PSM is comprised of four dimensions that are considered sub categories of the overall independent variable. These four dimensions are commitment to public interest, civic duty, compassion and self-sacrifice. PSM will be the only independent variable used to assess the dependent outcomes, however control variables such as gender, age, education level, years of employment, income, sector, volunteer experience, religiosity and political affiliation are used to account for any intervening factors. The two main control variables are gender and years of employment experience as they are perceived to be the most common intervening variables to PSM score. The dependent measures of PSM center on decision-making and will be discussed below. Previous studies using PSM as an independent variable at the individual level have measured the following outcomes according to Ritz, Brewer and Neumann; “performance, prosocial behaviors and volunteering, and various other behavioral and attitudes-related outcomes such as quitting, commitment, and job satisfaction” (2013, p. 24). The attributes of this independent variable PSM Score were intended to be grouped into low, medium, and high based on the score, however, the data did not yield as polarized results as were expected, thus PSM Score was kept on a continuous scale. This will be discussed further in chapter four.

The dependent variable is decision orientation, which is measured by five dichotomous items. These specific variables are referrals to rehabilitative services, giving an informal
warning, reporting/revoking conditional release, advocating for or against reincarceration and reprimanding. These outcomes or dependent variables are intended to measure the effects of PSM on decision-making and are indications of the dimensions of compassion, self-sacrifice, civic duty and commitment to the public interest (Perry, 1996).

Also in accordance with factors influencing PSM scores is a point made by Perry and Hondeghem (2008) that “The research on antecedents reports that the most robust socio-demographic antecedents of public service motivation are education, gender, and age” (2008, p. 7). These same antecedents in addition to others are discussed by Perry, Brudney, Coursey, and Littlepage (2008) in which they identify income, volunteer experience, religious activity, youth volunteering, and family socialization as additional predictors of PSM score. The following figure (Figure 1.) was designed by Perry et al. (2008) to conceptually reflect the contribution of the various antecedent factors on PSM. These are used as controls for this study to test for their effect on the outcomes.

![Theoretical Model](image)

Figure 1. Theoretical Model (Perry, Brudney, Coursey, & Littlepage, 2008, p. 446)

This adapted figure (Figure 1) was used to conceptualize the hypotheses in this study design. The remaining antecedent variables of professional identification, political ideology, and
individual demographic characteristics such as gender were also discussed in an earlier evaluation by Perry (1997). In the most current systematic literature review of PSM to date, Ritz, Brewer, and Neumann (2013) also identified the most frequently studied antecedents and found they consisted of “gender (22 occurrences), education (20) and age (20). Other frequently assessed antecedents included job grade/management level (11), tenure (11), and salary (9)” (p. 17). In this current study, these items are combined and narrowed down to complete a list of control variables which include gender, age, education level, years of employment, income, sector, volunteer experience, religiosity, and political affiliation.

2.4 PSM Themes in Criminal Justice Literature

This section of the literature review focuses primarily on literature from the criminal justice field around the role of attitude on decision-making outcomes for those working with offenders. The available literature varies, with most studies focusing exclusively on probation officers and probationers as the study population. Although this cannot be generalized fully to the different reentry manager occupations in the study at hand, the overall idea of the role of assistance versus punitive attitudes of case managers and decisions in offender management is very much the same. Therefore, although this section of the literature review will mainly refer to probation officers, it is important to keep in mind the broader focus of the various roles of reentry managers that are studied here. For all intents and purposes, when the term probation officers is used in this literature review, it is intended to apply broadly to the various reentry managers including parole officers, social workers, substance abuse counselors, mentors, reentry court case managers, etc.

Beginning with previous correctional research that attempted to study officer (probation, parole, corrections) orientations, Ohlin, Piven, and Pappenfort (1956) were among the first to classify different officer typologies. These authors distinguished that officers fall into three
general categories of “punitive officer” “protective agent” and “welfare worker” (p. 215). Ohlin et al., describe the punitive officer as being most focused on control and protecting the community from the offender. The protective agent, on the other hand, balances protecting the community along with protecting the offender. Lastly, the welfare worker is primarily concerned with improving the conditions of the offender with the indirect effect of increased community safety through the successful readjustment of the offender (1956).

Dembo's (1972) study of parole officers found that those with a lower reintegrative score showed a greater orientation toward punishment which was associated with and increased likelihood to take formal action, including violations and advocating for reincarceration. According to Dembo, “The punishment-oriented officer abides by his law enforcement responsibilities and provides few client-centered services. Clients are viewed in a stigmatized manner” (Dembo, p. 200). On the other hand, Dembo states that “reintegrative-orientated officers believe in the ability of people to help others if enough effort is made. To this end, services are provided to clients and efforts directed to reestablish and keep the offender in the community” (Dembo, p. 200). Dembo distinguished between the reintegrative and punishment oriented officers by assessing where their score fell (above or below the median) for each dimension (1972). This is similar to how PSM is scored in the present study. Other similarities between Dembo’s study and this current one are the activities he used to define decision-action. In addition to “hours worked,” “absconder visits made” and “number of motor vehicle licenses referrals,” (1972, p. 200), Dembo also measured number of technical violations and recommendations to return to prison (1972). These last three, referrals to services, technical violations, and advocating for or against reincarceration are decision options that are also measured in the present study.
From this line of inquiry, subsequent studies have examined the role of probation officer attitudes in terms of their role relation to the job (Glaser, 1969; Dembo, 1972; Fitzharris, 1979; Fulton, Stitchman, Travis & Latessa, 1997; Paparozzi & Gendreau, 2005). The aspect most highly focused on in these works are the orientations and role conflict experienced by probation officers who are tasked both with supervising as well as treating the offender, or as Clear and Latessa describe it; the conflict between enforcing the law and helping the offender (1993).

According to Fulton, Stitchman, Travis, and Latessa (1997), there are studies that found some officers adapt to the roles and fluctuate between enforcer and social worker depending upon the client’s behavior and risk assessments (Hardyman, 1988; McCleary, 1978; Erwin & Bennett, 1987; Clear & Latessa, 1993). Katz (1982) found that officer attitudes relate to certain behaviors, specifically when it comes to the decision to revoke probation. This is extremely relevant to the current study because of the use of attitude as a predictor variable for decision-making. Fulton et al., (1997) also discuss that the research surrounding the source of the role preference is lacking, despite some studies which focus on intervening factors such as gender and organizational mission and size. Fulton et al., also acknowledge that research demonstrating how these various attitudes translate into performance is also lacking (1997).

PSM theory was selected because of its ability to operationalize the idea of motivation (or the less tangible concept of “attitude”) in response to Katz (1982) who stated that “in criminal justice research, there has been little consensus on either the definition of the measurement of this crucial variable [attitude]” (p. 459). This statement supports Katz’s biggest critique of previous studies which Katz criticizes as having inferred attitude rather than measuring it (Katz, 1982; Hogarth, 1971). Katz suggests instead that researchers use something more standardized, and gives the example of Fishbein’s (1967) semantic differential scale which uses polarized
adjectives to gauge where participants fall on the attitude continuum. Using the pre-developed PSM scale in this study as a measure of motivation (synonymous with attitude in this application) is an attempt to further this line of inquiry; to standardize a measure by which to measure motivation in the criminal justice field.

The work of Trotter (1996) also supports the use of PSM applied to a criminal justice context. In Trotter’s 1996 study of community corrections approaches to reducing recidivism he claims that his “research found, among other things, that supervision characterised by a prosocial approach, the use of problem solving and the use of empathy, is related to lower recidivism” (p. 29). A similar conclusion was also drawn by Rex (1999) who evaluated the experiences of probationers and found that the type of probation supervision made a difference in client choices to desist from crime. Those who were motivated to avoid reoffending attributed it to their supervision that they described as active and participatory. Probation officer traits that were indicative of positive and accountable relationships with their clients were described as reasonable, fair and encouraging (1999).

In a similar study, Barry (2000) examined the significance of the type of relationship between probationer and probation officer from the probationer’s perspective and found that probationers perceived the mentor oriented officers as more beneficial than the more punitive monitoring officers. They felt more motivated by officers who assumed a helping, proactive, and empathetic role than those who did not (2000). Burnett (2004) also theorized based on his work with probationers, that the stronger, more positive the interpersonal relationship between the officer and the offender, the more likely the client is to internalize the encouragement and motivation and desist from crime. Other authors studying the experiences of probationers in the United Kingdom such as Burnett and McNeill (2005) and Dowden and Andrews (2004) also
emphasize the importance of the type of relationship between officer and offender on effective interventions. Dowden and Andrews concluded that five key dimensions of effective intervention with offenders include “effective use of authority, anticriminal [pro-social] modeling and reinforcement, problem solving, use of community resources, and quality of interpersonal relationships between staff and client” (2004, p. 204). These various studies support the use of PSM as a predictor of pro-social and rehabilitative approaches to reducing recidivism among former prisoners.

A prominent dissenter among this group of UK scholars who argue that the relationship between officer and offender does play a key role in their success is Farrall (2003; 2004) who studied the progress of 199 probationers. Despite the fact that the greater majority of the sample demonstrated progress towards desistance, Farrall concluded that this change could only be directly linked to the actions of the officers in a small number of cases. Farrall (2003; 2004) brings to light an interesting factor that cannot be overlooked in this type of work which uses recidivism (i.e. desistance) as an outcome measure, and that is that these relationships do not occur in a vacuum. The various social, emotional, economic and personal factors that surround offenders overwhelm the potential impacts that any single relationship could have. However, this present study is not using recidivism as an outcome measure and thus is not subject to this critique of Farrall. Because decision-making of the officer is the outcome measure here, its impact on recidivism is merely inferred, and is not what the current study is attempting to test and/or prove.

Purkiss, Kifer, Hemmens, and Burton (2003) analyzed the statutory functions of adult probation officers (PO’s) in all 50 states and Washington D.C. and separated them into two categories of law enforcement tasks and rehabilitative tasks. The results were then compared to
the 1992 study conducted by Burton, Latessa, and Barker and the findings were that PO’s have more requirements to perform law enforcement tasks than rehabilitative tasks, however there was a slight increase of rehabilitative tasks from 1992-2002. In terms of these requirements or lack thereof, discussions on officer discretion have concluded that most agencies still lack strict guidelines for how to manage noncompliant clients (Eno Louden, Skeem, Camp, & Christensen, 2008; Ricks & Eno Louden, 2014), with officers continuing to have widespread discretion when making decisions (Clear, Harris, Baird, 1992; Jones & Kerbs, 2007). This is also supported by the qualitative findings in this study and will be discussed in more detail in chapter four.

In terms of operationalizing the ideas of rehabilitative versus punitive decisions, examples of previous studies’ classifications were used to guide the present study. According to Steiner, Wada, Hemmens, and Burton, (2005) in classifying statutory functions of probation officers “the goals, assist in education, provide counseling, rehabilitation, reintegration, specialized treatment, and training/job placement, were classified as rehabilitation functions. The goals, collect restitution, community service, custody and supervision, protect public, and punishment, were coded as punishment functions” (p. 145). Other scholars such as Johnson, Dunaway, Burton, Marquart, and Cuvelier, (1993) and Purkiss, Kifer, Hemmens, and Burton (2003) have separated these functions similarly.

2.5 Decision-Making

In addition to the role of PSM as a theory in this study, decision-making literature is also included to help guide the research and interpret the study results. Decision-making theory is however secondary to the main predictive theory of PSM as influencing reentry managers decision-making. The body of literature surrounding decision- making is vast, with many studies focusing on the concept applied to very specific populations or situations. Therefore, this review
focuses on general tenants of decision-making theory, coupled with its application to the criminal justice field.

At its most basic level, decision-making deals with choice. When presented with options individuals make decisions that are dependent upon a myriad of factors. Some theorize that the choices require a cost benefit analysis in which an individual chooses that which will bring about the largest benefit relative to the cost (Morrison & Vancouver, 2000; Ashford & Cummings, 1983). Others surmise that decisions are made based upon the level of risk and uncertainty (Berger & Calabrese, 1975; Berlyne, 1960). In the criminal justice field a vast amount of decision-making literature focuses on its role in parole board hearings which determine if current inmates are eligible to be released back into society before reaching the maximum cap of their sentence. According to Jones and Kerbs (2007) “A number of factors that may significantly affect PPO [probation and parole officer] discretion include:

- Differing philosophical orientations to criminal justice goals like rehabilitation versus retribution;
- Scholarly interpretations of the law;
- Formal organizational and/or community practices; and finally,
- Personal preferences” (p. 9).

According to Tasdoven and Kapucu (2013) discretionary decision-making is influenced by the following factors; situational, environmental, individual/attitudinal, and organizational factors. These various factors impact the types of decisions that are made, even despite similar circumstances (situational) (2013). For instance, the situation surrounding a decision by an officer to arrest may be very similar to that of another officer who decides not to arrest. Factors that can alter the outcomes of the two decisions could be at the environmental (community) or
the individual (attitude) level. The fourth factor of organizational influence is not as relevant to this study—as the emphasis here is on individual motivation—but could still play a role in terms of the ethos or norms of the organization and how influential they are to the individual employee decisions. In the present study, the situational factor is controlled for to minimize its interference with the independent variable of motivation, but environmental and organizational factors were not as easy to control for.

Another element to consider when evaluating decision-making is that of culture. Culture is defined by Hill and Lynn as “shared norms and understanding as to what the work of the organization should be, and how it is or should be accomplished” (2009, p.189). This includes “the values, ethics, and motives of individual participants in the organization” (p.189). Culture can impact decision-making and performance on many levels, however most often when the culture is set in a hierarchical structure, with a very top down design. Although this is structural on the surface, it has cultural implications when chain of command is enforced and subordinates are afraid to speak up or deviate from the orders of their superiors. This is the case of many supervisory environments such as probation, parole and work release centers, where the paramilitary chain of command is usually present more so then in the other three job categories in this study, which are more civilian and community based.

An additional factor that can influence decision-making is the political climate. Though politics can be broadly defined and broadly applied, for this purpose it is defined as the larger Federal agenda of the United States, in conjunction with the hierarchy of the organization and the will of the stakeholders that can permeate many public organizations. According to Shalala (1998) “None of us, whether we're a political or career public servant, can operate in a vacuum” (p. 288). Politics can be a major influencing factor on decisions in an organization when decision
makers feel pressured to serve too many masters, or the dominant agenda of one overshadows the needs of the other stakeholders. This is also prominent in organizations which are dependent upon grant funding and stakeholder interests.

Policy can also influence the strategic plan of the organization in the development of its mission and goals. Sometimes the funding of certain agencies is contingent upon the proposed meeting of certain goals that serve a predetermined public interest. According to Hughes, differences exist between private and public sector strategic plans in that the public sector must factor in many political policy factors that the private sector does not. These items include constitutional constraints, legislative and judicial mandates, political climate, and competing interests of stakeholders (2002). Some of the participants in the follow-up interviews spoke to the effect of policy on their decisions which are included in chapter four.

Aside from environmental factors and influences, the next major aspects of decision-making to be focused on are individual factors. These factors—defined as personal characteristics which comprise decision-makers and influence their decisions—are something that cannot be overlooked in discussions of decision-making. Earlier theories of this effect were studied by various scholars (Menzies, Webster & Hart, 1995; Hart, 1998;) who concluded that there are two predominant approaches to decision-making in the field of risk assessment, the first of which is unstructured clinical judgment. This usually entails the evaluators having widespread discretion with little oversight. This subjectivity makes it difficult to standardize decision-making policies and criteria in agencies and reliability among different evaluators.

The second approach is actuarial risk assessment which is based upon a strict algorithm of risk assessment measures that are used to gauge risk and guide decision-makers who act more to carry out the results of the test, instead of being guided by their own opinions, instincts and
subjectivity. According to Hart (1998) limitations of actuarial risk assessment is that it often involves static factors such as gender, criminal history, IQ, etc., items that cannot be changed or managed. It also limits human intuition which sometimes can be an accurate predictor or risk or lack thereof (Hart, 1998). For instance, if someone possesses a low risk score, but the evaluator gets a sense that the person may have violent ideations, aggressive body language, etc., it could have grave consequences if the human element of evaluation was eliminated in favor of the algorithm in these situations. Hart (1998) also introduces the concept of structured clinical judgment.

These theories were later built upon by Doyle and Dolan (2002) who theorized that in professional settings there are actually three types of distinctions between different approaches to decision-making. These three types consist of the first generation clinical approach which relies on professional judgment and entail a lot of discretion, the second generation actuarial approach, which is more objective and based on statistical analyses and quantitative measures usually from structured risk assessments and lastly the third generation which is the structured clinical judgment approach (2002). From the qualitative data in this study it appears that the majority of interview respondents mainly follow a clinical judgment approach, with some following a structured clinical judgment. None of the interview respondents indicated following an actuarial approach to decision-making.

Based upon findings from an experiment conducted by Bruner and Postman’s (1949) an individual’s perception and judgments are strongly influenced by preconceived expectations. Building off of this earlier research, Murray and Thompson (2010) concluded:

It is, however, also important to take this into account when assessing the risk of violence posed; as preconceived
notions are known to not only influence the information sought and attended to in the first instance, but also the perceived reliability of this information, the clinician will be more likely to conduct a biased risk assessment. (p. 156)

This research by Murray and Thompson (2010) also makes note of the differences between laboratory decisions made in research settings, and those made in real life. According to them “In addition, the assessment made by the practitioner may also be affected by the real world circumstances surrounding a case” (2010, p. 163). The impact this has on the current study is that although the cases were designed to give as much context as possible, they still lacked the real world elements and most importantly, the consequences necessary for them to be generalizable to what would have occurred in a real life setting.

2.5.1 Attribution Theory

Another sub-theory to consider which ties closely to decision-making theory is attribution theory. It has been defined by many over the years, but essentially deals with individual characteristics and interpretations of surrounding environmental factors as influencing decisions (Heider, 1958; Carol, 1978; Fletcher, Danilovics, Fernandez, Peterson & Reeder, 1986; Joireman, 2004; Tam, Au & Leuang, 2008; Gamache, Platania & Zaitchik, 2013). It has also been commonly used in criminal justice studies to mainly assess parole board decision-making. According to Gamache, Platania, and Zaitchik, (2013) “Specifically, results of studies investigating the role of attribution in this [legal/forensic] context have increased awareness of the importance of individual difference characteristics in the legal/forensic arena” (p. 58). The attributions being considered are those of the clients (offenders, etc.) that are either taken into account or discounted by the clinical decision-makers.
In one of the earliest studies on attributes and parole decision-making, Carole (1978) discusses the specific types of attributions that are factored into decisions, whether knowingly or unknowingly “elements of the offender's social history and aspects of the offense description other than the offense type are important sources of attributions” (p. 1509). This connects well into the current study in that some attributes were made known to respondents in the case studies in order to try and minimize as much differentiation as possible in order to streamline the respondents’ reactions to the offender. For instance, the researcher did not want one respondent to infer there was a drug use problem and another one to not. In the case studies details about age, gender, education level, offense type, and criminal history were given to homogenize the attributes. These main attributes were held constant among all four case studies, although the offender’s present circumstances were altered slightly for each, the type and length of sentence, educational background, and the fact that he was on conditional release was held constant. However, according to Carole (1978) individual differences among clinicians may cause some to pay attention to these attributes and others to ignore them.

From this and the work around cognitive complexity, was borne the concept of attributional complexity. According to work by Fletcher, Danilovics, Fernandez, Peterson, and Reeder (1986), who essentially define attributional complexity postulated that “attributionally complex people would possess higher levels of intrinsic motivation to explain and understand human behavior” (p. 876). Subsequent research by Joireman (2004) studied the relationship between attributional complexity and empathy. Joireman defined attributional complexity as a “multi-faceted construct reflecting the extent to which people are motivated to understand the causes of behavior and prefer complex over simple explanations for behavior” (2004, p. 198). Ideologically similar to the current study with attributional complexity measuring levels of
motivation, among other things, Joireman measured the relationship of this to judgments and decision-making. He found that those with higher attributional complexity had higher levels of empathetic concern and were more likely to look at the totality of causal circumstances whereas those with lower levels of attributional complexity were more punitive minded, more likely to assume guilt, and less persuaded by causal excuses (Joireman, 2004). This is ideologically similar to PSM in the personal attitudinal differences being viewed as predictors of other behaviors.

