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## Women in prison: Do visits from children influence inmate behavior?

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WOMEN IN PRISON: DO VISITS  
FROM CHILDREN INFLUENCE  
INMATE BEHAVIOR?

by

Melissa Marie Cozad

Bachelor of Science  
Boise State University  
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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment  
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## ABSTRACT

### **Women in prison: Do visits from children influence inmate behavior?**

by

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The number of women in prison is increasing at an alarming rate in the United States today. Because nearly 75 percent of incarcerated women are mothers of minor children, the issue of maintaining family relations deserves special attention. This study examines child visitation and its relationship to female behavior inside the prison. If women who receive visits adjust more easily to prison life, prison administrators would be wise to note these benefits.

Data was collected at a private female prison in North Las Vegas, Nevada. Information on visitation and disciplinary infractions was gathered from inmate files and visitation records at the facility. Logistic regression was used to assess the impact of child visitation on inmate behavior. The results indicate that few women receive visits from their children while in prison, and visitation was not a significant predictor of inmate misconduct.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The number of incarcerated adults in both state and federal prisons in the United States has risen dramatically in recent years. A significant proportion of this increase can be attributed to the rapid growth in the number of women who are imprisoned each year. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (1997), the number of female prisoners rose by 6.2% in 1997, slightly higher than the increase of male prisoners (5.2%). At the end of 1997, there were 79,624 women in state and federal prisons, accounting for 6.4% of the total prison inmate population. On December 31, 1997, one in every 1,852 women were sentenced prisoners under the jurisdiction of state or federal correctional authorities. Analyses of imprisonment rates from 1990-1996 reveal a 65% increase in the number of female sentenced prisoners per 100,000 U.S. residents. The same analysis reveals a much lower 43% increase in the number of male sentenced prisoners. In Nevada alone, there were 695 female inmates at the end of 1997, accounting for 7.7% of all inmates in the state. These figures reflect a 16.2% increase of female prisoners in Nevada from 1996-1997. It is obvious from this data that today's prisons are being increasingly burdened by the growing numbers of women in prison.

Increases in the number of female inmates by race have been similar amongst

Whites and Blacks. Between 1985-1995, the number of White female prisoners increased 194% and the number of Black female prisoners increased by 204%. Increases by race have not been as substantial with male prisoners. Between 1985-1995 the number of White males in prison increased by 103% and the number of Black males increased 143%. Though the majority (96%) of both men and women are serving sentences of longer than one year (BJS 1997), the types of crimes they are committing are different. Nearly half of all women in prison are serving a sentence for a nonviolent offense. Women are also more likely than men to be in prison for drug and property offenses (Flanagan 1995; National Prisoner Statistics 1996). In fact, drug offenders comprised the largest source of growth among female offenders from 1990-1996. Forty-five percent of the total increase in female prisoners was attributed to drug offenses whereas 52% of the increase in male prisoners was attributed to violent offenses (BJS 1997).

There is another characteristic associated with female inmates that is alarming and deserves special attention. According to most estimates, approximately 66-75% of women in prison are mothers (Fuller 1993; BJS 1997). When women in both jails and prisons are combined, they have at least 150,000 dependent children among them (Johnston 1995). In most cases, women had custody of their children prior to incarceration. Nearly three quarters of all children of imprisoned mothers were living with their mothers before arrest (Baunach 1985; Chesney-Lind 1998). After incarceration, the majority of children are placed with relatives, most often with the maternal grandparents (Johnston 1995). However, it is estimated that as many as 12% of children are placed into foster care which poses special concerns for the imprisoned mother (Beckerman 1991). In a study of 500 incarcerated mothers by Johnston (1995),

43.8% had at least one child in foster care with unrelated care givers. Eleven percent of the children of incarcerated women will change care givers at least two times during the mother's stay in prison (Dressel, Porterfield, and Barnhill 1998). Unfortunately, in many cases there is a lack of social service support to maintain parent-child communication with those children who are placed in foster care (Johnston 1995).