2.5.2 Ecological Validity

Nearly as important as how or why people make decisions, are the circumstances under which they make them. There are two main design approaches to the study of decision-making, the first being observations of real world decisions, and the second, measuring responses to hypothetical or laboratory decisions. The concept of ecological validity assesses whether or not decisions that are measured in these laboratory (simulation) settings can be generalized to decisions that would occur in a real life setting. According to Sporer and Goodman-Delahunty (2009), “[although] in laboratory studies many factors can be controlled and therefore causal links established, the punishment decisions that participants mete out have no consequences, and hence the ecological validity of these results is often questioned” (p. 388). Similarly, Kerr and Bray (2005) studied this issue specifically with simulated jury decisions. Although they caution on the widespread use of simulated (laboratory) studies to generalize to real world (field) decisions, Kerr and Bray do acknowledge that experimental simulations can be useful under certain conditions and in conservation of time and resources (2005). However, they do not ignore that differences do exist between the external validity of the different methods and that it is important to test for this through study replication. This study obviously follows a simulated laboratory design and this will be included in the limitations section.
In accordance with this, scholars such as Dernevik, Falkheim, Holmqvist, and Sandell (2001), and Murray and Thompson (2010) discuss the importance of considering context in studies of decision-making in violence risk assessment. According to Davernick et al, most of the research in this area is in a controlled research setting with few studies focusing on actual clinical practices and decisions (2001). Many decision-making studies in criminal justice focus on risk assessment of offender clientele. This is closely related to decision-making in reentry because essentially what it comes down to is how risky it is to continue to try and treat an individual in the community, and decisions to revoke are sometimes prompted by overriding public safety concerns. This was echoed by the interview participants as a factor of their decision-making. Questions were also asked of respondents to determine if organizational culture, supervisor influence, or general lack of discretion influenced their decisions. Thus this discussion will be revisited in chapters four and five in interpreting the responses to those follow-up interview questions.

2.6 Theoretical Perspectives

The theoretical foundations of this research consist of PSM theory and decision-making theory. This literature review is the start of the discussion of applying PSM theory to decision-making in order to fill the gap in the literature void of an administrative approach measuring motivation and decision-making of reentry managers. The use of PSM applied to this issue is important in that it is one of few valid measures of motivation that can be used as a standardized independent variable upon which to measure the dependent variable of decision-making outcomes. PSM theory at its essence attempts to explain differences in employee behavior between sectors. However the tenants of PSM speak to fundamental differences between those with high versus low PSM scores in terms of how employees are motivated. As stated earlier, high PSM individuals are more altruistic, less financially driven, and more concerned with
advancing the public welfare. The ideology of this theory is used in this exploratory study to put the theory into practice, in order to see if the differences between high and low PSM translate into differences in decision-making in this specific context.

PSM is a public management concept that was theoretically operationalized by Perry and Wise (1990). It is defined as “an individual’s orientation to delivering service to people with the purpose of doing good for others and society” (Hondegem & Perry, 2009, p. 6). In his 1996 development of the PSM scale, Perry states that “although the theory is not well developed, several scholars contend that the public service ethic, which is defined more formally in the present study as public service motivation (PSM), has significant behavioral implications” (p. 5). Perry also discusses the different categories that theses motivations may fall under that aid in their ability to be analyzed. These categories are rational, norm-based and affective motives. According to Perry (1996), “rational motives involve actions grounded in individual utility maximization. Norm-based motives refer to actions generated by efforts to conform to norms. Affective motives refer to those triggers of behavior that are grounded in emotional responses to various social contexts” (p. 6). This type of categorization of motivations in common practice in motivational research as is further demonstrated by Ryan and Deci (2000). In the current study affective and norm-based motives are the most relevant.

According to Ryan and Deci (2000) there are important distinctions between types of motivation that they classify into intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic is motivation for the sake of the task, and is directly related to the task itself. Extrinsic motivation on the other hand is motivation that is indirectly tied to the task, and is more externally oriented (2000). Ryan and Deci focus mainly on the differences between these types of motivation and consider this distinction important to the work on motivation. They attribute these differences in motivation to differences
in behavior even when individuals are performing the same task (2000). The current study does not account for these different types of motivation because the desirability of the task is not being evaluated, the outcomes of decision-making are being evaluated. Also, the nature of the PSM scale measures a unique type of motivation that is mainly intrinsically based. Thus, an individual with high PSM would not be likely to possess extrinsic motivation related to his or her work because the PSM scale evaluates their individual attitudes and beliefs. An individual motivated to be a public servant because of extrinsic motivations would more than likely score lower on the PSM scale (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010). For those intrinsically motivated by public service, it is the work itself that they are drawn to and find rewarding. They may not be motivated by all tasks, but they are motivated by the nature of the work itself. That is what the PSM scale intends to measure and thus reflects. Therefore the nature of the measure in the study at hand eliminates the need to distinguish or evaluate the types (intrinsic versus extrinsic) motivation.

Bright, (2005) echoes other scholars in stating that there are exceptions to every rule even among public service employees. All public servants may not have high PSM levels or be that motivated toward public service (Brewer & Selden, 1998; Perry & Wise, 1990). Kjeldsen and Jacobson (2012) also concluded that PSM had little effect on which sector their study population (Danish physiotherapists) chose to pursue, further supporting that among public employees there should be varying PSM scores. This idea further supports the underlying assumption that a large enough sample of reentry managers will yield varying PSM scores, although in this study, this did not turn out to be the case. This will be discussed further in chapters four and five.

Grant (2007), on the other hand, focuses on pro-social commitment to making a difference for clientele whom he refers to as “beneficiaries.” In this theoretical paper Grant
discusses the role of job design and its relationship to motivation to make a difference. Grant concludes that perceived impact has an effect on motivation to help make a difference, and that frequency of contact with beneficiaries is uncorrelated to actual impact (2007). However, according to Bellè, the more frequent the employee’s contact with the beneficiary, the greater their perceived impact (Bellè, 2012) and the more affective their commitment (i.e. caring) to the beneficiaries (Grant, 2007). Grant (2007) articulates that “affective commitment to beneficiaries refers to emotional concern for and dedication to the people and groups of people impacted by one’s work” (p. 401). This emotional connection to one’s work increases the desire to promote the welfare of others (Grant, 2007). Due to the outcome measure of direct decision-making in this study, all members of the study population have direct contact with former prisoners.

The frequency of exposure has the potential to increase reentry managers’ assistance oriented decisions on the whole, however, when dealing with certain client populations such as former prisoners, frequency of contact with the clientele coupled with years of experience can potentially have a negative effect on one’s helping attitude. Burnout is higher in these types of job environments with high-stress clientele (Blau, 1960; Kjeldsen & Jacobson, 2012) and therefore, it is important to consider that Grant’s (2007) and Bellè’s, (2012) assumptions that more contact increases helping attitude may not hold true in this particular study population. Kjeldsen and Jacobson (2012) also reinforce that the bureaucratic red tape of most public agencies can also contribute to this decline in a helping attitude, once employees realize their best intentions may not be permitted by organizational policies. This notion of strict bureaucratic culture being an impediment to innovation and employee morale is supported by Blau (1960) and Buchanan (1975). Moynihan and Pandey (2007) echo similarly that length of organization
membership inversely affects PSM, which is why years of experience has also been included as a control measure in the present study.

2.7 Hypotheses

Because of the ideological similarities between public service motivation and pro-social modeling, the first hypotheses build off of Perry and Wise’s (1990; 1996), and Trotter’s (1996) findings that altruistic behavior would be associated with a higher PSM score. The ideologies of both theories have been used to infer the impacts of level of PSM on behaviors, based upon the descriptions of those with high PSM versus low PSM.

Hypothesis 1: Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are less likely to formally report or revoke a client.

Hypothesis 2: Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are more likely to refer clients to rehabilitative services.

Hypothesis 3: Reentry managers with higher PSM score are more likely to use informal warnings.

Steiner, Travis, Makarios & Brickley, (2011), who examine the impact of attitude on supervision practices conclude that “central to the supervision function is the manner in which parole officers respond to offender behavior (e.g., violations of release conditions, completion of supervision goals)” (2011, p. 904). This study was based off of the much earlier work of Glaser (1969) which gathered data on probation officers that yielded dichotomized characteristics of officers with authoritative attitudes and assistance oriented attitudes. This is related to the current application of the impact of high verses low PSM scores on decision-making outcomes that are very similar to these ideologies of assistance versus authoritative attitudes outlined by Glaser (1969). The dependent variables of punitive versus rehabilitative decisions are respectively synonymous with Glaser’s (1969) terms “authoritative” and “assistance oriented”. The reason the
terms have been changed despite their ideological sameness is to better reflect the current terminology in the criminal justice field (Steiner, Wada, Hemmens & Burton, 2005). Glaser’s study concluded that the officers with the more authoritative (punitive) attitudes preferred the more punitive type of probation supervision characterized by surveillance and rule enforcement, whereas the assistance (rehabilitative) oriented officers were more inclined toward the treatment components of their duties (1969). These findings help to bridge the gap between the public administration theory of PSM applied to a criminal justice context given that high PSM ideologically mirrors Glaser’s (1969) idea of assistance oriented attitudes, and low PSM mirrors the more authoritative and punitive attitudes. This conclusion is drawn from a review of the definitions of PSM as well as its philosophical underpinnings which reflect similar principles of Glaser’s dichotomized attitudes (1969).

_Hypothesis 4: Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are less likely to impose reprimands or sanctions._

_Hypothesis 5: Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are less likely to advocate for reincarceration._

This is relevant to the issue of prisoner reentry and supported by Steiner, Travis, Makarios and Brickley (2011) who claim that “determining the influences on officers’ supervisory practices is important to an understanding of parole officer behavior and may also shed light on post-release supervision outcomes” (p. 904). However, due to the lack of studies specifically focused on effects of probation officer’s attitudes on their supervisory practices, “it is unclear whether probation/parole officers’ attitudes towards supervision influence their actual supervisory practices” (Steiner et al; 2011, p. 904). The significance of this exploratory study is its potential to impact micro level issues such as hiring and screening practices for probation,
parole officers, and other reentry managers, and at macro level public safety through reduced recidivism among former prisoners, if it were to be implemented.

It was not originally expected that all the scores would be high, and the initial study design was contingent upon yielding a sample of polarized PSM scores among public service workers (Brewer & Selden, 1998; Perry & Wise, 1990; Bright, 2005). However, to the surprise of the researcher, all the scores in the study sample were medium to high, the impact of which will be discussed later. Perry and Wise (1990) further discuss the three aforementioned types of motivation they present which are rational, norm-based and affective. Because norm-based and affective are the two most closely related to the current study, individuals with higher levels of PSM should associate tasks as significant that deal with social equity (Perry & Wise, 1990). Social equity herein defined as improving well being for marginalized groups or minorities (Ibid). This translates well to the sixth hypothesis which implies that those who define reentry more holistically are advocating for greater social equity.

_Hypothesis 6: Reentry managers with higher PSM scores will define “successful reentry” more holistically._

In support of this methodology are Naff and Crum (1998) who utilize PSM in a similar manner, gauging the different outcomes of those with high versus low PSM scores. Their findings suggest a positive correlation between PSM levels (low vs. high) and measurements of job satisfaction, performance appraisals, and retention levels (Naff & Crum, 1998). Borrowing from this idea of levels of PSM score, the following conceptual frameworks were created to demonstrate how PSM levels are used in this study as a predictor of certain decision orientations.
2.7.1 Conceptual Framework

The figure above (Figure 2) is the original conceptual framework that was developed to guide this study. It serves to conceptualize the conclusions from this literature review as to how PSM relates to the application of reentry managers’ decision-making. However, as the study evolved, the conceptual framework underwent some changes and the final model is pictured below.

Figure 2. Conceptual Framework-Original

This conceptual framework (Figure 3) is a visualization of the variable relationships as outlined by the hypotheses. It has been revised from its earlier rendering to include four dimensions of PSM instead of three, and also has removed the outcome of neutral decisions. The
earlier model was developed before the survey instrument was devised and thus the final survey measure did not leave the option for neutral decisions. Although Figure 3 summarizes the specific items mentioned in the individual hypotheses, the overall idea is that those with higher PSM will foster a more treatment centered (rehabilitative) approach to reentry management than those with lower PSM. This includes referrals to more treatment centered services, defining reentry more holistically and advocating against reincarceration. The concept map (Figure 3) illustrates the hypothesized path of decision-making based on the four dimensions of PSM and dichotomized scores into low and high. The vignettes are intended to include discretionary scenarios where individuals would feel free to make whatever choice they think is best.

From the literature, evidence suggests that PSM could be a useful tool for evaluating behavior and decisions, however it is rarely used in this manner. In the criminal justice literature, there is also a call for more standardized measures of attitude when evaluating criminal justice administrator behavior. By blending these elements together, this study takes a unique approach to attempt to predict decision-making orientations using the PSM measure. This systematic review of the literature was used to develop the hypotheses that are the main element of this scientific inquiry. In order to test these hypotheses, Perry’s (1996) pre-developed PSM instrument was used to measure PSM scores of respondents and compare them to various decision alternatives that were developed for this study. The following chapter discusses how the study was carried out.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

This chapter is a detailed outline of the specific research methods that are used to carry out the current study. The various components to be discussed are the sampling methodology, the recruitment of the study sample, procedure for administering the study, the survey instruments to be used, the intended approach to data analysis, as well as these same components involved in the follow-up interviews with respondents.

The population that was studied is comprised of individuals employed by recipient agencies of the federal Second Chance Act (SCA). In 2008 the Federal Government signed into law the SCA to tackle the issue of prisoner reentry. The aim of the SCA is to reduce recidivism and increase public safety as well as decrease state and local spending on corrections. The SCA awards money to state, local, and tribal agencies as well as non-profit organizations that provide effective, evidence based services to ease the transition of the formerly incarcerated (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2013). The SCA is funded under the Office of Justice Programs in the U.S. Department of Justice and is the first legislation of its kind. This study used a survey instrument to collect data from the SCA grantees because it is the most standardized population dealing with prisoner reentry. Given that states manage their reentry approaches very differently, the criteria of the SCA helps to ensure synchronicity among the study population. The goal was to access a standardized reentry management population that operates with evidence based practices, because a random sampling of various reentry programs not bound by these criteria would limit the control and standardization of the study sample.

3.1 Sampling

Respondents were selected from a pool of SCA grantees who received either smart probation, reentry court, co-occurring, or mentoring grants. This population was chosen because these grants are most relevant to adult prisoner reentry, and the specific nature of the grant
allows access to various organizations working toward a similar mission. Other independent reentry initiatives vary by state, sector, and jurisdiction with little oversight, and this varied nature does not allow for clear comparison among different groups. Because of the specific call of the SCA to award grants to those who practice evidence based reentry services, standardization is expected to be inherent among the participants. This allowed for some conformity among the various participant agencies and organizations which should reduce intervening effects in the analysis.

The SCA also awards grants to various categories of programs such as family based substance abuse grants, recidivism reduction grants, technology, career training, and demonstration grants. The study population targeted here are the smart probation grants awarded to state and local government agencies to provide supervision and improve probation outcomes; the mentoring grants, which are awarded to non-profit and tribal agencies that provide transitional services and case management; co-occurring grants which fund state and local government and tribal agencies implementing or expanding programs for individuals with both substance abuse and mental health disorder(s); and lastly the reentry court grantees which are comprised of state and local government and tribal agencies that establish courts to monitor and provide treatment services for offenders (Council of State Governments, 2013).

Contact with the Council of State Governments which oversees the SCA was made and the list they provided included 198 agencies. That list served as the study population for this particular study. In order to have participated in the study participants had to be 18 years of age or older, employed by an organization that was at one time funded by the SCA, and who currently work directly with the former prisoner population (i.e., personal contact with former prisoners on a fairly regular basis).
3.2 Recruitment

Participants were recruited in a three phase process. The researcher first obtained a list of all the SCA grantee organizations from 2008-2013 who received either smart probation, reentry court, mentoring, or co-occurring grants. This list was provided by the Council of State Governments which also provided a letter of support on behalf of the research. From these points of contact were identified for each organization, some were provided on the list, but others had to be obtained through an Internet search and phone calls which yielded approximately 160 potential points of contact. Those individuals were contacted via an email to both confirm the accuracy of their email and that they were still serving in a reentry capacity (Appendix F). This introductory email also contained the IRB approval from UCF as well as the letter of support from the Council of State Governments (CSG).

The initial list provided by CSG had approximately 22 missing contacts from the list of 198 points of contact for various agencies, five of which were unable to be located (potentially due to the agency no longer being in operation). The other 17 contacts were ultimately identified (with some certainty) to be the agencies that had received SCA funding. However, the legitimacy and accuracy of the list is dependent upon the record keeping of the CSG. They were asked to provide contacts for all awardees from 2008-2013 that fell under the four specific aforementioned grant categories. The researcher was not concerned with the other categories as they were not relevant.

Due to some “undeliverable” emails and individuals indicating they no longer worked for the organization etc., the list was reduced to 140 presumably accurate points of contact. However, once the emails were sent out, a large number did not respond at all, so it remains unclear if the email addresses were no longer accurate or if the individuals were opting not to respond. This is a limitation of the study and will be discussed more in chapter five.
Additionally, some points of contact expressed interest in the study, but their agency required an additional review of the research request, three agencies had their own form of IRB as well (Appendices J-N). Of the thirteen that required additional approval, eight were ultimately approved and five were denied. The formal denials were cited as being too great a strain on staff resources at the present time and not anything to do with the study itself.

To the SCA points of contact who consented to participate, and those who did not respond at all, a follow up email was sent which contained the survey link and directions for the supervisors as to the selection criteria for their employee participants (Appendix F). Supervisors were asked not to take the survey themselves, unless they also had direct contact with former prisoners (common in smaller agencies). The supervisors were provided with these directions and asked to forward the survey link and explanation of research to all qualifying individuals on staff.

Strategies that were implemented to try and increase participation in accordance with Dillman, Smyth, and Christian were providing information about the survey in the form of prenotice or introductory emails that attempted to confirm contact information and introduce potential participants to the nature of the request (2009). These emails also included supporting documents such as the IRB approval and a letter of support from the CSG. Requests were framed as needing assistance and demonstrating positive regard for participants (2009). When possible, supervisors were personally addressed either through email or a phone call, and those contacts were associated with much higher response than those who were included in the bulk email exchanges.

All correspondence was also concluded with gratitude statements (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009) thanking individuals for their participation and support. Attempts were made to
make the questionnaire interesting, including the case study at the forefront to draw participants into the study, and easy demographic questions were placed at the end to help combat survey fatigue. Participants were also given a limited time to complete the survey (two weeks), and informed that they were part of a select group based upon a grant their agency had received which is in line with the recommendation of Dillman et al., to “inform people that opportunities to respond are limited” (2009, p.25).

In terms of ensuring trust among participants, sponsorship by a legitimate authority (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009) was obtained in the form of a letter of support from the CSG advocating for the importance of the research (Appendix D). This is also the reason that supervisors were contacted as a liaison to actual participants in part because they would be more appreciative and understanding of this type of endorsement, versus their staff, the target participants, who might not even be aware of the grant the agency had been awarded. Supervisors were also the liaison to participants to protect anonymity and privacy concerns of agencies and participants. Participants were contacted via their supervisor and not the researcher directly to “ensure confidentiality and security of information” (Dillman et al., 2009, p. 28). This step was necessary because work emails often contain individuals’ first and/or last names.

The questionnaire was also convenient for participants who simply had to click on a link embedded in an email, however, it was slightly less convenient for supervisors who had to either copy and paste, or forward the email along to relevant staff. The questionnaire was short, taking less than 15 minutes in a pilot test, and for the most part, personal or sensitive data was limited to basic demographics, and participants were also made aware that the survey was anonymous.

Reminder emails were utilized to ensure survey completion among all those who wanted to participate. The language of the reminder email was friendly and began by thanking all those
who already responded. It was short and ended by reminding participants that the due date was the approaching Friday. It also provided an opportunity for an extension if necessary, although no agencies expressed needing one. In the third and final survey round which included all the nonresponders from round one, social validation was employed by mentioning that the survey had received very positive responses so far (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009). The three rounds were necessary to allow all agencies who expressed willingness to participate.

3.3 Procedure

The setting of the human research occurred via an Internet survey using the software Qualtrics, where individuals in the study population were contacted via email and provided with a link to the survey. Permission was obtained from the University of Central Florida’s institutional review board (IRB), the organizations themselves and in some cases their IRBs (or equivalent review boards), as well as the direct supervisors. The data was directly recorded into Qualtrics and responses were only linked to the IP addresses, however, due to the external relationship of the researcher to the organizations, no identifying information from participants was collected, thus rendering the data anonymous.

The survey was first pilot tested on two separate groups of undergraduate students at the University of Central Florida to provide feedback as to the design of the questionnaire. One survey was conducted in person in a criminal justice class of 25 students, of whom all present completed it. The second group was an online class of public administration students who received the online version of the survey. Due to the voluntary nature, only five out of the 30 online students opted to take the survey. Based upon the feedback from the students and some patterns of error the researcher noticed in the responses, the ordering of questions was revised to increase validity. First a basic crosstabulation was run in SPSS to assess the breakdown of
answers in accordance with the hypotheses and to ensure that answers were not contradictory which would indicate an issue in the survey instrument.

The actual data collection occurred from June to September 2014. An email was sent out to the supervisors or points of contact in the various agencies and those individuals were asked to forward the survey link and explanation of research to participants in fulfillment of the IRB requirements. Participants were asked to complete the survey in two weeks. On Monday of the second week a reminder email was sent to all supervisors thanking those who did participate and politely reminding those who had not yet responded to please do so.

Due to some agencies needed further approval, individuals on vacation, and a lower than expected response rate for the first round of surveys, two additional rounds of surveys were devised. The first round took place in mid June, the second in mid July, and the third round took place in mid August. The process was the same for all three rounds, including the introductory emails and the time allotted to complete the survey. The only item that changed on the consent documents was the due date for the surveys. Also included in the third and final round were all those who had not responded at all to the first round of surveys to either confirm or deny participation.

### 3.4 Interviews

In addition to the survey data collected as part of this study, follow-up interviews were also conducted after the completion of the data collection and analysis, to provide more detailed information about respondents’ interpretation of the questions and to provide participant insight for some of the more surprising findings. IRB approval was obtained for this additional level of inquiry and individuals who participated in the previous survey were asked to participate in the follow-up interviews.
3.4.1 Interview Recruitment and Procedure

Participants were recruited for the interviews in a two-phase process. The researcher first identified the agencies with the highest reported supervisor participation (surveys sent to more than 10 individuals) and asked the supervisors to provide the contact emails of individuals they sent the survey to. Those employees were then contacted and asked if they did complete the survey and if they would like to participate in the follow-up interviews. This contact email also included the explanation of research and mentioned the compensation of $10 gift card for participating in the follow-up interviews (Appendix H). Some individuals were not allowed per agency policy to accept the gift card. In some cases they self-selected to participate without the incentive. Although the initial goal was to conduct one or two focus groups, due to the fact that many individuals who expressed an interest were no longer with their agency or were the only one from their agency willing to participate, one-on-one phone interviews were conducted instead. In one case, two employees from the same agency were interviewed simultaneously via a phone conference call. The questions for all the interviews were the same and it was recorded and transcribed in the same manner as the focus groups were intended to be.

In order to participate in the phone interviews, participants must have been 18 years of age or older, and have completed the previous survey. Nine individuals were contacted by phone and the interviews were recorded. The follow-up interviews took approximately fifteen minutes on average and were conducted during the month of February 2015. The format followed a semi-structured interview and the questions have been included as an appendix (Appendix I).

3.4.2 Interview Instrument

The semi-structured questionnaire for the follow-up interviews was developed in response to the results of the quantitative data. Interesting results/trends in the data were phrased into questions to elicit explanations and insight from survey participants. There were seven main
questions and six sub-questions. In addition, if a respondent said something interesting or that needed further clarification, the researcher asked additional follow-up questions that were unique to the respondent. The respondents were not given a copy of the questions but were asked to respond to them conversation style by the researcher.

3.4.3 Interview Sample

A total of twelve agencies were contacted who were deemed to have enough potential participants (10 or more who may have completed the survey, in one case 9). Of those twelve agencies, nine (75%) agreed to participate by forwarding the request for follow-up interviews, two rejected the request, and one did not respond at all. This yielded a study population total of 89 individuals. Employees from six different agencies ultimately responded agreeing to participate (66%). Out of the total potential respondents of 89 individuals, nine individuals ultimately completed an interview yielding a final response rate of 10.1%.

Although detailed demographic information was not collected on the follow-up interview participants to protect confidentiality, information on gender, job title, and agency type was gleaned from participants to provide a context for their answers. Of the nine respondents, seven were female and two were male, yielding a 77% female response which was slightly higher than the study sample that was 55.6% female. In terms of job category, approximately four (44%) were from the supervisory group comprised of two probation officers, one court programs manager and one program coordinator at a correctional facility. This is slightly more than in the study sample where 34.1% were supervisory, however in both samples they are the largest group. The others were divided among the other three categories with two falling into the co-occurring group; a clinician mental health assessor for jail, and a clinical supervisor for reentry services. The remainders were case managers that were undefined, with one vocational focused
and the other tree miscellaneous. There were no faith-based participants in the follow-up interviews, which is somewhat fitting given that they were the smallest group in the study making up only 7.1% of the sample.

3.4 Survey Instrument

The survey instruments were developed by the researcher, but were screened for accuracy by professionals in similar positions to the target population. The content of the vignettes (hypothetical case studies) were developed through conversations with a probation officer in Central Florida, two employment counselors at a Department of Labor career one-stop in New Jersey, and the director and assistant director of a faith-based program for former prisoners in Central Florida. These individuals assisted with providing relevant scenarios to be used in the vignettes, wording of questions, as well as proofing the finalized vignettes for relevance and clarity. Finally, a criminal justice methods scholar was brought in to look over the vignettes to read for methodological soundness.

The study design involves a three part survey administered via email. The first part contains a one page vignette provided about the actions of a hypothetical former prisoner. The respondents were asked to respond to six job related questions worded in a “what would you do?” format of decision-making. The researcher devised four separate sets of questions in response to a similar vignette to keep the questions job related to the various practitioners (supervision, vocational, faith-based, and co-occurring). The four separate job categories coincide with the four types of grants that participant organizations were awarded. Smart probation and reentry court grants encapsulate supervisory agencies such as probation, parole, work release, reentry court; co-occurring grants include those agencies with a treatment focus such as substance abuse counselors, social workers; mentoring grants can include both faith-based volunteers as well as vocational services such as job placement, and education counselors. Questions were designed
to be job related and attempt to answer the dependent variables of punitive versus treatment approaches to decision-making (Appendix A).

The questions in response to the vignettes were categorically and ideologically similar across all four scenarios, with slight wording differences to reflect job specificity, but the essence was identical across all four scenarios. Also, the nature of the vignettes was specifically designed to be as similar as possible in describing the offender client in question and presenting a situation in which discretion would come into play. Slight variations were necessary to keep the situation relevant to the different job categories.

The next phase of the survey is the PSM survey questionnaire. The scale was modified by Perry (1996) into a 24 point Likert scale design with four subscales that ask questions to measure; attraction to public policy making, commitment to the public interest, civic duty, compassion and self-sacrifice. Perry (1996) initially developed a 40 point Likert scale with six dimensions that was reduced to a 35 point scale with the elimination of the social justice dimension. At the conclusion of his study the initial 40 item, six dimension scale of attraction to public policy making, civic duty, commitment to public interest, social justice, compassion, and self-sacrifice was reduced to the 24 item, four dimensional model. This reduced model had much better goodness of fit than the original 40 point model (1996). Perry also mentions that self-sacrifice could be combined with commitment to public interest because of their high correlation, but advocates for it being a separate measure based upon its theoretical independence as a dimension. Perry (1996) concludes that “based on the developmental process and statistical analysis, the PSM scale presented here has good overall face and construct validity, discriminant validity among four component dimensions, and high reliability” (p. 21). For this study, four dimensions are still measured, but because variables for “attraction to public policy making” are
not deemed relevant to this current study, it has been eliminated and replaced with civic duty. Civic duty had previously been coupled with commitment to the public interest in Perry’s model, but it has been separated for the purposes of this study. To support the use of modified or reduced dimensions Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann’s review revealed that;

Twelve studies [of PSM] assessed only one or two of the original dimensions, while 20 studies incorporated three dimensions, 49 studies included four dimensions, and three studies assessed five or six dimensions of the concept. In addition, 36 studies used one or more original dimensions such as ‘user satisfaction’ or ‘democratic governance. (2013, p. 16)

Although these questions measure attitudes, they are general enough to not evoke personal disturbances (Appendix A). However, this part of the survey is administered after the vignette so as not to prime the participants to the inclinations associated with the PSM questionnaire. Decision-making responses should be as objective as possible, and not primed by any self-reflection (Babbie, 2010). The PSM instrument is used to generate the PSM score that was intended to be categorized into high medium and low. However, as mentioned previously, the results in this study did not yield any truly “low” scores.

The third part of the questionnaire elicits demographic information regarding the control variables including but not limited to age group, gender, job title, years of experience, income, sector, religiosity, political affiliation, volunteer experience, frequency of contact with former prisoners, agency/organization, length of time with organization, and length of time in a related field. These questions only serve the purpose of control variables to rule out causes other than PSM score on decision-making (Appendix A). Also included in this section are questions on how
respondents define successful reentry, and questions on the specific type of grant the organization is funded under.

3.5 Quantitative Data Analysis

Data was automatically recorded as responses were submitted, using the Internet survey tool Qualtrics. From there data was loaded into SPSS where it was cleaned to minimize any coding errors and variables were then labeled. One of the main cleaning tasks was to combine the four sets of vignette questions for the four different job categories into one variable per each of the six questions. This was a delicate task, but the researcher made sure to account for each response once the combining of variables was complete. One exception to this was Q5 for the supervisory (SP) group because that question did not align with Q5 in the other three groups. This question for the SP group was thus parsed out into its own variable and a code of “99 missing” was assigned to the supervisory slots for the general Q5 variable.

Another cleaning task was to reverse order a set of responses for the faith-based Q1 which had inadvertently been reverse coded in Qualtrics (for all other questions Yes=1 and No=2, but for this single question Yes=2 and No=1). Thus for the FB responses, all 2’s were changed to 1’s and vice versa using the find and replace feature. First all 2’s were converted to 3’s, then 1’s were converted to 2’s, then the 3’s were converted back to 1’s. The code in SPSS was then assigned accordingly, with labels of Yes=2, No=1 for positively oriented questions, and Yes=1, No=2 for negatively oriented questions. This was done to ensure that a higher score overall for the questions would be associated with a more positive decision orientation and the reverse for low scores, equaling a negative decision orientation. A backup excel file of the original output from Qualtrics was kept untouched so that the researcher could refer back to it during periods of cleaning and data manipulation to ensure that responses were not being altered from their original intention by the respondents. Respondents’ 17 digit unique identifier code as
well as IP addresses were used as identifiers to ensure the responses were consistent with their original meaning. This was especially crucial during the elimination of the partially missing responses, to ensure that no viable respondents were accidentally eliminated from the data set.

In terms of reverse coding of the PSM questionnaire measures which did contain some reverse items, those specific items were alternately coded in Qualtrics so that no subsequent manipulation of those codes had to occur to account for the reverse scores. Thus, for negatively (reverse) worded items Strongly Agree was given a code of 1 instead of 5 and Strongly Disagree was given a code of 5 instead of a 1. In SPSS the items were labeled accordingly.

Lastly, some variables were constructed into new variables indicated in SPSS, denoted by “NEW VAR” before the label. In these cases the original variables were left untouched but were either categorized or comprised into an index for some of the “check all that apply” questions, and for the PSM items in order to generate a raw total score from the 30 items, and to generate a sub-score for each of the four dimensions. This was done to gain as much information as possible from respondents, so as not to limit their choices, but was required after the fact to simplify analyses.

Of the 136 responses 28 were incomplete for more than 30 percent of the survey. These responses were identified as missing and were removed from the data set. SPSS was then used to conduct basic descriptive analyses such as cross tabs and frequencies to inventory the data and describe the sample. Binomial logistic regression is used for the main hypothesis testing. According to Ritz, Brewer, and Neumann (2013) their “overview of research methods reveals that bivariate analysis (including regression analysis) dominates the field, although structural equation modeling is being used more frequently over time” (p. 21).
The main hypotheses being tested are the influence of PSM score on six dependent measures; informally warning, formally reporting/revoking, issuing a reprimand, advocating for or against reincarceration, referring to rehabilitative services and defining success holistically.

3.6 Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data in this study comes from the follow-up interviews conducted with survey respondents. They were asked to weigh in on their survey experience, their interpretation of questions and their interpretation of certain results that were found. These interviews were conducted over the phone and were recorded and transcribed. Once transcribed, the researcher read through the answers and highlighted phrases and words that conveyed the overall response, or were deemed unique and insightful. Information that was left out of the analysis included background information, over explanation, clarification questions, filler statements, and restatement of something already mentioned, in favor of excerpts that were most representative of the core of their answers.

Once these excerpts were highlighted, a matrix was created to compare the answers to the different questions. In the matrix, the participants were listed on the Y axis and the questions were listed on the X axis. This was done for quick comparison among the different answers to the same questions. Participants were identified only by their job title and a brief description of their agency type to provide context for their answers. Once the significant excerpts were in the matrix, the researcher looked for common themes or words that were present in more than one response. These were highlighted and color coded for easy reference.

3.7 Sample Size

Earlier estimates proved to be fairly accurate, with rough estimates expecting to access 120 organizations, the final list provided by CSG was slightly higher at 198 potential agencies.
From there the list was reduced to 160 due to missing agency information that was unable to be located after a thorough Internet search. The original estimate also assumed that there would be an average of five relevant employees per each organization. That also turned out to be a conservative estimate with the true average yielding about 11.7 potential employees per agency contact. Therefore, the original estimate that the study population would be around 1,500 participants was very close to the actual study population of 1,600 potential participants.

3.7.1. Response Rate

Because there were three separate rounds of surveys, separate response rates were generated for each. In the first round there were 140 original supervisor contacts, which yielded 95 potential respondents based on those supervisors who replied to indicate how many surveys they each disseminated with a mean of 11.7. Of these 95, 42 actually responded which yielded a response rate for round one of 44.2%.

In round 2 there were only 15 original supervisor contacts, which yielded 146 potential respondents, based again on how many supervisors replied to indicate how many surveys they sent out. This number is very large due to one supervisor who reported sending the survey out to 100 colleagues. This was an outlier as the rest averaged about 5.75 each. However if it is included in the response rate then 21 responses out of 146 yields a response rate for round two of 14.38%.

In the final round, there were 9 original contacts included in addition to a re-inclusion of all 116 of the round one non-responders, which totals 125 original contacts. Based on replies from supervisors, there were 146 potential respondents (with another outlier of 90) for a mean of 8 (without the 90). There were 45 actual responses in this round which yielded a response rate for round three of 30.82%. The response rate for all rounds totaled together yielded 387 potential respondents, 136 initiations of the survey for an overall response rate of 35.14% and a usable
response rate of 27.9%. However, if the outliers are removed, there were 197 potential respondents and 136 actual respondents. This yields a response rate of 69.03%. Because the outliers represented such a large grouping of individuals not immediately known to the referring supervisor, there is good cause to believe that many may have not received the survey due to invalid emails, individuals out of the office on vacations etc., that remain unknown to the researcher. Thus, in keeping with the average number of forwarded emails in place of the outliers, the number of potential respondents is 211. This would yield a response rate of 64.04% and the argument can be made for that being the most accurate response rate.

### 3.8 Statistical Methods

The latent variable of PSM has a strong theoretical foundation in that it is a compilation of several different indicators. The variable construct score is comprised of 30 factors derived from answers on a Likert scale. The four dimensions that are used are commitment to public interest, civic duty, compassion, and self-sacrifice. Each one of these dimensions has roughly eight items that are used to construct them. Although previous studies use either Multiple Regression or Structural Equation Modeling to test PSM as a measure, neither analysis will be employed here. The smaller sample size is not adequate to justify an SEM analysis, given that it does not meet the minimum standard of either 200 respondents or a power analysis of 5-20 times the number of parameters (Chan, Lee, Lee, Kubota, & Allen, 2007; Weston & Gore Jr, 2006). Given that the structural equation model would contain close to 40 parameters, an acceptable number of responses would be 5 to 20 times the number of parameters (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Kline, 2011). The number of useable responses was 108 which does not meet the minimum power of 5 per each parameter. “However, complexity of the model may necessitate a larger sample. The sample size is two responses shy of meeting the minimum recommended power, which may prove problematic when running the model. According to Kline (2011) “it is possible
to have results that are highly significant (e.g., p< .0001) but trivial in absolute magnitude when the sample size is large” (p. 13).

In terms of regression analysis, multiple regression is not suitable for this study design because PSM is the independent, and not the dependent variable. In previous studies PSM (an interval level variable) is the dependent, which is what multiple regression requires. In this study, decision-making (dichotomous variable) is the dependent variable, and therefore it does not meet the first assumption of multiple regression analysis (Laerd Statistics, 2013). Having a dichotomous dependent does however meet the assumptions of Binomial Logistic Regression and thus that it is the test that is used to test the hypotheses in this study.

3.8.1 Study Variables

The main variables being measured here that will be used to test the hypotheses are as follows; PSM is the overall independent variable, and is comprised of four dimensions, that can each also be viewed and measured as their own independent variables. If overall PSM score is not evenly distributed, each of the four dimensions will be used to test against the dependent decision orientation questions to determine their independent effects on the dependent decision outcomes.

In regards to the justification of the use of certain PSM dimensions over others, this study uses commitment to public interest, civic duty, compassion, and self-sacrifice. These four dimensions are determined to be the most relevant to the study at hand based on the specific information they elicit via their distinct indicators. Attraction to policy making, which is the fifth dimension on the reduced scale, is deemed less relevant as a predictor of certain attitudes germane to this study. However, according to Perry (1996), and Wright (2008) there is little difference between the dimensions of self-sacrifice and public interest, as a CFA of the four dimensions found redundancy among the two dimensions. Therefore when using the three
dimension scale, some studies choose to eliminate the self-sacrifice dimension (Coursey & Pandey, 2007). However, scholars such as Brewer and Selden (1998), Brewer, Selden, and Facer (2000), Crewson (1997), and Houston (2000) are among those who have included self-sacrifice in their scales and advocate for its use. Coursey and Pandey (2007), despite acknowledging its limitations, support its use as a viable dimension in future research.

In support of the exclusion of attraction to policy making as one of the four dimensions in this study are that studies using the full Perry’s (1996) full scale such as (Camilleri, 2006, 2007) have found the internal reliability of the attraction to policy making dimension to be below the threshold of predictive validity. Wright indicates this as a possible explanation for why so few studies use all four dimensions (2008).

There are several dependent variables that will be tested through the analysis. Each dependent measure corresponds to a single decision question, designed to gauge respondents perceived likelihood to make a number of decisions in response to the vignette they were asked to read. Each of the questions required a yes/no answer in response to the vignette. The final dependent measure is an index variable comprised of a score. In the question respondents were asked to ‘check all that apply’ in response to several items that are indicative of successful reintegration and assign relevance to them. Individuals who selected two items or less were considered to be not holistic in their approach and individuals who selected four or more were considered to be holistic in their approach to reentry.

Lastly, there are several control variables for this study. As mentioned in the literature review of PSM, previous studies on the subject have found that PSM can have several confounding factors which influence the effect of PSM itself. This study narrows the list of
variables down to five substantial control variables that will be tested along with the model, to either confirm or deny their possible role in acting alongside PSM to predict decision behavior.