In light of the rapid increase in the number of incarcerated women today, and the unique problems associated with that increase such as mother-child separation, it is imperative that policy makers, corrections officials and other agents in criminal justice take steps toward managing this disturbing social problem. While criminal laws are used to apprehend and punish women who commit crimes, this technique of social control does not end at arrest. Once women are placed in either jail or prison, they are subjected to a wide variety of institutional rules that exist as another mechanism of social control. Unfortunately for many women in prisons across the country, violations of these rules often results in the loss of certain privileges, including but not limited to, child visitation rights. For example, Nevada prisons use loss of visitation as a punishment if the rule violation occurred in conjunction with a visit. Though not all prisons are equal in terms of the services they provide or the punishments they dispense, most prisons do mention visitation somewhere in their disciplinary codes.

Apart from the effects that rule violating may have on a woman's right to visitation with her children, there is another way to analyze the relationship between rule violations and visitation. Rather than focusing on violations as a means of controlling inmate behavior, the focus instead could be directed toward the benefits of visitation and the subsequent effects visitation may have upon an inmate's adjustment and coping skills

inside the prison walls. If rates of inmate misbehavior are lowered due to the positive experience of child visitation, it would be wise for policy makers to explore this issue further. For this reason, this paper attempts to explore the area of child visitation and its relationship to inmate adjustment within the prison setting. It is my hope that this study will provide a different approach to an area of prison research that has been primarily concerned with variables other than visitation and their relationships to prisoner misconduct. This paper will proceed with an overview of child visitation and characteristics of visitation programs in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 will focus on reviewing the literature related to prisoner behavior. Chapter 4 will then explain the research methods and procedures used in this study, while Chapter 5 will present the logistic regression results. Chapter 6 will complete the paper with a discussion of the results and the main conclusions that can be derived from this study.

## CHAPTER II

### PRISON VISITATION

#### Child Visitation

Historically it has been argued that women in prison could not be good mothers. Their incarceration automatically denoted their status as unfit mothers. Fortunately through research and various legal cases, the criminal justice system has realized this myth is not always true (Faith 1993). Today visits with children are being viewed more as an integral part of rehabilitation and not simply a privilege. There are some women that do not wish to see their children for fear that the prison setting will harm their kids or because of the guilt they are feeling about their incarceration. However, the majority of women in prison want the opportunity to stay in contact with their kids (Faith 1993). Visitation allows women to have a greater sense of responsibility for their children and feel more connected to them. As Kiser (1991) discovered in his interviews with female inmates at the Dwight Correctional Center in Illinois, women felt reassured that their children were alright when they were able to spend time with them during visitation. Women in this study also stated that the greatest hardship in prison was when families failed to visit. The importance attached to visitation can not be overstated. In their

discussion of the family separation paradigm that currently applies to women in prison, Dressel et al. (1998) describe how the separation of mothers from their children can result in a decrease in parenting skills when women are released from prison and resume custody of their children. This is not to say that all mothers had excellent parenting skills prior to their incarceration, but the separation does not help the situation. Children who experience a separation from their incarcerated mothers often experience difficulties with trust, respect, and the ability to get along with others. They often resent and refuse to obey mothers who have been incarcerated, especially if they did not have sufficient contact with their mother while she was in prison (Morton and Williams 1998). Though the importance of visitation has been noted, steps are not always taken to make it easier for mothers to have visits with their children (Schafer 1991).

In a survey of 213 institutions in 45 states, Schafer (1991) found that the number of visiting hours per week had increased over the years. However, he also observed significant differences in opportunities for visitation between men and women in prisons. Twenty-four of the surveyed institutions were female institutions and only 37.5 percent of those had seven day visiting schedules as opposed to men's prisons where 60 percent offered a seven day visiting schedule. In most states there is only one female prison and it has been argued that it is not cost effective to offer visitation during weekdays and in the evenings. Cost, however, is not the only factor that should be considered. If visitation hours are too limited, women will not have many visitors; in particular, they may not see their children at all. In a study of women's jails, for example, Gray, Mays, and Stohr (1995) found that the typical inmate received two visits per month from family and/or friends. Ten percent of the inmates had eight or more visits per month, but 40

percent had no visits at all. Baunach (1985) studied women's prisons and found that only 47 percent of children visited their mothers once a month or more. The types of visits vary across prisons as well. Some prisons allow contact visits, some allow visits only through glass booths without touching, and still others allow for extended visits if the prisoner has a record of good behavior (Gray et al. 1995). Visitation rights that are contingent upon adhering to institutional rules are a common policy in many prisons operating today (Dressel et al. 1998; Morton and Williams 1998).