Table 2. Independent Variables-Variable Measurements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public Service Motivation (PSM Score)</td>
<td>Independent measure comprised of 4 dimensions; 30 survey Likert items:</td>
<td>Interval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to public interest (CPI)</td>
<td>Measured by 7 survey Likert items</td>
<td>Interval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic Duty (CD)</td>
<td>Measured by 7 survey Likert items</td>
<td>Interval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compassion (CMP)</td>
<td>Measured by 8 survey Likert items</td>
<td>Interval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Sacrifice (SS)</td>
<td>Measured by 8 survey Likert items</td>
<td>Interval</td>
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Table 3. Dependent Variables- Variable Measurements

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Variable</th>
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<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decision Orientation (Decision Orientation)</td>
<td>Dependent Measure comprised of six survey items:</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informally Warn (InfmlWarn)</td>
<td>Dichotomous vignette question 1</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formally report/revoke (Fmlreport)</td>
<td>Dichotomous vignette question 2</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reprimand (Reprimand)</td>
<td>Dichotomous vignette question 3</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocate for reincarceration (AdvctForA)</td>
<td>Dichotomous vignette question 4</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refer to rehabilitative services (ReferRehab)</td>
<td>Dichotomous vignette question 6</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Define Successful Reentry (SuccScore)</td>
<td>Index variable general question 5</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Control Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Description</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Demographic question 36</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Religiosity</td>
<td>Demographic question 52</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer Experience</td>
<td>Demographic question 54</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Affiliation</td>
<td>Demographic question 50</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year employed in current organization</td>
<td>Demographic question 40</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.8.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics were run in SPSS and consisted of basic frequencies to describe the data. A frequency was run for each question that was asked of respondents. It was important to run descriptives to screen the data for any outliers, identify missing data, and any potential value label issues. In a few of the outputs these items were detected and cleaned to prevent the error from recurring. Descriptives were also used to get an overall idea of frequency of response to the 30 individual PSM items and responses to decision questions, and also to ensure that the data
was evenly distributed among demographic groups. The results of these descriptive analyses are included in chapter four and accompanied by tables to increase clarity and ease of understanding.

### 3.8.3 Chi-square

After descriptives, chi-square analyses were conducted to test associations between variables and to look for any inconsistencies in the data before running more sophisticated analyses. Various chi-squares were run comparing expected variable relationships, as well as unexpected relationships to check for significance among other variables that were not the aim of the study hypotheses, but still may be of importance to the larger understanding of PSM. The chi-square results helped guide the researcher to identify significant relationships to use in more rigorous testing. It also helped to explain why certain relationships may not be significant in further testing due to the unique distribution of the data.

### 3.8.4 Binomial Logistic Regression

In addition to studies evaluating PSM through SEM, many studies such as Lewis and Alonso (2001), Bright (2005), and Kjeldsen (2013) evaluated PSM using regression analysis. It is mostly used for testing the relationship between PSM and demographic variables (in this case, control variables) such as age, gender, years of experience and education, (Bright, 2005). However Baron and Kenny (1986) warn that testing for mediated variables can be complex especially when using multiple regression. Testing them using multiple regression can require multiple models which can result in biased results (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In acknowledgement of this, Wright (2008) points out that more complex analytical tools such as structural equation modeling (SEM) are often recommended. Specifically, SEM has advantages over regression and factor analysis, despite producing similar results, because when analyzing mediation effects, the factor analysis component mitigates measurement error and reduces bias (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Wright, 2008). Wright (2008) also criticizes the tendency of previous studies to lump all the
PSM dimensions into a single score, and instead recommends measuring the different dimensions separately. Many PSM researchers to date have engaged in this practice of lumping the scores including, Alonso and Lewis, 2001; Brewer and Selden, 2000; Bright, 2005; Karl and Peat, 2004; Kim, 2005, 2006; Naff and Crum, 1999. Wright acknowledges these individuals’ studies lump the scores together by “summing the items of each dimension into an aggregate, formative measure” (2008, p. 83).

Although the researcher initially planned to use multiple regression to test the hypotheses, due to the interval nature of the independent variable and the dichotomous nature of the dependent variable, the data did not meet the necessary assumptions of multiple regression analysis. Because five measures of the dependent variable of decision orientation are each dichotomous, binomial logistic regression was determined to be the correct test.

These methods and procedures were carried out to collect the necessary data so that it could be evaluated in accordance with the study hypotheses. Reentry managers from various states completed the online survey, which measured their PSM score in a 30-item Likert measure, their decision-making choices in response to case study scenarios, and their personal characteristics such as age, race and gender. Data was then cleaned and analyzed to test the relationship of the independent PSM score to the dependent decision questions. Results were generated ranging from descriptive statistics, chi-square, regression analysis, and finally ANOVA to explore any overlooked or potentially interfering relationships. The following chapter discusses the results of these analyses in detail, focusing on the more significant results and the results of the hypotheses testing.
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

The analysis of the data was conducted in three phases: (1) running descriptive statistics to explain the sample and gauge responses for each question, (2) running crosstabs and chi-square to test for association between hypothesized variables as well as some outside of the scope of the hypotheses and (3) conducting binomial logistic regression to test the actual hypotheses to see if PSM influenced decision-making in the predicted ways. Lastly, some stepwise and linear regressions were run with PSM score as the independent variable to test for any significant predictors. This chapter follows these phases of analysis.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Demographic data was collected to provide information for control variables and to describe the sample. From this data, descriptive analyses were run to provide details of the respondent sample. In addition, descriptive frequencies were run for each question, and the results of the more relevant variables are included in the following tables, beginning with PSM score.

Table 5. Descriptives- PSM Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raw PSM continuous score</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>109.2</td>
<td>12.318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>108</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most important element in this study is the PSM score of respondents, thus this was the first descriptive that was run to assess the breakdown and distribution of scores among participants. Based upon the 30 question, 5-item Likert design of the questionnaire, the lowest possible score for PSM was 30, and the highest was 150. As is shown in Table 5, the lowest score in this particular sample was 74 and the highest was 142. Based upon this and the mean of 109.2, it is clear that the scores are positively skewed, with no respondents falling into a truly low category which would range from 30-70. This cut off is determined by splitting the range of
possible scores (30-150) into 3 equal groups of 40. There does not appear to be a standardized way of scoring PSM, aside from an equation which converts the raw score for each dimension into a 1-7 scale (1=low, 7=high). For this study, a 5 item Likert scale was used instead, however even the lowest score of 74 would not fall into the lowest category, regardless of how the scores were computed. Therefore, the researcher chose not to convert the scores to a 1-5 scale and thus to leave their raw sums in order to have the largest possible spread for the statistical tests.

The frequencies of the PSM scores are contrary to what was expected, as the hypotheses were contingent upon PSM being somewhat polarized, with enough low scores to serve as a comparative group. Based upon these findings, other categories were devised to attempt to still glean some variation from the scores that were provided, although all the scores truly fell into medium and high categories. These items will be included later in the chi-square section of this chapter.

Table 6. Descriptives- Job Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervision (Probation officer, parole officer, corrections)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>34.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith-based (Volunteer, mentor, counselor in a religious organization)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational (Job placement, employment counselor, trade skills)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-occurring (Substance abuse and/or mental health counselor)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first question respondents answered determined which case study they received, and was used to distinguish between job category. Table 6 illustrates a breakdown of respondents by job category when asked which of the four categories most closely aligned to their current job description. In the question a brief description was provided (as seen above) to help respondents distinguish as accurately as possible between the choices. From this table it is clear that the majority of respondents (34.1%) reported serving in a supervision role over offenders, this would mean individuals whose main role is rule enforcement of the former offender clients...
versus the other categories which are more treatment focused. The smallest set of respondents (7.1%) reported working in a faith-based job category.

Table 7. Descriptives-Demographic Frequencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>Black/African American</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>73.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American Indian or Alaska native</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political affiliation</td>
<td>Republican</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democrat</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>54.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest level of education</td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Associates</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>40.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral or equivalent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years employed with current organization</td>
<td>&lt;1 year</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-4 years</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>40.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;21 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The other descriptive statistics were run using basic frequencies in SPSS. Each variable was run by itself to compare the frequencies of each attribute, however the main control variables have been consolidated above in Table 7. For race, gender and political affiliation, the
attributes appear as they were asked to respondents. However, years of employment is a constructed variable using respondents’ open ended responses that have been converted into categories. If respondents indicated 1.5 years it was rounded up to the following number. Very rarely did that span categories.

Before even running more in-depth types of analyses, it is clear from the descriptives (Table 7) that the sample is predominantly comprised of individuals who identified as white (73.1%), democratic (54.6%), female (55.6%), with highest level of education being at the post secondary level (40.7%) and being employed 1-4 years with their current organization (40.7%). Aside from race, the other attributes are consistent with those that have shown to be confounding with PSM score, given that the sample is majority female, democratic, with higher levels of education (characteristics known to be associated with higher PSM scores). This is important to keep in mind when evaluating the results of the other statistical tests, that these factors alone can skew the sample and influence propensity to score higher on PSM, and/or act in a manner consistent with high PSM. Therefore, it is not surprising that the sample is made up predominantly of individual characteristics that are positively correlated with PSM score, and that the majority of respondents do have higher PSM scores. Another factor that has been associated with influencing PSM score is religiosity as illustrated in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Religiosity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not religious</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A little religious</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsure</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately religious</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely religious</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 shows responses to a scale measure of religiosity in which participants were asked to respond to how religious they consider themselves to be. The majority (29.4%)
indicated being moderately religious which is on the higher end of the religiosity scale developed for this study. Thus this group is rather polarized into either not being religious at all (19.8%), and being moderately religious (29.4%). It is important to understand the religiosity of the sample because of the potential of religiosity to confound the effects of PSM in addition to the other aforementioned variables. These results are not as clear as the previous ones in connection to PSM score, being that although the majority did indicate high levels of religiosity, there were also a significant number of respondents who indicated little to no religiosity (34.9%). Thus, there is not as clear a relationship between religiosity and PSM score as there are with the other control variables. A multiple regression analysis will be conducted with these variables to confirm if there is any relationship to PSM later on in this chapter.

The final descriptive table to be presented are the responses to the six decision questions that comprise the dependent variables.

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics- Decision-making Frequencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you informally warn Kareem?</td>
<td>Yes +</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No -</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you formally report/revoke?</td>
<td>Yes -</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No +</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>68.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you advocate for incarceration?</td>
<td>For -</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Against +</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>85.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you reprimand within your program?</td>
<td>Yes -</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No +</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you terminate from the program?</td>
<td>Yes -</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No +</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>57.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you refer to rehabilitative services?</td>
<td>Yes +</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No -</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**(+) indicates a rehabilitative choice and (-) indicates a punitive choice.

In this table the dependent variables of decision-making questions are illustrated for comparison among the different decision choices. For all of the options except for “reprimand,”
the majority of respondents chose the more rehabilitative option over the punitive one. The question to reprimand was the only one that was inverted with 53.7% of individuals choosing to reprimand and 43.5% of individuals choosing not to. It is important to note in relation to the other questions that reprimand in lieu of more formal sanctions could be viewed as a rehabilitative choice, and thus could potentially explain why the numbers are reversed for that item. Viewed by itself, reprimanding could be seen as a punitive choice, but when a reprimand is issued in lieu of more serious sanctioning, it can be considered as if one is giving a second chance. If viewed in this manner—which appears to be the most logical interpretation based upon how the other questions were answered—the rehabilitative options were selected more frequently than the punitive one across all questions. In order to verify this conclusion, the reprimand finding has been included as part of the follow-up interviews to the study—to better understand participants’ rationale when selecting the option to reprimand.

When asked how they perceived the decision to reprimand or issue intermediate sanctions in the case study, six out of the nine respondents indicated that they viewed an in-house reprimand as more of a second chance option than a punitive measure. Some were very clear and did not elaborate, others, such as a reentry and family services case manager for a non-profit supported their point by saying “I looked at it as giving him a second chance because he could have been terminated; a loss of privileges…isn’t as severe as what it could have been,” and a court programs manager for a non-profit echoed similarly, “that’s definitely probably even a third chance; I wouldn’t say it’s punitive, punitive to me would mean they’re going back to court and they have to face in front of a judge, and possibly sentenced at that time.” These responses support the notion that although reprimand was intended to be a punitive option, based on how it is mainly utilized in reentry organizations, it is actually viewed more as a rehabilitative tool by
the decision makers. Therefore, the fact that reprimand appeared to be the only decision in which respondents chose the punitive option more frequently than the rehabilitative option is misleading. Based on the participants’ interpretations, it is clear that reprimanding in this situation is viewed more rehabilitatively than punitively.

4.2 Crosstabulations

The next set of tests that were run were crosstabulations to determine associations between variables and to test for any significant relationships among them.

Table 10. Crosstabulation Between Gender and Race

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Black/African American</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>American Indian or Alaska Native</th>
<th>Asian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows a crosstabulation of race and gender to determine how many individuals of each gender identified with each race. This is important in terms of control variables to make sure the sample is not highly skewed between groups. The highest occurrence indicates 43 females in this study identify as white, compared with 36 males. The spread is not as even as it could be between gender and race, but there is at least moderate distribution among groups. It is not clear how representative this sample is of the larger reentry manager population as a whole, but this will be discussed further in the limitations section.

Table 11. Crosstabulation of Gender and Political Affiliation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Republican</th>
<th>Democrat</th>
<th>Independent</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 illustrates the cross section of gender and political affiliation to determine how many individuals of each gender identified with each political party on social issues. This is also important in terms of control variables to make sure the sample is not highly skewed between the
different groups. The highest occurrence indicates 36 females in this study identify as democrats.

In this case the spread is much more even among males than it is for females, which indicates that for females, gender and political affiliation are related.

Table 12. Crosstabulation of Gender and Religiosity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Level of Religiosity</th>
<th>Not religious</th>
<th>A little religious</th>
<th>Unsure</th>
<th>Moderately religious</th>
<th>Extremely religious</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 illustrates the relationship of gender and religiosity. As can be seen by the table, this comparison is much closer than the previous crosstabs, with little difference seen among males and females in terms of their religiosity. The majority who indicated being unsure, moderately, and extremely religious is almost evenly split between men and women. Especially considering there are fewer males in the study in general. Overall, males indicated being more religious, with 51.1% of males indicating moderate or above religiosity, compared with only 43.4% of females.

Next, crosstabs were run between the independent PSM score and the six dependent measures of decision questions. Because it was a crosstab and the researcher wanted to test all individuals, PSM score was split into a dichotomous variable with attributes of medium and high because those are the two levels present in the data. The cutoff point was 110 (the midpoint, and also close to the mean of 109), and any scores below this were considered medium and any scores 111 and above were considered high. Out of the six chi-squares that were produced, none of them were statistically significant. Thus meaning that there was no difference between medium and high PSM scores in terms of how they answered the decision-making questions.

Although this initially was surprising, further evaluation of the ways in which respondents answered the questions demonstrated that the majority chose the more rehabilitative
decisions. This was discussed in Table 9 which showed the frequencies of answers to each question, with more respondents selecting the rehabilitative options for each question. Therefore, finding no significant difference between medium and high PSM scores is what one would expect to find, given that ideologically their score differences could be considered arbitrary. It is important to consider the lack of variation of the scores and that one would not expect to find much inherent difference between a medium and high PSM individual in terms of behavior. Therefore, although these tests cannot confirm the hypotheses, it is consistent with the expectation that higher scores would make more rehabilitative decisions. The group overall had higher PSM scores (mean of 109) and also chose rehabilitative options (65.7% Informally warning; 68.5% not reporting; 85.2% advocating against reincarceration; 57.4% choosing not to terminate; and 65.7% referring to rehabilitative services). Therefore, given that most of these individuals chose the more rehabilitative options, it is in line with behavior that would be expected of higher PSM individuals.

Due to the close spread of the scores, the next step was to break PSM into its four dimensions to see if any of these scores on their own might have been influential in the decision-making. The first step to this process was to run a correlation among the four PSM dimensions to examine their relationship to one another, to both ensure that they are related (as in not working against one another), but no so related that they cannot be distinguished from one another. The following table illustrates this relationship among the dimensions.
### Table 13. PSM Dimensions Correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CPI Score</th>
<th>CD Score</th>
<th>CMP Score</th>
<th>SS Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPI Score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.597**</td>
<td>.337**</td>
<td>.499**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD Score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.597**</td>
<td>.282**</td>
<td>.611**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMP Score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.337**</td>
<td>.282**</td>
<td>.461**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS Score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.499**</td>
<td>.611**</td>
<td>.461**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

This table is showing that each PSM dimension is correlated with the others at a highly significant level < .01. As to be expected, the component scores of PSM are positively correlated with each other, but not so highly correlated to one another that they might as well be the same factor. This supports the validation and use of PSM in this population. It also provides confidence in the measure and interpretation of the questions.

#### 4.2.1 Chi-square

The basic assumptions for chi-square tests for association require the use of two variables that are nominal and or dichotomous and that each variable consists of two or more attributes. In addition, chi-square tests require that there is an independence of observations and that all cells have a frequency of five or more (Weinberg and Abramowitz, 2008). Chi-square tests are necessary to compute this data to offer an alternative and comprehensive view of the associations between variables that could be missed with the binary logistic regression. As previously mentioned, given the positively skewed range of PSM scores, different categories were devised to attempt to continue to compare higher and lower scores based on the data collected. One
option was to isolate the 15 highest and the 15 lowest scores and compare them with the various dependent variables. These specific tests on the five dependent decision measures were not significant when used to test associations between the most polarized scores and the dependent decision outcomes. Thus, no significant difference was found between the 15 lowest and 15 highest PSM scores in terms of associating their PSM score with any of the decision options. However when compared to hypothesis 6 which assumes that higher PSM influences how holistically respondents define successful reentry (success score index) the polarized low/high scores (Polar PSM) did show significance in the chi-square analysis.

Table 14. Chi-square of Polarized PSM and Success Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Successful Reintegration Index</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Polar PSM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not holistic</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Success Score</td>
<td></td>
<td>66.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Polar PSM</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Success Score</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Polar PSM</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat holistic</td>
<td></td>
<td>77.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Success Score</td>
<td></td>
<td>46.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Polar PSM</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holistic</td>
<td></td>
<td>40.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Success Score</td>
<td></td>
<td>26.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Polar PSM</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very holistic</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Success Score</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Polar PSM</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely holistic</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Success Score</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Polar PSM</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This variable was measured by a question that asked respondents to check all that apply that would constitute the minimum needed for successful reintegration by an adult individual.
three years after release. The six attributes consisted of remaining arrest free; gaining part-time employment; reunifying with immediate family; increasing education at least one level higher than pre-incarceration level; securing housing and gaining full-time employment. From there a success score index was created to score the number of items respondents selected. Selecting one item or less was considered not holistic, selecting four or more items was considered holistic and selecting all six was coded as extremely holistic. The following table shows the Pearson chi-square results for this analysis.

Table 15. Chi-square Results for Polar H/L & Success Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>11.511a</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>14.775</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>3.165</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 10 cells (83.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .50.

Despite the other dependent measures not being supported by the chi-square analyses, hypothesis 6 (holistically defining success) was run separately given that the dependent variable was an ordinal index in this case and not dichotomous like the other dependent variables. The chi-square test for association was conducted between polarized PSM scores (15 highest and 15 lowest) and how holistically individuals chose to define successful reentry. There was a statistically significant association between polarized PSM scores and how holistically individuals chose to define successful reentry, $X^2(5) = 11.511, p = .042$. It is expected that with a larger, more polarized group the association would strengthen. However, although this chi-square does show significance, because of the limited number of cases ($n=30$) many of the expected values (10) are less than five. According to the aforementioned assumptions, this would call for a Fisher’s Exact test to be used, but because one of the variables had more than two
attributes, it did not meet the assumptions of Fisher’s test because one or both variables had greater than two attributes—in this case the variable of holistic definitions had six attributes. Therefore, this significance should be cautiously interpreted due to the reduced frequencies and un-met assumptions of this particular test.

Because most of the initial tests did not identify PSM as a significant predictor of the various decision options, additional chi-squares were run to determine what influence external factors had on decision-making. Of these, three external factors were shown to be significantly associated according to a Fisher’s exact test in the chi-square analyses. When external factor options were run with each of the five decision options, the following three were significant; previous work experience was selected as a significant factor affecting the decision to reprimand Kareem within in the program with a p-value of .007<.05; the mission of the organization was selected as a significant factor affecting the decision to avoid formally reporting or revoking probation with a p-value of .027<.05; and lastly, the option of none of the above was selected as a significant factor affecting the decision to informally warn Kareem, with a Fisher’s exact test of .014.

Table 16. Chi-square Test of External Factors and Decision Options

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External Factor Selected</th>
<th>Decision Action</th>
<th>Fisher’s Exact Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Previous Work Experiences</td>
<td>Reprimand/Sanction</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Mission</td>
<td>Avoid Formally Report/Revoke</td>
<td>.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of the Above</td>
<td>Informally Warn</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The frequency distribution below in Table 17 indicates which factors respondents selected as impacting their decision. Respondents were asked to check all that apply, so there could potentially be more than one response per category. This table provides the other decision options that were included.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of discretion</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor’s preference</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal training</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>60.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous work experience</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>67.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational mission</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents in the follow up interviews were asked to revisit this question in terms of how much discretion they feel they have when making these types of decisions, as well as what factors other than lack of discretion might have impacted their decisions to the case study. They were also asked to expand upon what impact their organizational culture and mission have on their real life decisions. There were some very interesting responses that came from this line of inquiry, the first being that most individuals in the follow up interviews said they have “quite a bit” to almost “total discretion” when making these types of decisions. The only one who said they had hardly any discretion worked inside of a jail which is very understandable, and two others said discretion was conditional based on the type of offender (low risk versus high risk); a reentry and family services case manager stating that “[high risk] pose a higher risk in the community, so you kind of have to go by the book.” Another respondent who said discretion was conditional brought up a very intriguing point that external influences can affect discretion at certain times. According to a program coordinator at a private correctional management residential facility,

“For the most part I have as much discretion as I need to make the decisions. I mean there are sometimes some political interests that are involved, like if I have a success rate that’s really poor; I might look for other options that basically won’t count negatively against my successful or unsuccessful rates; That’s what our
When asked what factors other than those listed in the survey might affect their decisions, respondents also gave some insightful answers, mentioning things such as timing (when something occurs), resources they have at their disposal, and community safety/level of risk posed. In regards to timing, a court programs manager at a non-profit said “I think timing certainly does [impact discretion]. When something happens I think, plays a huge influence as to how we move forward.” When asked to elaborate this same individual said that;

“If I’m two weeks away from having to report back to the referral source and something happens, I don’t know that I’m saying ‘ok lets come up with this plan, try to get this accomplished, and then we’ll go back to the referral source and report on that,’ because I may just look at, again logically, time wise, I’m now going to maybe have to put this client over another client who’s doing everything that they’re supposed to and then kind of prioritize them and I try to stay away from that if I can because I don’t—one client not doing things the way they’re supposed to shouldn’t impact another client who is doing things the way they are supposed to.”

This is significant because it is something that is rarely (if at all) mentioned when considering numbers on recidivism. This “history effect” (Babbie, 2010) could potentially be contributing to rates of recidivism based not upon the act itself, but based on when the act occurs, that will determine whether the reentry manager takes a punitive or rehabilitative stance.
In terms of organizational mission and culture, and its influence on decision-making, eight out of the nine interviewees indicated that it definitely did. The one who did not was a probation officer in a municipal court and elaborated in the following way in response to the question if organizational mission and culture play a role in their decisions;

“You know, probably not. I’ve been doing this a long time and so I’m pretty comfortable even absent any kind of specific directive from my department. I’m doing it based on what I believe should happen…evidence based practices and I try to follow them…our department doesn’t have a lot of specific mandates anyway.”

Aside from this one individual, all the other interviewees said that their organizational mission definitely affected their decisions in the case study as well as to in their real job decisions. One non-profit court programs manager even admitted that the organizational culture changed him, stating that,

“before I worked here, it was to me pretty simple, you commit a crime and be accountable to what the consequences are; And since working there I know that part [learning from mistakes] is just as more, if not more important than someone going to jail or just paying a fine.”

A second interviewee, a program coordinator for a private correctional management residential facility indicated the organizational culture had affected him as well, saying,

“[my] background is security law enforcement, like, ‘lock them up’ kind of thing, that was the mentality I had coming to this facility,
and then since I’ve been here, a lot of the trainings and things like
that I’ve been able to participate in have definitely influenced me to
be able to give people second chances.”

These statement would be evident of organizational mission/culture and formal training being able to override individual PSM score in cases of decision-making. Based upon these statements and all the individuals who indicated that organizational mission and culture do influence their decisions, it is important to consider that despite not being a statistically significant predictor of decisions in this study, these variables cannot be excluded from future studies, nor discounted as possible intervening factors. It is also important to note that all those who elaborated on the type of organizational mission or culture of their agency described it as being rehabilitative focused. This is consistent with the recent paradigm shift from control oriented to treatment oriented management of agencies serving criminal justice populations.

A three layer chi-square was also run between the external factor influence choices, overall organization culture, and the decision options, to determine if respondents were answering based on pressure they felt from outside forces or organizational culture that could potentially override their personal motivations or PSM score. The chi-square test for association was conducted between organizational culture type and decision to revoke probation or not. The chi-square revealed that for those who indicated that formal training did influence their decisions, organizational culture type had a significant association with the decision to revoke probation or not, $X^2(4) = 11.652, p = .020$ (Table 18). This significance did not hold true for those who indicated formal training had no influence on their responses to the case study. Also, it should be noted once again that this model also had some cell frequencies less than five, but a
Fisher’s exact test was not produced here because again at least one of the variables had more than two attributes.

Table 18. Chi-square for Formal Training*Revoke/Report*Organizational Culture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did formal training influence your decisions in the case study?</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>11.652b</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>14.095</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>6.795c</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>8.618</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.81
b. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .34
c. 7 cells (70.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.19

It was expected that those who indicated “Yes” formal training influenced their decision, and that their organizational culture is “Mentorship” or “Treatment” would answer “No” to revoke/report and that the opposite would be true for those who say “Yes” formal training influenced their decision and their organizational culture was “Supervision” or “Rule/Law Enforcement” to answer “Yes” to revoke/report. However, the association appears to be in the opposite direction as to what was expected. More individuals from the Mentorship or Treatment cultures chose to revoke/report to probation than those in the Supervision or Rule/Law Enforcement cultures. The following table illustrates the crosstabulation among those who said formal training influenced their decision to report/revoke or not, compared to which organizational culture type influenced their training.
Table 19. Crosstabulation of Formal Training Influence, Revoke/Report, and Organizational Culture Training Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal Training Influence- YES</th>
<th>Organizational Culture Training Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you Formally report/revoke?</td>
<td>Mentorship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Upon closer review of the model (Table 19) it becomes more clear that because the largest group was the supervisory group (who all chose not to revoke probation), and also the group most likely to check off “Supervision” or Rule/Law Enforcement” as their organizational culture, the model is skewed. Therefore, although it appears that those with supervision or law enforcement organizational culture appear to be more lenient, it is a confounding effect of the large group of supervision individuals all choosing not to revoke the client. However, it is surprising that the mentorship and treatment groups are so close between choosing to report or not report. It was hypothesized that those with mentorship or treatment culture who said their formal training influenced their decision would choose not to report or revoke, however these individuals seem to be evenly divided between the two choices.

Due to the fact that none of the supervisory individuals chose to revoke probation, this question was posed to the follow-up interview participants to see if they could offer some explanation as to why this occurred. Of those who were actually answering as a supervisory individual, some explanations were that, “probably because the probation departments have policies and procedures that dictate their response” (probation officer, municipal court); “we have a responsibility to take everything into consideration; if you make the decision just to violate somebody on a black and white matter and it may not be the best going forward long term” (court programs manager, non-profit);
“My focus is to help them gain employment, so to send somebody back for not having a job, is, like basically I have bigger fish to fry; It would probably take upwards of ten to twelve, and me seeing them not putting forth any effort to gain employment” (program coordinator, private correctional residential facility).

Another interviewee who was not a supervisory individual, but rather an a mentoring/employment readiness (vocational) coach at a non-profit offered insight to a possible effect of the case study stating that, “as long as he [Kareem] showed effort; I don’t think meeting employment is really a good goal to judge someone’s revocation by.” This will be discussed more in depth in the final chapter of this dissertation, but in the opinion of the researcher, this is the most logical explanation as to why all the supervisory individuals chose not to revoke Kareem for failing to gain employment by a certain deadline.

Although there appears to be a clear explanation for the surprising results for the answers of the supervision individuals, there is a more perplexing contradiction among the mentorship/treatment individuals’ answers to the same three questions. Some individuals indicated that formal training influenced their decision to report/revoke, and that their organizational training was mentorship or treatment focused which would presumably lead toward a rehabilitative type of decision. However, 86.3% of individuals who chose the more punitive option of reporting or revoking probation were from the mentorship/treatment trained organizational cultures. Comparatively, only 52.3% of individuals who chose the more rehabilitative option to not report or revoke were from the mentorship/treatment trained organizational cultures. This seems to contradict the self-reports that they were acting in accordance with their training.
This specific question was included in the follow-up interviews to explore possible explanations for this contradictory reporting. While answers were varied, a theme that emerged in more than one answer is that sometimes personal emotions, or the totality of circumstances overrides training. A notable excerpt by an administrator performing mentoring and employment readiness at a non-profit community reentry center said that “people want to believe that they make decisions based on the way they were trained.” A separate respondent, a probation officer at a municipal court, echoed this by saying “people want to say the right thing.” The implication of these answers was that the contradiction of the answers in terms of training and decision-making could have been affected by the social desirability of how they think they should be responding to a question about making a decision in conjunction with their training.

Job category also appeared to influence decision-making for four out of the five decision measures. A chi-square analysis was run for each and the results have been compiled in a table below. Advocating for or against reincarceration was not significant, as it was well above the .05 level at .983. The other four pictured in the table below do show a significant association between job category and decision responses.
Table 20. Chi-squares-Job Category and Decisions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informally Warn</td>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>16.039&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>16.087</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>8.721</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td></td>
<td>103</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formally Report/Revoke</td>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>33.053&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>43.647</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>27.534</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td></td>
<td>106</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reprimand</td>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>15.306&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>15.755</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>11.823</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td></td>
<td>105</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refer to Rehab. Services</td>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>62.813&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>68.110</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>43.788</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td></td>
<td>107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The other significant finding from the chi-square analyses is the significant association between polar PSM scores and holistic definitions of successful reentry. As hypothesized, those with higher PSM scores had more holistic definitions of successful reentry than those with lower PSM scores, who were more limited in how they define success. This is important because proponents of improving offender reentry are moving toward more holistic approaches of reintegration, so those with more limited definitions would appear to impede a fully rehabilitative approach to prisoner reentry. Therefore from this analysis, those with higher PSM appear to be associated with more progressive and rehabilitative approaches to the reentry process. The following section includes binary logistic regression analyses of the other five hypotheses to test the influence of PSM score on decision-making.
### 4.3 Binary Logistic Regression

Binary Logistic Regression was run to test each of the hypotheses, with PSM score being the independent measure in each test, paired with each of the five dependent variables. The first round of tests were run with the raw PSM scores and each of the dependent measures. The following table depicts the results of those analyses.

**Table 21. PSM as a Predictor of Decision Measures- Goodness of Fit Summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Goodness of fit (Hosmer/Lemeshow)</th>
<th>R² (Nag.)</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Report or Revoke</td>
<td>6.503</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refer to rehabilitation</td>
<td>6.580</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informally warn</td>
<td>10.227</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impose sanctions/reprimand</td>
<td>2.764</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocate for or against reincarceration</td>
<td>2.443</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.964</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based upon the results of these binary logistic regressions, it appears that none of the five hypotheses with decision outcomes are supported in this specific statistical test. The only hypothesis not addressed by this test is hypothesis 6 which had to be tested using a different measure as discussed earlier, because unlike the other five, the dependent outcome is not dichotomous. Hypothesis 6 was partly supported with a chi-square analysis measuring its association to the polarized PSM scores as was previously illustrated in Table 15.

The following table includes all six of the study hypotheses and the results of whether or not they are supported based upon the various statistical tests that were run to test them. Hypotheses 1-5 are based upon binary logistic regression results, and hypothesis 6 is based upon the results of a chi-square test of association between the most polarized PSM scores (N=30) and the holistic index that was used to interpret how individuals define successful reintegration.
Table 22. Summary of the Hypotheses Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H₁ Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are less likely to formally report or revoke a client.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₂ Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are more likely to refer clients to rehabilitative services.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₃ Reentry managers with higher PSM score are more likely to use informal warnings.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₄ Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are less likely to impose reprimands or sanctions.</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₅ Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are less likely to advocate for reincarceration.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₆ Reentry managers with higher PSM scores will define “successful reentry” more holistically.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Included in the independent measure of PSM raw score were the scores of each of the four dimensions to see if any one element was significant to affect the model. None of the tests were significant below the .05 level. This is most likely due to the homogeneity of the sample, with all of the respondents possessing medium to high PSM scores, thus lacking enough variation to render any of the models significant.

Binary logistic regressions were also run comparing each of the four dimensions of PSM separately to examine if any one in particular is more influential by itself since the overall scores were not. Out of all the regressions run comparing the four PSM dimensions to the five decision choices, only one dimension appeared to be significant for one decision question. In an initial test civic duty (CD score) appeared to influence a decision to reprimand with \( p = .016 \). However, when this dimension was re-run individually with decision to reprimand held as the dependent, the relationship was no longer significant with \( p = .051 \). This result is indicative that the other factors may have been interacting to produce the initial significant result, but that effect was reduced once the variable was run on its own.

Binary Logistic Regressions were also run to test the relationship between job category and decision outcomes. Of those, job category was significant in predicting decisions to
informally warn the client \((p=.019)\), formally report/revoke \((p=.001)\) and refer the client to rehabilitative services \((p=.000)\).

Table 23. Job Type as Predictor of Decision Orientation—Goodness of Fit Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Goodness of fit (Hosmer/Lemeshow)</th>
<th>(R^2) (Nagelkerke)</th>
<th>P Value (Sig.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informally warn</td>
<td>7.909</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formally report/revoke</td>
<td>13.789</td>
<td>.356</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impose sanctions/reprimand</td>
<td>3.426</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>.180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocate for or against reincarceration</td>
<td>.437</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refer to rehabilitation</td>
<td>15.708</td>
<td>.533</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is also interesting to note that for these three significant responses, the supervision group and the vocational group were the ones most likely to informally warn, avoid revoking and referring to rehabilitative services, which are all the more rehabilitative options. The other two categories, faith-based and co-occurring were much more divided in their decisions and tended to be more punitive leaning. One explanation was that this could be attributed to the training of the different groups, however as stated previously, when a crosstab was run to assess what type of training they each received, the faith-based, vocational and co-occurring groups indicated more mentorship and treatment focused training, versus the supervision group which selected more supervisory and rule/law enforcement training. This completely contradicts the decision choices and rules out the influence of training as a factor. The highest reported type of training among all the groups was treatment focused. Based upon the assessment of type of training, this does not appear to have influenced their decisions to a significant degree.

Table 24. Frequency of Training Type by Job Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Type of Training Received</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentorship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith-based</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-occurring</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The co-occurring group was more likely than the others to respond that their decision was based on formal training that they received with 76.5% of the co-occurring group indicating formal training influenced their decision. The other groups were split almost identically with 55% of supervision and faith-based individuals indicating formal training played a role and only 45% of the vocational group indicating formal training played a role.

4.3.1 Regression with PSM as Dependent Variable

Multiple regressions were run to test strength of controls in confounding the effects of PSM. This is the focus of previous studies and it is important to include these results from this unique population in terms of how PSM is affected or not affected by these typical intervening factors. Multiple regression analyses were run, the first with religiosity measured by how religious respondents considered themselves to be, and how many days they spent engaging in religious activity. This model is statistically significant $p=.025$ (Table 25).

Table 25. Religiosity as a Predictor of PSM-ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>1053.966</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>526.983</td>
<td>3.836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>13462.588</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>137.373</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14516.554</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: NewVRaw PSM continuous score  
b. Predictors: (Constant), In the past year about how often have you spent time related to religious activity? (such as any of the following: going to services, reading sacred materials and/or participating in religious functions; How religious do you consider yourself to be?  

Independent T tests were run for each variable to see if that variable was contributing to the model and to determine which or both were having the significant effect, number of days spent engaging in religious activity was determined to be the significant predictor variable of PSM $p=.038$ (Table 26).
There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.279. The variable of number of days engaging in religious activity significantly predicted PSM score, $F(1, 99) = 6.090, p < .015$, adj. $R^2 = .058$. This variable added statistically significantly to the prediction, $p < .05$. The associated regression coefficients and standard errors can be found in Table 26.

Table 27. ANOVA- Number of Days Engaged in Religious Activity as Predictor of PSM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>841.255</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>841.255</td>
<td>6.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>13675.299</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>138.134</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14516.554</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: NewVRaw PSM continuous score
b. Predictors: (Constant), In the past year about how often have you spent time related to religious activity? (such as any of the following; going to services, reading sacred materials and/or participating in religious functions).

Another multiple regression was run to test the impact of volunteerism on PSM score.

Volunteerism was measured by whether respondents enjoy volunteering. Enjoying volunteering demonstrated the ability to predict PSM to a significant level $p=.016$ (Table 28).

Table 28. ANOVA-Volunteerism as Predictor of PSM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>867.254</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>867.254</td>
<td>5.981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>15369.412</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>144.994</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16236.667</td>
<td>107</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: NewVRaw PSM continuous score
b. Predictors: (Constant), Are you someone who enjoys volunteering in your spare time?

There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.276. The variable of enjoying volunteering significantly predicted PSM score, $F(1, 106) = 5.981, p <$
.016, adj. $R^2 = .053$. This variable added statistically significantly to the prediction, $p < .05$.

Regression coefficients and standard errors can be found in Table 29.

Table 29. Volunteerism as Predictor of PSM- Coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>109.926</td>
<td>1.194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VOLUNTR</td>
<td>-.176</td>
<td>.072</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: NewVRaw PSM continuous score

The regression equation was: predicted PSM score = 109.926 -.176 x (enjoy volunteering).

This means that there was a decrease of .176 between those who said they enjoy volunteering to those who said they did not. This will be discussed further in the theoretical implications section of the conclusion chapter as these findings have impacts rooted in the literature from a theoretical basis.

Table 30. Political Affiliation as Predictor of PSM-Stepwise Regression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>620.947</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>620.947</td>
<td>4.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>14629.868</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>144.850</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15250.816</td>
<td>102</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This stepwise linear regression established that political party affiliation could significantly predict PSM score, $F(1,101)=4.287, p=.041$), based upon how the parties are numbered 1-Republican, 2-Democrat, 3-Independent. Each descending political party decreased PSM by 2.4 points based on the assigned value for each one. In order to better understand this result, a means test was run comparing the mean PSM scores among the five types of political affiliation.
Table 31. PSM Scores by Political Affiliation Means Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Political Affiliation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean PSM Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Democrat</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>111.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republican</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>111.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>107.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>103.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>103.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What these results imply is that because there were only 15 republicans in the sample, this indicates that they must be near the moderate end of the spectrum, given their tight cluster of PSM scores with a mean that was .59 less than the mean for Democrats (Table 31). Ideologically the nature of democratic viewpoints versus republican viewpoints would seem to follow in accordance with PSM score, with democratic values being more aligned with higher PSM score.

Table 32. One-way ANOVA Testing Predictors of PSM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization Type</td>
<td>94.561</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23.640</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>.962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td>197.339</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>39.468</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td>.938</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based upon this ANOVA in Table 32, organizational type and educational level do not predict PSM score to a significant degree. This is contrary to what the literature suggests that these two variables can influence PSM score with those in private and non-profit sectors and those with higher educational levels being associated with higher PSM scores when compared to their counterparts. Those in the private sector and those with lower educational levels have been associated with lower PSM scores in the past. In order to understand the reasons for these results, additional means tests were run to show the differences in PSM score among the type of job sectors and educational levels that were present in this study sample. Because the results of the earlier ANOVAs showed that neither organizational type nor education level was able to statistically predict PSM score to a significant degree, the means tests are a way to verify and also explain this surprising result. Table 33 shows the mean PSM scores by organizational sector type.
According to the original PSM theory, public and non-profit employees are expected to have higher PSM scores than individuals in the private sector. As is apparent in this means test, the tenants of the theory do hold true with private sector employees having the highest PSM scores of 110.2, followed closely by non-profit and faith-based employees with 109.2 and the lowest being private sector employees with a mean score of 107.1. It is clear from this table that the means in this study do follow the predicted trends of PSM theory, however, the differences are not enough to meet the criteria of statistical significance. Again, this can be attributed to the PSM scores in this sample being so closely distributed.

The close distribution of PSM scores was also discussed with individuals in the follow-up interviews and one respondent was very forthcoming in saying that “The Likert scale, [PSM questions] there were a few that were a little bit leading; I do think that those answers were probably skewed because of the way the questions were worded.” This will be discussed further in chapter five in a discussion of future research, but this revelation could also possibly explain the close proximity of PSM scores, that individuals answered in accordance with social desirability.

The same test was conducted with education levels, to see if they aligned with the predicted trends that PSM would increase along with education level. This is shown in Table 34 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>110.17</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>107.09</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-profit</td>
<td>109.21</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>12.555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith-based</td>
<td>109.20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.050</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 34. Mean PSM Score by Education Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest Education Level</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>109.00</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14.274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associates</td>
<td>106.27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>108.68</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>13.985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>110.80</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>10.803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral or equivalent</td>
<td>109.67</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.981</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Contrary to the results of the means test for organizational sector, the means test for education yields some unexpected trends. Although mean PSM scores for associates degree, bachelors degree and masters degrees so increase ordinarily by approximately two points each, in line with PSM theory, the lowest educational group (high school) and the highest (doctoral or equivalent) show a very surprising results. Both of these polarized categories not only have the same approximate score of 109, but it is neither the highest nor the lowest scores of all the categories. There is no obvious explanation for why the scores are distributed in this way. However, the results of this means test substantiate the earlier ANOVA which showed educational level does not predict PSM to a statistically significant degree.

Now that the results of the study have been presented thoroughly in this chapter, the following and final chapter will discuss the implications of these findings, not only for the present study but for future research as well. In addition, this chapter will examine the theoretical implications of these findings on PSM as a theory, and will conclude with the limitations of the current study in order to improve upon future research building upon this study and using similar methodology.
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS

It is clear from the previous results chapter that this study contained some surprising findings that were different from what was expected by the study hypotheses. Based upon the literature and the ideology of PSM as a theory, and a measure, it was expected that the decision-making behavior of respondents would be clearly predicted by PSM score. However, this study was not able to definitively predict the decision-making behavior of respondents based upon their PSM score. Some explanations of this will be discussed more in depth in the limitations section of this chapter, but a simple explanation is that there was not enough variation among PSM scores in order to confirm or reject the hypotheses, given that all of the PSM scores fell within a medium to high range. Because of this, various types of analyses were run to try and tease out any slight differences between score type and decision behavior by testing only the highest 15 and lowest 15 scores, which did indicate differences in regards to predicting holistic definitions of successful reintegration. This is not surprising given that all the individuals scored in a medium to high range and therefore, would not be expected to behave much differently from one another. The following sections of this chapter will discuss the results in terms of the research questions and major findings, theoretical implications of the results on PSM as a theory, as well as limitations of this study and recommendations for future research in this area.

5.1 Discussion

The research questions in this study attempted to answer how PSM score affects decision-making practices among reentry managers when controlling for various antecedent factors. Although the results were not clear as to the impact of PSM score on decisions, when PSM was tested as the dependent, two of the controls, volunteering and religiosity (both measured by number of average days engaged) appeared to influence PSM score. However, the rest of the other controls did not appear to interfere. This implies that if future studies were able
to get a wider range of scores, the control variables should not interfere with a clear analysis of the impact of PSM on decision-making.

The first sub-research question attempted to answer, does a higher PSM score influence reentry managers to have a more rehabilitative decision orientation? The answer to this question did seem apparent in the data given that all the PSM scores were medium to high, and the majority of all the decision options were rehabilitative. Therefore, the implication is that this research question is supported, that individuals with higher PSM scores are more likely to take a rehabilitative approach to reentry decision-making. The second sub-research question attempted to answer, does lower PSM score influence reentry managers to have a more punitive decision orientation? This question was not able to be tested because there were no low PSM scores obtained from the study sample.

The third and final sub-research question asked; does PSM score influence reentry managers’ definitions of successful reintegration? This question was affirmed by the data which found that PSM scores were positively correlated to more holistic definitions of successful reintegration. Those with the top 15 highest PSM scores had more holistic definitions of successful reintegration that those with the 15 lowest PSM scores. This is important because more progressive and evidence based practices of reentry advocate for a more holistic approach and utilization of benchmarks of successful reintegration, aside from just remaining arrest free and having a part-time job. The benchmarks for full and sustainable success are increasingly being measured on more factors that would indicate elevated citizenship, such as education, full-time employment, stable housing and family reunification. The presence of these items is shown to lower the risk of reoffending and that is why it is important for reentry managers to advocate for and define success in terms of these more holistic approaches.
Another surprising result of a chi-square analysis revealed that for those who indicated that formal training did influence their decisions, organizational culture type had a significant association with the decision to revoke probation. This significance did not hold true for those who indicated formal training had no influence on their responses to the case study. Additional chi-square results measuring the impact of external factors on decision options found that previous work experience and organizational mission had a significant association between the decisions to reprimand and avoid revocation, respectively.

There was no significant association between the other external factors such as lack of discretion, supervisor preference or formal training, however, the decision to informally warn was significantly associated with ‘none of the above’, an influence which could also be a substitute for ‘other’. This implies that there might have been other external influences that were not captured by the survey. Respondents were asked in the interviews if any other factors influenced their decisions which yielded some interesting responses. In regards to other external influences on decisions, respondents gave answers such as timing (when something occurs), resources they have at their disposal, and community safety/level of risk posed given as external influences on decisions. This was not captured by the survey but could explain the association between the answer of ‘none of these’ and the decision to informally warn.

5.2 Theoretical Implications

One important theoretical implication that arose from this study is that with this population, there does not appear to be a statistically significant difference between sector and PSM score. This is an interesting finding because of the suggestion of earlier studies that PSM is influenced by a multitude of factors. However, it is important to note that the public sector did have the highest mean PSM score and the private sector did have the lowest mean PSM score. Faith-based and non-profit employees had nearly identical PSM scores and were only one point
lower than the public sector employees, but these differences were not large enough to meet statistical significance.

In addition to sector, educational levels do not predict PSM score to a significant degree with this population. These findings are contrary to what the literature suggests that sector and education levels can influence PSM score, with those in private and non-profit sectors and those with higher educational levels being associated with higher PSM scores, when compared to private sectors and those with lower educational levels. In addition, years of employment in their current position did not influence respondents’ PSM scores, contrary to findings in previous studies. Grant’s (2007) and Bellè’s, (2012) assumptions that more contact increases helping attitude did not hold true in this particular study population, which was expected given the higher levels of burnout and turnover usually seen among this particular population.

The results of the binary logistic regression to test the hypotheses were not significant for five out of the five hypotheses tested with this analytic tool. However, though these analyses cannot confirm the hypotheses, the overall results of the study in terms of PSM score distribution and frequency of rehabilitative over punitive decisions among the sample was consistent with the expectation that higher scores would produce more rehabilitative decisions. The overall sample had higher PSM scores (mean of 109) and also chose rehabilitatively in the majority of the decision options of informally warning, not reporting/revoking, advocating against reincarceration, and referring to rehabilitative services.

Due to the lack of polarization among the PSM scores, different sets of analyses were run using PSM as the dependent rather than the independent score to see if certain factors or individual characteristics could be used to predict PSM score. The results of the multiple regressions to test the control variables as predictors of PSM, found that most were not
significant in predicting PSM score, except for two, religiosity and volunteerism. These two variables were run separately to determine which or both were having the significant effect, and number of days spent engaging in religious activity in addition to average number of days spent volunteering were determined to be positively correlated with PSM score. The variable of enjoying volunteering, which was a dichotomous measure, significantly predicted PSM score as well. This supports earlier studies of PSM which have shown that these two factors are positively correlated to PSM score level.

5.3 Limitations

There is a potential in this study for non-response error, which according to Dillman, Smyth, and Christian, (2009) is “when people selected for a survey who did not respond are different in a way that is important to the study from those who do respond” (p. 19). Given the similarity among personal characteristics most importantly PSM scoring among respondents, it is very likely that the results of this study were affected by non-response error. It is very possible that those who chose not to participate in the survey would have responded differently from those who did participate, and would likely have behaved in accordance with lower PSM.

In conjunction with this, there is also possible sampling error, which occurs when the margin of error is larger than the differences one would expect to find. If there isn’t enough difference among the population, sampling error is an explanation (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009). This is likely to occur when too small a subset from the population responds; which could be argued in this case despite the moderate response rate. Given the vast population of reentry managers in the United States, a sample of 108 is relatively small, and thus subject to greater possibility of sampling error. Although less likely, there is also the potential for limitations of the study population list provided by CSG in terms of accuracy and inclusiveness (Dillman, et al. 2009). Given the time span over which these agencies have been in operation and the uncertainty
of their monetary resources, some agencies have been deconstructed, changed management, or fallen out of contact with the grant parenting agency. It was apparent that some of the agencies on the list either no longer existed, or their contact information was out of date, and therefore all potential agencies were not able to be contacted. This is to no fault of the CSG, just a matter of fact, and is less likely to have any real impact on responses; however it is worth being mentioned.

A third limitation of this study is the two tiered nature of the recruitment. By going through supervisors instead of contacting the employees directly, this could have affected the response rate. In essence, there were two levels of response, those supervisors who agreed to forward the survey link out of all those who were contacted, and of the employees who received the survey, the number who chose to respond. There is no way to be sure of the exact number of individuals in either tier who actually received the survey and chose not to forward it on, or who may have received it but chose not to respond. This ambiguity is due to the nature of email contact, in which spam folders, individuals absence from the office, or defunct email addresses can all muddle the ability of the researcher to record the true number of potential respondents.

According to Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009) the use of BCC or blind copy group emails, can also be an issue that reduces response rate. In this study BCC was utilized due to the large nature of the initial study population. However, there were a number of cases in which the researcher personally emailed those with whom phone contact or additional approval had been needed, and thus a more familiar relationship had been established. According to Dillman et al., the use of BCC email functions could cause emails to be sent to Spam folders, although this was not brought to the attention of the researcher, and several individuals who had been BCC’d did respond directly, indicating the email had been delivered as intended.
Another limitation of this study is in its ability to generalize to reentry managers as a whole. Because the current study population was based on evidence based grantee organizations, one could argue that this is a form of selective observation of the higher performing organizations. However, given the characteristics of the respondents and their varied nature, it is less likely that the sampled individuals differ demographically from the larger reentry manager population. Therefore this study could be generalized based on the representativeness and characteristics of the sample; however, the low response rate is still a barrier to generalization, even to the study population as a whole.

This final limitation, the setting of the research, could be seen as a limitation due to the use of the Internet as a recruitment and dissemination tool and the simulated type of study design. Scholars such as Reis and Gosling (2010) have argued that the physical disconnect between researchers and participants in Internet studies contributes to a lack of control of the research setting in terms of distractions, as well as alertness. Although the extent to which outcomes are affected by these factors is unknown, from a psychometric standpoint, research conducted via the Internet as opposed to real-life observations has shown that Internet samples do not appear to be inferior to other samples (Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava and John, 2004; Luce, Winzelberg, Das, Osborne, Bryson, and Taylor, 2007; Reis & Gosling, 2010). The simulation design to measure decisions was necessary to ensure synchronicity among the variables of the hypothetical offender’s background and circumstances to limit variability in what the respondents were reacting to. It could be argued that more control was in fact achieved by using a simulated standardized case study as opposed to evaluating actual decisions of the study sample.
5.4 Implications for Future Research

Future studies trying to reproduce this study design should focus on one reentry manager group at a time. The variation of the vignettes in this study may have limited the comparability among groups, as well as to the larger reentry manager population as a whole. Although the feature of being able to choose the most appropriate job category was applauded by the interview participants, this could have contributed to some issues in the statistical analysis. However, it is crucial that reentry managers other than probation and parole be studied in future research, in terms of their decision-making just perhaps in separate studies. In regards to the case studies, the majority of interview respondents said they were very accurate examples of scenarios and decision options they would encounter in their actual jobs. Job category was also shown to be a predictor of decision-orientation in a binary logistic regression, and therefore implies that there are either inherent differences among those in different job categories, or that the variations in the case studies prompted certain likeminded decisions within the groups. It was also mentioned by some interview participants that the supervisory case study was a little too lenient and thus could explain why all of the individuals chose not to revoke in that scenario. This should also be addressed in future studies with the scenario for supervisory individuals being changed to something that would garner more diverse responses.

An additional recommendation would be to offer some type of incentive to try and recruit individuals with more polarized PSM scores. Tenants of PSM theory indicate that those in the private sector are more motivated by monetary incentives than those in the public or non-profit sector. Therefore a cash incentive for individuals to complete the survey could potentially overcome the self-selection bias that occurred in this study to hopefully glean a wider array of PSM scores. Also, future studies could employ other techniques for boosting response of all
participants such as conducting an in-person survey where all individuals are more likely to take the survey due to social desirability factors. This would also help eliminate the self-selection bias.

The PSM measure specifically was described as being “leading” by one respondent in the follow-up interviews. The respondent stated that they could see how it would be easy for individuals to gauge the intention of the questions and to answer more favorably. Going forward, maybe some of the PSM items should be reworded to be less leading. The example that the interviewee gave was for the statement; “I am one of those rare people who would risk personal loss to help others in need.” A potential change would be to rephrase it such as; “I am someone who would risk personal loss to help someone else.” This should be addressed in future research to attempt to preserve the meaning of the PSM questionnaire items while reducing the leading terminology that could be attributing to the social desirability bias.

In terms of advancing understanding of decision-making in prisoner reentry management, this study provides insight into the myriad of factors associated in reentry managers’ decisions. Interview respondents spoke candidly about factors such as timing and resources impacting their decisions from one client to another, as well as organizational mission being more important than previously thought in impacting decision actions. The link to PSM could be tested further to provide deeper understanding, but the effects of certain previously identified controls seem to be mitigated in this particular study population.

Because the results of this exploratory study were somewhat inconclusive due to the homogeneity of the study sample, it would be important for future studies to continue in this vein of inquiry and continue to build upon the research that has been done here. This study provides an interesting snapshot of the current state of reentry management in the United States, and
outlines current paradigms in regards to the amount of discretion in decision-making, as well as organizational mission shifts toward rehabilitation.
APPENDIX A. SURVEY INSTRUMENT
Part 1 Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey.

In the first part of this survey you will be given a short case study to read and then you will be asked to respond to several related decision questions. This is designed to be as relevant to your actual job duties as possible, however, it may not be the case for everyone. Regardless, you are requested to place yourself in the position of the administrator in the case study and respond how you feel you would respond if you were in the described situation. The first question is designed to match you with the case study that is most closely aligned to your actual job duties. You are asked to select the category that is the most similar to the functions of your position working with former prisoners.

** Note: at the end of each page once you click [>>] to advance, you cannot go back to change answers on a previous page. Also avoid the "Back" arrow on your browser to prevent answers from being lost.

Q1 Which of the following is most closely aligned to your current job description?

- Supervision (Probation officer, parole officer, corrections)
- Faith-based (Volunteer, mentor, counselor in a religious organization)
- Vocational (Job placement, employment counselor, trade skills)
- Co-occurring (Substance abuse and or mental health counselor)

Faith-based Case Study

Kareem Winslow, age 26, has been released into your faith-based residential reentry program following a 4 year sentence and is mandated to attend as a condition of parole. A second time, non-violent offender, he most recently served 3 years for possession of heroin with intent to distribute, prior to being conditionally released onto parole and enrolled into your program. Kareem has graduated from high school and has been a model participant with the exception of a few missed activities for which he had documented excuses. In the program in addition to the parole conditions, clients are forbidden from using drugs or alcohol. After being in your program for several weeks, one day you notice Kareem smells of alcohol. When you attempt to confront Kareem about the alleged drinking he claims the smell is his hand sanitizer

You are left with several decisions as to how to handle this situation. You have the option to informally give Kareem a warning for a program rule infraction; contact Kareem’s parole officer to inform them of Kareem's suspected alcohol use, which will likely result in his parole being revoked; you can advocate for or against his reincarceration; impose program sanctions such as loss of privileges; or kick Kareem out of the program.

Please answer the following questions to the best of your knowledge as to how you would handle this situation in real life, based on the information provided in this case study.
FB1 Do you informally give Kareem a warning for a program rule infraction? (avoiding any official action)

- Yes
- No

FB2 Do you formally report it to Kareem's parole officer? (official action)

- Yes
- No

FB3 Do you reprimand Kareem within your program (loss of privileges etc.)

- Yes
- No

FB4 Assuming you were forced to report it, would you advocate for or against Kareem's reincarceration?

- For
- Against

FB5 Do you formally terminate Kareem from the program?

- Yes
- No

FB6 Do you refer Kareem to more intensive rehabilitative treatment services?

- Yes
- No

FB7 How often do you want to take formal action against an offender, but do not because you feel pressured by someone in your agency or an official outside your agency?

- Never
- Occasionally
- Often
FB8 How often do you want to withhold taking formal action against an offender, but take action anyway because you feel pressured by someone in your agency or an official outside your agency?

- Never
- Occasionally
- Often

Vocational Case Study

Kareem Winslow, age 26, has been released following a 4 year sentence and is currently in your job readiness program which he is mandated to attend as a condition of parole. A second time, non-violent offender, he most recently served 3 years for possession of heroin with intent to distribute, prior to being conditionally released onto parole and enrolled in your program. Kareem has graduated from high school and has been a model participant with the exception of a few missed activities for which he had documented excuses. He currently attends daily sessions at your agency in addition to meeting with you one-on-one to search for employment. After knowing Kareem for several weeks, one day during a one-on-one meeting with Kareem, something appears different about his behavior. You suspect that Kareem has used some type of substance. His behavior is uncharacteristically mellow, his speech is slightly slurred and his eyes appear droopy. You ask him if he is feeling okay and he says he took over the counter Benadryl for his allergies. You suspect it is something more, but because he is not in the classroom setting, you have several options as to how to handle his possible substance use.

You are left with several decision as to how to handle this situation. You have the option to informally warn Kareem to leave for the day and return tomorrow when he feels better, which would avoid any official action; contact Kareem’s parole officer to inform them that Kareem should be urine tested, which will likely result in his parole being revoked; kick him within your program; advocating to the parole officer for or against Kareem’s reincarceration; kicking him out of the program; lastly, you have the option to refer him to SAI substance abuse initiative so he can continue looking for work.

Please answer the following questions to the best of your knowledge as to how you would handle this situation in real life, based on the information provided in this case study.

VC1 Do you informally warn Kareem to leave for the day? (avoiding official action)

- Yes
- No
VC2 Do you formally report it to Kareem’s parole officer? (official action)

- Yes
- No

VC3 Do you reprimand Kareem within your program (such as writing him up for a missed appointment)?

- Yes
- No

VC4 Assuming you had to report it, would you advocate to the parole officer for or against Kareem’s reincarceration?

- For
- Against

VC5 Do you terminate Kareem from the program?

- Yes
- No

VC6 Do you refer Kareem to the rehabilitative treatment program?

- Yes
- No

VC7 How often do you want to take formal action against an offender, but do not because you feel pressured by someone in your agency or an official outside your agency?

- Never
- Occasionally
- Often
VC8 How often do you want to withhold taking formal action against an offender, but take action anyway because you feel pressured by someone in your agency or an official outside your agency?

- Never
- Occasionally
- Often

Co-occurring Case Study

Kareem Winslow, age 26, has been released following a 4 year sentence and is currently in your treatment program which he is mandated to attend as a condition of parole. A second time, non-violent offender, he most recently served 3 years for possession of heroin with intent to distribute, prior to being conditionally released onto parole and enrolled in your program for treatment of alcohol abuse and bi-polar disorder. Kareem has graduated from high school and has been a model participant with the exception of a few missed appointments for which he had documented excuses. He currently attends group sessions at your agency in addition to meeting with you one-on-one for counseling. After knowing Kareem for several weeks, one day during a one-on-one meeting, he requests if he can be taken off of his medication for bi-polar disorder, because he feels the side effects are impairing his ability to meet other obligations. You inform him that the medication is necessary to stabilize him, but he confesses to you that he has been off of it for a month and believes he may have been misdiagnosed. It strikes you that his behavior has been very level and there may be some truth to his claims, however, he has violated the rules of your agency and his parole by going off of his medication.

You are now left with several decisions as to how to handle this situation. You can informally warn Kareem to resume his meds until a new diagnosis can be performed which would mean not reporting it; you can report it to Kareem’s parole officer to inform them that Kareem has violated by refusing medication, which will likely result in his parole being revoked; advocating to the parole officer for or against Kareem's reincarceration; imposing an in-house sanction on Kareem; kicking him out of the program; lastly you have the option of referring him to more intensive in-patient treatment.

Please answer the following questions to the best of your knowledge as to how you would handle this situation in real life, based on the information provided in this case study.

CO1 Do you informally warn Kareem to go back on his medication (avoiding any official action)?

- Yes
- No
CO2 Do you formally report it to Kareem’s parole officer? (official action)
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ No

CO3 Do you reprimand Kareem within your program (such as resetting the length of his treatment plan)?
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ No

CO4 Assuming you had to report it, do you advocate to the parole officer for or against Kareem’s reincarceration?
   ☐ For
   ☐ Against

CO5 Do you terminate Kareem from the program?
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ No

CO6 Do you refer Kareem to attend the more intensive in-patient program?
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ No
   ☐ How often do you want to take formal action against an offender, but do not because you feel pressured by someone in your agency or an official outside your agency?
   ☐ Never
   ☐ Occasionally
   ☐ Often

CO8 How often do you want to withhold taking formal action against an offender, but take action anyway because you feel pressured by someone in your agency or an official outside your agency?
   ☐ Never
   ☐ Occasionally
   ☐ Often
Supervisory Case Study

Kareem Winslow, age 26, has been on conditional release for 6 months and is nearing the end of his 4 year sentence. A second time, non-violent offender, he most recently served 3 years for possession of heroin with intent to distribute, prior to being conditionally released onto your caseload. Kareem has graduated from high school and has been a model client with the exception of a few missed appointments for which he had documented excuses. Kareem has never had a regular job, but is mandated to find full time employment. However, because of his limited work history he has had trouble finding work. Kareem is frustrated by this, and although he follows up with the job referrals you have given him, you can tell his morale is failing and his frustration is impacting his effectiveness. He is currently not enrolled in any employment counseling or programs. You have already granted him 1 extension when he was unable to find work by the 2 month post-release deadline. The 30 day extended deadline ends tomorrow and Kareem has not secured employment but has a promising interview at a company with immediate hire scheduled 3 days after the deadline expires.

You are left with several decisions as to how to handle the situation. You have the option to informally wait the extra 3 days until his interview which would mean avoiding any official action; revoke Kareem’s conditional release for failing to secure employment by the extended deadline; advocate for or against his reincarceration if you chose to initiate a hearing; imposing a lesser sanction to avoid a revocation hearing; or granting him another 30 day extension.

Please answer the following questions to the best of your knowledge as to how you would handle this situation in real life, based on the information provided in this case study.

SP1 Do you informally delay revoking for 3 days to allow for the interview to take place? (avoiding any official action)
○ Yes
○ No

SP2 Do you revoke Kareem’s conditional release? (official action)
○ Yes
○ No

SP3 Do you impose a lesser sanction to avoid filing for revocation?
○ Yes
○ No
SP4 Assuming you were forced to revoke, would you advocate to the judge for or against Kareem’s reincarceration?

- For
- Against

SP5 Do you apply for another 30 day extension?

- Yes
- No

SP6 Do you refer Kareem to an employment services counselor/program?

- Yes
- No

SP7 How often do you want to take formal action against an offender, but do not because you feel pressured by someone in your agency or an official outside your agency?

- Never
- Occasionally
- Often

SP8 How often do you want to withhold taking formal action against an offender, but take action anyway because you feel pressured by someone in your agency or an official outside your agency?

- Never
- Occasionally
- Often
Q2 Did any of the following influence your decisions in response to the case study? (Check all that apply)

- Lack of discretion you feel you would have
- Your supervisor’s preference
- Formal training you received
- Previous work experiences
- The mission of your organization
- None of these

Q3 Please select your response to the following statement:

The case study scenario was accurate to something I would encounter in my actual job.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Neither Agree nor Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Q4 Rank these in order of your perception of importance in the reintegration of former prisoners back into the community (1=Most important, 7=Least)

1. Education (of the offender)
2. Family Reunification (of the offender)
3. Employment (of the offender)
4. Public Safety (of the community)
5. Housing (of the offender)
6. Supervision (of the offender)
7. Substance abuse management/relevant treatment (of the offender)
8. Place an 8 here ONLY if you feel that the above are of equal importance.
Q5 In your personal opinion an adult individual has “successfully” reintegrated into society 3 years after release if he or she has met the minimum of any of these milestones; (Check all that apply)

- Remained arrest free
- Gained part-time employment (hourly/minimum wage)
- Reunified with immediate family
- Increased education at least 1 level higher than pre-incarceration level
- Secured housing (pay rent/mortgage)
- Gained full-time employment (salary)

Part 2 Thank you for completing Part 1 of this survey. In this second half of the survey you will be asked 3 sets of 10 short opinion questions related to your public service motivation. Please respond as truthfully as possible as to whether you strongly agree or disagree with the following statements. If you do not understand a statement, select neither agree nor disagree.

**Perry and Wise’s (1996) Public Service Motivation Items by Subscale**

1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree

**Commitment to the Public Interest** (7 items)

PSM 7 People may talk about the public interest, but they are really concerned only about their self-interest. (Reversed)

```
1  2  3  4  5
```

PSM 16 It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community. (Reversed)

```
1  2  3  4  5
```

PSM 23 I unselfishly contribute to my community.

```
1  2  3  4  5
```

PSM 30 Meaningful public service is very important to me.

```
1  2  3  4  5
```

PSM 34 I would prefer seeing public officials do what is best for the whole community even if it harmed my interests.

```
1  2  3  4  5
```

PSM 37 An official's obligation to the public should always come before loyalty to superiors.

```
1  2  3  4  5
```

PSM 39 I consider public service my civic duty.

```
1  2  3  4  5
```
**Civic Duty** (7 items)
PSM 14 When public officials take an oath of office, I believe they accept obligations not expected of citizens.

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 21 I am willing to go great lengths to fulfill my obligations to my country.

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 25 Public service is one of the highest forms of citizenship.

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 28 I believe everyone has a moral commitment to civic affairs no matter how busy they are.

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 29 I have an obligation to look after those less well off.

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 35 To me, the phrase "duty, honor, and country" stirs deeply felt emotions.

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 36 It is my responsibility to help solve problems arising from interdependencies among people.

1 2 3 4 5

**Compassion** (8 items)
PSM 2 I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged. (Reversed)

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 3 Most social programs are too vital to do without.

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 4 It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress.

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 8 To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 10 I seldom think about the welfare of people whom I don't know personally. (Reversed)

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 13 I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another.

1 2 3 4 5

PSM 24 I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves. (Reversed)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSM 40</th>
<th>There are few public programs that I wholeheartedly support. (Reversed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Self-Sacrifice (8 items)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSM 1</th>
<th>Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSM 5</th>
<th>I believe in putting duty before self.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSM 6</th>
<th>Doing well financially is definitely more important to me than doing good deeds. (Reversed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSM 9</th>
<th>Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSM 12</th>
<th>Serving citizens would give me a good feeling even if no one paid me for it.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSM 17</th>
<th>I feel people should give back to society more than they get from it.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSM 19</th>
<th>I am one of those rare people who would risk personal loss to help someone else.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSM 26</th>
<th>I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part 3

Thank you for completing part 2 of the survey. This is the third and final part of the survey and it contains 20 basic questions about yourself. Again, this survey is completely anonymous and these items are merely used to ensure that those surveyed are representative of the whole population. No results will be reported that contain any agency or personal characteristics. I ask that you please answer each question honestly. After you complete this final page of this survey your responses will be automatically recorded.

Q36 What is your gender?
- Male
- Female

Q37 What is your age?________
Q38 What is your race?

- Black/African American
- White
- American Indian or Alaska Native
- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- Asian

Q39 What is your highest level of educational achievement?

- High school diploma
- Associates degree
- Bachelors degree
- Masters degree
- Doctoral (or equivalent)

Q40 How many years have you been employed with your current organization? ________________

Q41 How many years have you been employed in a similar position or field?

- Less than 1 year
- 1-4 years
- 5-10 years
- 11-15 Years
- 16-20 years
- 21 or more years

Q42 What is the type of organization you are currently employed by?

- Public (Government)
- Private (For-profit)
- Non-profit or Non-Government Organization
- Faith-based (Religious affiliation)
- I don't know
Q43 What is the name of your organization? (can be vague ex: County Probation, or specific ex: St. Matthews Church) ______________________________________________________________

Q44 What is your job title or level? (e.g. case manager, mentor, probation officer, etc.) ______________________________________________________________

Q45 How many days per week (on average) do you have direct, professional contact (face-to-face, phone, email or home supervision) with former prisoners?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7

Q46 What method(s) do you primarily use to communicate with your formerly incarcerated clients? (check all that apply)

- Face-to-face
- Phone
- Email
- Not Applicable
- Other ____________________

Q47 Do you work with Jail or Prison reentry?

- Jail
- Prison
- Both
- Unsure
Q48 Which best describes the culture of your organization in terms of how you were trained to deal with formerly incarcerated clients?

- Mentorship
- Supervision
- Rule/Law enforcement
- Treatment
- Other ____________________

Q49 What is your individual yearly income level?

- Less than $20,000
- $21,000-50,000
- $51,000-80,000
- $81,000 or more

Q50 Which political party is most closely aligned with your personal beliefs on social issues?

- Republican
- Democrat
- Independent
- Other ____________________
- I don't know

Q51 How religious do you consider yourself to be?

- Not religious
- A little religious
- Unsure
- Moderately religious
- Extremely religious
Q52 In the past year about how often have you spent time related to religious activity? (such as any of the following; going to services, reading sacred materials and/or participating in religious functions)

☐ Daily
☐ Weekly
☐ Once a Month
☐ Less than Once a Month
☐ Never

Q53 Are you someone who enjoys volunteering in your spare time?

☐ Yes
☐ No

Q54 If yes, about how many days a year on average do you spend volunteering? (If no, skip to last question).

Q55 What type of Second Chance Act grant was your organization awarded?

☐ Smart Probation
☐ Reentry Court
☐ Mentoring
☐ Co-occurring
☐ I don't know
APPENDIX B. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES TABLE
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Location in Survey</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How does PSM score affect decision-making practices among reentry managers when controlling for various antecedent factors?</td>
<td><em>Hypotheses 1-6</em></td>
<td>Vignette- Questions 1-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PSM Survey- 30 items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Demographic- Questions 30-42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(gender, age, race, education, years employed, religiosity etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Does a higher PSM score influence reentry managers to have a more rehabilitative decision orientation?</td>
<td><em>Hypothesis 1:</em> Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are less likely to formally report or revoke a client.  <em>Hypothesis 2:</em> Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are more likely to refer clients to rehabilitative services.  <em>Hypothesis 3:</em> Reentry managers with higher PSM score are more likely to use informal warnings.</td>
<td>Vignette Questions 1, 2, 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PSM Survey- 30 items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Does lower PSM score influence reentry managers to have a more punitive decision orientation?</td>
<td><em>Hypothesis 4:</em> Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are less likely to impose reprimands or sanctions.  <em>Hypothesis 5:</em> Reentry managers with higher PSM scores are less likely to advocate for reincarceration.</td>
<td>Vignette Questions 3 &amp; 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PSM Survey- 30 items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Does PSM score influence holistic definitions of successful reintegration?</td>
<td><em>Hypothesis 6:</em> Reentry managers with higher PSM scores will define “successful reentry” more holistically.</td>
<td>General Questions 4 &amp; 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PSM Survey- 30 items</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C. VARIABLE TABLE
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Name</th>
<th>Variable Type</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PSM Score</td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>PSM Survey- Likert Scale- 30 items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>Independent-Sub cat.</td>
<td>PSM 2, 3, 4, 8, 10, 13, 24, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-sacrifice</td>
<td>Independent-Sub cat.</td>
<td>PSM 1, 5, 6, 9, 12, 17, 19, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to pub. interest</td>
<td>Independent-Sub cat.</td>
<td>PSM 7,16, 23, 30, 34, 37, 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic duty</td>
<td>Independent-Sub cat.</td>
<td>PSM 14, 21, 25, 28, 29, 35, 36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision Orientation:</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Index comprised of the following:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informally warn</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Vignette Q1-dichotomous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formally report/revoke conditional release</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Vignette Q2 -dichotomous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reprimand/Sanction</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Vignette Q3, Q5- dichotomous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocate for reincarceration</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Vignette Q4 -dichotomous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refer to rehabilitative services</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Vignette Q6 -dichotomous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holistically define successful reentry</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>General Q4,Q5-Index variable construct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Demographic Q36- dichotomous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Employment</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Demographic Q40- open ended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>DemographicQ37- open ended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Affiliation</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Demographic Q50-nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religiosity</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Demographic Q51- Likert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Demographic Q53, Q54-dichotomous, ratio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX D. LETTER OF SUPPORT FROM CSG
May 29, 2014

Supervisor,

This letter is composed on behalf of the Council of State Governments overseeing the implementation of the Second Chance Act to which your agency has been awarded. This letter is written in support of research being conducted out of the University of Central Florida, which wishes to use the Second Chance Act grantees as a study population.

Our agency has carefully reviewed the study proposal submitted by Marie Pryor and feels that this line of research inquiry is very beneficial to the SCA mission of reducing reoffending through research and practice. We also want to urge that the participation of your employees is completely voluntary, however, we feel they should be encouraged to participate based on the valued nature of the information that stands to be gleaned. No incentives should be provided, nor should any penalties be associated with a decision not to participate. It would be helpful if you could meet with your staff or send a memo out to inform them of the survey and to encourage their participation. Feel free to include this letter.

We want to inform various project coordinators of the merit of this type of research to further our understanding of issues associated with prisoner reentry and the related reoffending that occurs.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Beth A. Skinner MSW, PhD
Director, National Reentry Resource Center
Council of State Governments Justice Center
100 Wall Street, 11th Floor
New York, New York 10005
APPENDIX E. IRB APPROVAL
Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: UCF Institutional Review Board #1
FWA00000351, IRB00000138

To: Marie Pryor

Date: April 22, 2014

Dear Researcher:

On 4/22/2014, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review: Exempt Determination
Project Title: The Impact of Public Service Motivation on Reentry Managers’ Decision-Making Practices
Investigator: Marie Pryor
IRB Number: SBE-14-10261
Funding Agency: N/A
Grant Title: N/A
Research ID: N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Kamielle Chap

IRB Coordinator
Dear Supervisor,

As mentioned in my previous email, I am a doctoral candidate conducting research for my dissertation at the University of Central Florida. I have included the link to my online survey below and would greatly appreciate if you could disseminate it to your employees who have direct contact with former prisoners (ideally, but jail detainees are also acceptable). This means line staff who have a decision-making role in dealing with the reentry population. These individuals do not have to be directly funded under the SCA, they just need to be employed by your agency and be performing reentry services. **These individuals must be 18 years of age or older, employed by your organization, and working directly with former prisoners in some capacity where they have influence over their reintegration process** (this would exclude interns, secretaries, etc). The survey should take them approximately 15 minutes to complete. The responses will be anonymous and confidential. The risk to your organization is also minimal in that the overall study is concerned only with decision-making practices of reentry managers based upon how they score on a motivation indicator scale.

Your role in helping me move forward with this study if you choose, would be to forward the consent document containing the survey link to your employees who fit the aforementioned study criteria. Your facilitation of this process is completely voluntary and should you choose not to respond, there will be no adverse consequences. I also ask that you please do not view or take the survey yourself (it will skew the response rate), as it is intended only for your employees. If you are curious about the content of the survey, please email me and I will be happy to send you a copy.

If you have any questions regarding the study or want to find out more information before proceeding, please feel free to contact myself, or my university IRB who approved the study. Should you choose to participate by forwarding the email below to your employees, you will not be made aware of their participation as to protect their privacy. The timeframe for the data collection phase of this study is to allow a few days for emails to be sent out to participants and two weeks to gather responses. That being said, should you choose to forward this to your employees this week, it would be necessary to have them completed by Friday August 29, 2014.

One final thing I do ask is if you chose to participate, that you please email me to let me know how many employees you forward the survey link to. This is crucial for me to calculate my rate of response. It can be as simple as sending a number. I appreciate you taking them time to read this and welcome any questions you may have. Research is crucial to the development of the field and I greatly appreciate your assistance with this process.

Sincerely,

Marie Pryor, M.A.
Doctoral Candidate
Explanation of Research

Title: The Impact of Public Service Motivation on Reentry Managers’ Decision-Making Practices

Principal Investigator: Marie Pryor, M.A.

Faculty Supervisor: Naim Kapucu, PhD

You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study.

http://ucf.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_eh5NFvOMw0KZVCB

Hello,

You are being invited to take part in a research study. My name is Marie Pryor and I am a doctoral candidate conducting research for my dissertation at the University of Central Florida. I am interested in surveying employees in organizations funded under the Second Chance Act who work directly with former prisoners. The purpose of this research is to examine reentry managers’ influence and decision-making in the management of former prisoners.

Your supervisor has agreed to allow their employees who work with former prisoners to participate in this study. Whether you take part or not is up to you. Your participation is completely voluntary, and your supervisor will not be made aware should you choose to participate or not participate. The survey is also completely anonymous and should you choose to move forward by clicking the link above, your responses will not be attached to your email address, or any other identifying characteristics such as your name.

The online survey should take less than 15 minutes to complete and you may discontinue taking it at anytime without penalty. The first part is a brief pretend case study you will be asked to read and respond to, the second part includes questions about your motivation and attitudes, and the last part includes basic characteristic questions such as years of work experience and gender. You will have about 2 weeks to complete the survey once you receive it. You can also save it and come back to it if you get interrupted. That being said, should you choose to participate the survey needs to be submitted no later than August 29, 2014. It will be closed after that deadline.

I appreciate you taking the time to read this and welcome any questions you may have. Research is crucial to the development of the field and improvements to a successful reentry process. I would greatly appreciate your voluntary participation in this process.

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: If you have questions, concerns, or complaints Marie Pryor, Doctoral Student, Public Administration, College of Health and Public Affairs, 609-213-0265, email mpryor@knights.ucf.edu, or Dr. Naim Kapucu, Faculty Supervisor, School of Public Administration at 407-823-6096 or by email at kapucu@ucf.edu.
IRB contact about your rights in the study or to report a complaint:  Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). This research has been reviewed and approved by the IRB. For information about the rights of people who take part in research, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901.
APPENDIX G. IRB APPROVAL FOR FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEWS
Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: UCF Institutional Review Board #1
FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: Marie Pryor

Date: January 07, 2015

Dear Researcher:

On 01/07/2015, the IRB approved the following modifications to human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review: Exempt Determination
Modification Type: A follow-up Skype focus group interview was added to the Protocol. Focus group emails to participants and supervisors questions have been uploaded. A $10 gift card as compensation has been added to those who participate in the focus group. A revised protocol has been uploaded in IRIS and a new Explanation of Research document has been uploaded and approved for use.
Project Title: The Impact of Public Service Motivation on Reentry Managers' Decision-Making Practices
Investigator: Marie Pryor
IRB Number: SBE-14-10261
Funding Agency: Grant Title:
Research ID: N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in IRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Kamille Chap

IRB Coordinator
Dear [Supervisor Name],

My name is Marie Pryor, you may remember me from our correspondence back in June. I am reaching out because earlier this year you were instrumental in assisting me with surveying the employees in your organization for my dissertation research. In order to strengthen the results that you helped me collect, I am looking to conduct a focus group of 5-10 individuals who completed the survey and would be willing to help interpret the results I have found.

You are being contacted because you were among the top 5 supervisors who forwarded the survey to more than 10 employees. Should you agree to allow your employees to be contacted to participate in this focus group, please email me the contacts of the individuals you sent the survey to. If enough of them have completed the survey, I would like to move forward to schedule an hour of their time to meet as a group via conference call or video chat to discuss the survey outcomes and get their feedback. They will be compensated with a $10 gift card for their time.

I would really appreciate your assistance in this final research opportunity. Please let me know if you have any questions.

Regards,

Marie Pryor

Dear [Employee Name],

Earlier this year you received an email link to my dissertation survey that you may or may not have completed. If you did take the survey, I would be really interested in including you in a focus group of individuals in your organization to discuss the survey results and get your valued feedback and interpretations. I am not able to link your name to the survey you may have submitted, but we will be discussing some of the questions in an open ended format. If you would like to participate please let me know so I can coordinate a 1 hour virtual meeting (conference call or Skype) with you and 5-10 of your colleagues. All those who participate will receive a $10 gift card for their time.

You can reply to this email to confirm that you would like to participate or if you have any questions. I look forward to being in contact with you.

Best,

Marie Pryor
Explanation of Research

Title: The Impact of Public Service Motivation on Reentry Managers’ Decision-Making Practices

Principal Investigator: Marie Pryor, M.A.

Faculty Supervisor: Naim Kapucu, PhD

You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this focus group.

Hello,

You are being invited to take part in a focus group. My name is Marie Pryor and I am a doctoral candidate conducting research for my dissertation at the University of Central Florida. You are being contacted based upon having participated in the survey earlier this year. The purpose of this focus group is to gain some insight into participant responses to help with interpreting the data and improving the study moving forward.

Your supervisor has agreed to allow their employees to volunteer to participate in this focus group. Whether you take part or not is up to you. Your participation is completely voluntary. Although I will be aware of your name during the focus group discussion, your responses will be kept confidential and given a secure code in any future reporting. Your discussion here today will also not be linked to your survey response, although you may be asked to reflect on questions that you answered in the survey.

The focus group session should take about 1 hour or less and you may discontinue at any time without penalty. The format will follow some structured questions to make sure that the group is representative of the sample that responded and allow for open discussion about the survey experience.

Compensation or payment: You will receive a $10 gift card for your participation that will be mailed to you the week of the meeting.

Audio or video taping: You will be audio taped during this study. If you do not want to be audio taped, you will not be able to be in the study. Discuss this with the researcher or a research team member. If you are audio taped, the tape will be kept in a locked, safe place. The tape will be destroyed after three years.

I appreciate you taking the time to read this and welcome any questions you may have. Research is crucial to the development of the field and improvements to a successful reentry process. I would greatly appreciate your voluntary participation in this process.

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: If you have questions, concerns, or complaints Marie Pryor, Doctoral Student, Public Administration, College of Health
and Public Affairs, 609-213-0265, email mpryor@knights.ucf.edu, or Dr. Naim Kapucu, Faculty Supervisor, School of Public Administration at 407-823-6096 or by email at kapucu@ucf.edu.

**IRB contact about your rights in the study or to report a complaint:** Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). This research has been reviewed and approved by the IRB. For information about the rights of people who take part in research, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901.
APPENDIX I. FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEWS SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
1. The study found that all of the supervisory individuals chose not to revoke Kareem. In regards to the case study, why do you think the Supervisory individuals chose not to revoke Kareem for the technical violation?

2. None of the individuals in vocational, faith-based or co-occurring chose to terminate Kareem from their programs. In regards to the case study, why do you think these individuals chose not to terminate Kareem from the program?

3. How did you perceive the decision to reprimand Kareem within your program?
   a. Did you perceive it as a second chance, or as a punitive option?

4. Did any of you feel that your organizational mission/culture influenced your decisions?
   a. Does it influence in your real job decisions, if so, how?

5. The study found a strong association between individuals who said formal training influenced their decision to revoke, but most of these individuals said that their training was mentorship or treatment focused. This contradicts itself. Therefore, in terms of how you were trained/mission of your organization, how did that influence your decision? Did mentorship, supervision, RLE, and treatment make sense? How do you interpret those questions.

6. How much discretion do you feel you have when making these types of decisions toward former prisoners?
   a. Did discretion play a role in how you responded to the case study?
   b. Did anything else play a role in how you responded to the case study?
      i. If so, what?

7. What recommendations, comments, critiques, do you have toward this particular study?
   a. What did you like about the study?
   b. What did you dislike?
APPENDIX J. AGENCY IRB APPROVAL
Dear Ms. Pryor:

I have read the research proposal and the Central Florida University IRB approval for your proposed study. As Chair of the IRB, I find there to be no risk to our staff or clients in this study and as IRB Chair approve your request to use our Community Transitions Staff as respondents for your study.

When finished I would appreciate a summary of your findings to share with our full IRB membership.

Good luck with this research. It seems to be an important research project with high potential impact on the field.

Ph.D., J.D.

Executive Director
APPENDIX K. AGENCY RRC APPROVAL
Ms. Marie Pryor
School of Public Administration
The University of Central Florida
4000 Central Florida Blvd.
Orlando, FL 32816

Dear Ms. Yates:

I am pleased to inform you that the Department’s Research Review Committee (RRC) has approved your research study titled “The Impact of Public Service Motivation on Reentry Managers’ Decision-Making Practices.” This approval gives you authorization to survey staff at the [Redacted] facility in Philadelphia, and the [Redacted] facility in Pittsburgh as discussed in your proposal.

Please note that approval of your proposal is contingent upon the following conditions:

- Participation by staff in the study is purely voluntary. If individuals choose not to participate, they cannot be required to participate and may withdraw from the study at any time.
- All research activities must be scheduled at the convenience of the facilities to minimize the disruption of normal operations.
- Participants may not receive any incentives or compensation for their participation in this study.
- The facility manager retains authority to postpone the facility’s participation in the study at any time if operationally necessary.

- Prior to proceeding with research, please sign and return the attached “Research Ethics and Policy Guidelines and Conditions.” Your signature will imply your acceptance of the terms and conditions of the Department’s Research Policy. This signed form will be maintained in our files for the duration of your project.
I wish you the best in your research. Please forward me a copy of your final report upon completion. If you have further questions, you may contact me at [redacted]

Sincerely,

[Signature]
Research and Evaluation Manager
Chair, Research Review Committee

cc: [redacted] [redacted] [redacted] File 2014-13
Research Proposal Approval

I. Proposal Information
Title: The Impact of Public Service Motivation on Reentry Managers' Decision-Making

Submitted by: Marie Pryor
Name
Address
mpryor@knights.ucf.edu
Telephone Number and E-mail Address (optional)

Date Submitted: July 15, 2014

II. Research Agreement

The individual submitting this research proposal has read and agrees to the following conditions:
- Confidentiality of subjects' identity will be maintained
- Obtain the signature of subjects on Informed Consent Form, if needed
- A copy of the results will be provided to the Human Subjects Research Review Committee
- The signature of the research advisor will be obtained if research is part of an educational requirement
- The research design is in accordance with accepted standards regarding human subjects' rights
- No compensation of any kind will be given to inmates for their participation in the research

Researcher: Marie Pryor - Doctoral Candidate
The University of Central Florida
(If Applicable)
Naim Kapucu - Professor
The University of Central Florida

III. Approval Signatures
Research Review - Operation Support Center
Date: 8/6/2014
Director/Designee
Date: 8/30/14
Managing Officer - Field Supervisor
Date: 8/30/14

DRC1827(11/11)
APPENDIX M. AGENCY APPROVAL
Re: Dissertation Research Survey

Marie,

Your survey will be distributed by the end of the day. I have relayed top management’s support to our facility directors and VP’s, and I imagine you will see decent participation before the deadline.

Let me know if there is anything else that I can provide.

Respectfully,

Managing Director of Agency Operations
APPENDIX N. AGENCY APPROVAL
RE: Dissertation Research Request-Follow up

Hello Marie,

I apologize for the delayed response. We have reviewed your proposal and will be able to partner with you for your research project. As I understand the requirements, it appears that you are looking for the contact information for a supervisor and for that supervisor to distribute your survey instrument to staff for completion. Your contact person will be [name], Client Services Division Manager. [name] can be reached by email at [email address].

[Name] should be able to answer any questions you may have. If not, please feel free to contact me directly. If I don’t hear from you beforehand, I look forward to hearing from you once you are prepared to share the results of your research.

Best of luck,

[Name]

Director of Development
RE: Doctoral Candidate Inquiry-PSM

Perry, James L. <perry@indiana.edu>

Sat 10/11/2014 6:05 AM
Inbox
To: 'mpyror' <mpyror@knights.ucf.edu>;
Cc: Naim Kapucu <kapucu@ucf.edu>;

2 attachments
Public Service Motivation Scoring Key.doc; PSM Scale.doc;

Marie,

The scoring key I developed is attached. Kevin may have modified my key for his research. As you may be aware, other scholars have used my items in many ways. This is not something I control. You may also need to exercise some judgment based on what is justifiable in your research.

I hope this helps.

Jim

James L. Perry
Editor in Chief, Public Administration Review
PAR Wiley Online Library: http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/journal/10.1111/(ISSN)1540-6210
PAR 75th Anniversary Website: http://publicadministrationreview.org

Distinguished Professor Emeritus
Chancellor’s Professor of Public and Environmental Affairs Emeritus
Indiana University, Bloomington
School of Public and Environmental Affairs

and

Visiting Distinguished Scholar
Faculty of Social Sciences
The University of Hong Kong
RE: Dissertation Inquiry- Permission to use survey questions

Jones, Mark <JONESG@ecu.edu>

Mon 6/9/2014 9:11 PM
Inbox

To: Kerbs, John <KERBSJ@ecu.edu>; mpryor <mpryor@knights.ucf.edu>

Ms. Pryor,

I echo what Dr. Kerbs stated and in all honesty it has been quite a while so I am a little rusty on what we did. I would reemphasize that this paper was originally published in the *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice* and that Federal Probation merely reprinted it. It is okay with me if you use these questions. Good luck.

Mark Jones, Ph.D.
Professor
East Carolina University
Dept. of Criminal Justice
239 Rivers Bldg.
Greenville, NC 27858
252-328-4190 phone
252-737-1769 fax

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**From:** Kerbs, John  
**Sent:** Monday, June 09, 2014 3:36 PM  
**To:** mp Pryor; Jones, Mark  
**Subject:** RE: Dissertation Inquiry- Permission to use survey questions

Hi Ms. Pryor,

The survey was developed by Dr. Jones, and so I will refer your request to reproduce questions to him.

In terms of your analytic questions, here’s how we handled the dependent variables in the article published in the *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*. In short, for each scenario, the surveyed officers indicated whether they supported verbal/written reprimands (coded 1 originally), other administrative sanctions (coded 2 originally), or an arrest warrant or formal hearing for formal sanctions (coded 3 originally). Because of skewed distributions, all questions were recoded as either administrative interventions (coded as 0) or formal hearings (coded as 1) for the logistic regression analyses that examined dichotomous outcomes. Hence, we did not run ordinal or multinomial logistic regression models. Please see the original manuscript as published in the *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice* for more details regarding Table 2 and the analytic method and coding issues that we addressed in this analysis. As I recall, we also dichotomized (in a similar manner) the outcomes in Figure 2 of the *Federal Probation* article.

In closing, I hope this helps! Good luck with your research!

All the best,

Dr. Kerbs
APPENDIX P. INTERVIEW RESPONSE MATRIX
<p>| 001- County Probation Officer; County probation department | 1. Why do you think the SP individuals chose not to revoke Kareem for the technical violation? | it could have been based on his positive progress thus far; because time and length of supervision is a factor when determining what sanctions someone has earned. | N/A | I would say second chance | Yes. My organization and my culture and, um, the client; everything, everything influences so there is no way to separate the client’s outside influences, [gave personal work background] And throughout all of that, you know the same themes, the same themes kind of prevails in that there’s so many levels of things and people that you would be remiss in your duties to overlook those, not to consider it. | I have quite a bit of discretion; b. So, my training and my experience but also what resources I have. | N/A |
| | 2. Why do you think the FB, VC, &amp; CO individuals chose not to terminate Kareem from the program? | | | | | |
| | 3. How did you perceive the decision to reprimand Kareem? 2nd chance or punitive | | | | | |
| | 4. Did you feel that your organizational mission/culture influenced your decisions? | | | | | |
| | 5. Those who said yes training influenced my decision and my training was mentorship/treatment focused chose to revoke. Why? | | | | | |
| | 6. How much discretion do you feel you have when making these types of decisions b. What else influences? | | | | | |
| | 7. What recommendations, comment, critiques, do you have? | | | | | |
| 002- Director of Women’s Programming and Case Manager Supervisor; Non-profit Community Reentry Center | they don’t want to violate for something that’s, so simple; it’s a lot of paperwork to violate them; try and give them a second chance | giving him an opportunity to correct behavior; a lack of resources [offenders] haven’t had in the institution | Yes, [punitive] | Absolutely. Yea, it was definitely a culture of second chance; foster accountability | My training background is in social work; values system and the code of ethics; I am not sure what happened there, um, I thought the questions were clear. | I feel like I did have discretion to a point; our agency we didn’t have a policy at all about how to go about this it was just more of an environment; b. formerly incarcerated as the CEO; unique | N/A |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
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<tr>
<td>003- Admin Role also Mentoring/ Employment Readiness; Non-profit Community Reentry Center</td>
<td>as long as he showed effort; I don’t think meeting employment is really a good goal to judge someone’s revocation by.</td>
<td>people in the social services are [inaud] to see themselves as there to kind of help,</td>
<td>Kind of both; accountabili ty measure. [pick one] rehabilitative e, definitely not punitive.</td>
<td>I would not personally have a punitive approach whether I was trained on punitive approaches or not; people want to believe that they you know make decisions based on the way they were trained</td>
<td>we have a lot of discretion; our training and hiring includes kind of screening for the same sort of ethics that we believe in here; b. no, not that I can think of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>004- Probation Officer; Municipal Court</td>
<td>probably because the probation departments have policies and procedures that dictate their response</td>
<td>human service provider, there’s no point at which you deny services; they don’t ever want to be seen as turning somebody away</td>
<td>I think a punitive option; Anything that affects somebody negatively, or even takes away a reward would be, I would consider punitive.</td>
<td>You know, probably not; doing it based on what I believe should happen; EBP and I try to follow them; our dept doesn’t have a lot of specific mandates anyway</td>
<td>I feel like I have almost total discretion; [for others] I think it varies a lot; Chief came in, I came in just right after her and she and I have very similar styles and perspectives b. can’t think of anything</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>005- Court Programs</td>
<td>identify the totality of why a Try to promote understanding;</td>
<td>I think that’s definitely Yeah, no doubt about it; before</td>
<td>you can train someone as much as you want</td>
<td>Personally I feel a lot; I feel like I</td>
<td>it looked like a good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Manager; Non-profit community restorative justice org.  

decision is made; we have a responsibility to take everything into consideration; if you make the decision just to violate somebody on a black and white matter and it may not be the best going forward long term.  

that’s perhaps an unfair standard to hold someone to from the start; to expect [new client] to, be speaking like someone who’s 100% accountable, that I think would be unrealistic.  

probably even a third chance; I wouldn’t say it’s punitive, punitive to me would mean they’re going back to court and they have to face in front of a judge, and possibly sentenced at that time.  

I worked here, it was to me pretty simple, you commit a crime and be accountable to what the consequences are; And since working there I know that [learning from mistakes] part is just as more, if not more important than someone going to jail or just paying a fine.  

;but in the end we are humans and I think emotions eventually play a huge influence as to how we move forward.  

I really felt like it did; I feel like our mission here at [agency name omitted] definitely played a role in how I answered the questions.  

I feel like I have a lot more discretion for people who are at lower risk than for people who are at higher risk; [high risk] pose a higher risk in the community, so you kind of have to go by the book;  

but in the end we are humans and I think emotions eventually play a role in what we do and do not do; I’d be lying if I said that at some point in time while working here, I didn’t let my personal emotions on what a client was or wasn’t doing play a role in whether I, you know, was a little, I guess how I put it more lenient or whether I just said “no you’re done, you’re going back to court..  

we have quite a bit of discretion.  

b. I think timing certainly does. When something happens I think, plays a huge influence as to how we move forward.  

I felt Kareem was low to medium-risk client  

006- Reentry & Family Services Case Manager; Non-profit community restorative justice org.  

they have the technical knowledge of “this is when you should violate” and “this is when you should not,”; they’re more empathetic; they have a little bit of more leniency toward the individual with regard to their violation  

you want to give them the option to kind learn from that mistake; giving second chances because you want them to be able to reach their goals.  

I looked at it as giving him a second chance because he could have been terminated; a loss of privileges, isn’t as severe as what it could have to be able to revoke is like it’s a principle or it’s a policy that’s set in stone, like “if you do this then your probation has to be revoked.”; So I think it’s kind of the letter of the law versus the spirit of the law type of thing  

I feel like I have a lot more discretion for people who are at lower risk than for people who are at higher risk; [high risk] pose a higher risk in the community, so you kind of have to go by the book;  

I think timing certainly does. When something happens I think, plays a huge influence as to how we move forward.  

I looked at it as giving him a second chance because he could have been terminated; a loss of privileges, isn’t as severe as what it could have
| 007- Program Coordinator; Private Correctional Management Transitional Residential Facility | My focus, is to help them gain employment, so to send somebody back for not having a job, is, like basically I have bigger fish to fry; It would probably take upwards of ten to twelve, and me seeing them not putting forth any effort to gain employment | It would depend; [3 options] first, for our in-house stuff, Nobody else, the outside agencies don’t really see that, and it doesn’t affect them in any way, in their progression to go home or their parole or anything else like that. The other two—the community sanctions could set back their ISP a couple months, that’s about | Yes. They do. background is security law enforcement, like, lock them up kind of thing, that was the mentality I had coming to this facility, and then since I’ve been here, a lot of the trainings and things like that I’ve been able to participate in have definitely influenced me to be able to give people second chances; case by case. There are some people that on their first chance yea I would revoke them on certain situations. | For the most part I have as much discretion as I need to make the decisions. I mean there are sometimes some political interests that are involved, like if I have a success rate that’s really poor; I might look for other options that basically won’t count negatively against my successful or unsuccessful rates; That’s what our contractors look at. b. community safety; The potential for community risk or an actual community risk in progress would definitely influence my decision | I thought it was very interesting, and whatever, and was happy to be a part of it |
| Lead clinician mental health assessor for jail; Privately contracted Social services organization | I think that they probably wouldn’t have revoked it because they work pretty closely with mental health, so I think that they would probably have followed that up with coordinating services to get that individual back into treatment. | Probably because we’re all treatment focused; work to make sure you’ve exhausted all options with that individual before you take the most severe course of action. | I say second chance. | I do; We are very, recovery focused; whenever we make decisions for the individuals that we serve, we always try to keep that in the forefront. | Everyone has their individual styles and spins on it; this may be the most beneficial option for them in their treatment at that time; different treatment styles, treatment modalities or things like that. | We don’t really; I work in the jail; as far as their treatment goes, I feel like we are listened to, our recommendations are always taken into account; a. have to take into account the jail’s rules and their policies, | I liked how the questions were geared specifically towards what we did, like we had the option to choose. |
| 009- Clinical supervisor for reentry services; Privately contracted Social | Revoking is, or anything that’s considered kind of punitive is very—a last resort measure. | If they’re ever reaching that particular state where they were going to be discharged, that we’re. | Definitely second chance. | I definitely agree; part of our new hire training, we’re talking about recovery focused, we’re. | A lot of time, sometimes that what is considered punitive could actually be beneficial to the consumer; even though maybe returning to jail because again they understand where we’re coming from and then from their perspective they know that they. | Nope I don’t think so |
| services organization | having conversations to prevent that from happening | talking about empowering individuals, we’re talking about integrity, so it’s definitely something that’s reinforced within our organization on a daily basis | or something like that could be kind of considered punitive and not necessarily treatment focused, it could be, in fact, turned into a treatment focused process, kind of are the enforcer, at times, of what we’re recommending, so I would say that we do have a large say into what they must complete with probation; They can’t just violate for any particular type of recourse that the individual might be encountering, so that’s again why we try to offer that treatment versus the punitive action first; a. we’re very much consumer focused; their safety first; the environment completely, dictates kind of you know what we’re able to do.
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