### Types of Visitation Programs

The State of Maryland has led the way in terms of developing programs to meet the unique needs of mothers in prison. A variety of services are offered to women to help them work on personal issues, as well as how to be a better parent. For example, Maryland offers group counseling for mothers with children in foster care (Flanagan 1995). This is important because the placement of children in foster care is often an area of distress and concern for incarcerated women. Often times the mothers do not know how their children are doing because the foster parents may be reluctant to bring the children to prison for visits (Johnston 1995).

Maryland was also the first state to develop a Girl Scouts Behind Bars program for incarcerated mothers and their daughters (Moses 1995). This program was established to offer mothers a better chance to bond with their daughters while they are in prison. Meetings are held twice a month and activities are planned that enable mothers and daughters to spend time together while learning positive behaviors under the direction of role models from the community (Flanagan 1995; Moses 1995). The Girl

Scout program was so favorable in Maryland that it has branched out into other states as well (Moses 1995). This type of approach to visitation is a step in the right direction in terms of maintaining contact between parent and child while providing children with opportunities that do not include illegal behaviors.

The Center for Women in York, Nebraska, is another program that is different from traditional visitation programs. Children over the age of one are allowed to spend the night with their mothers five nights per month. The main focus in this prison, however, is on the newborns and young infants of incarcerated women. Babies are allowed to live with their mothers in the prison until they turn a year old. Prison officials are concerned with the bonding that occurs with such young children as well as the cost effectiveness of having the children in the prison. The average cost to take care of a baby in the prison is \$11,000 for one year. Officials note that the same care, provided by an unrelated foster parent, would cost the State \$18,000. Permitting women to have their babies inside the facility is also an incentive for them to behave while they are in prison. This is yet another reason that officials in the York Center are willing to allow for this type of extended visitation program (Hewitt 1997).

A similar type of program for mothers with babies exists at the Taconic Correctional Facility in New York. Mothers are responsible for taking care of their babies while maintaining high standards of individual behavior. They must provide adequate child care and cooperate with program guidelines. If women are incarcerated on drug convictions, they must participate in drug rehabilitation as well. Another prison program that focuses on younger children is the Program for Caring Parents in Louisiana. Both mothers and grandmothers with children and grandchildren under age 13 are given

extra opportunities to visit. In particular, special events such as Easter egg hunts and Christmas extravaganzas are held to try and maintain better relations between women and young children (Sheridan 1996).

One of the most unique visitations programs is Camp Celebration at the Dwight Correctional Center in Illinois. As the name implies, the main activity involved is outdoor camping. A total of twelve mothers are allowed to have a 48 hour visit with their children each weekend for thirteen weekends during the summer. The families are issued camping equipment and are allowed to eat together, sleep together, and participate in planned activities if they wish. The prison even has farm animals for the children to play with and enjoy. The mothers are responsible for cooking, cleaning, and taking care of their children during the visit. The only problems the prison has come across have been the issues of transporting children to and from the prison, and gaining permission from caretakers to permit children to attend the camp. Although there is security staff present at the camp, their involvement is minimal. Since the beginning of the program, there have been no incidents with security checks, no major contraband smuggled in, and no disruptive behavior. It should be noted that mothers with a history of violence toward their children and/or a history of smuggling contraband are not allowed to participate in the program. Overall, the program has been very successful in giving women and their children a more relaxed setting in which to stay connected (Stumbo and Little 1991). A similar program exists at the Pocatello Women's Correctional Center in Pocatello, Idaho. The summer camp at this facility is offered to women who have gone through the institution's parenting program. These types of innovative programs often incorporate

assistance and advice received from local agencies such as churches and universities (Morton and Williams 1998).

Another example of a prison that is finding ways to help incarcerated mothers stay in contact with their children is the Purdy Treatment Center for Women near Tacoma, Washington. This facility operates under the assumption that parenthood is a responsibility, not merely a privilege, and its main goal is to provide women with chances to live up to their responsibilities as a parent. The way it goes about achieving this goal is by offering not only regular visiting hours, but also by arranging special visits if children are not able to visit during the regular hours for any reason. In a study by Baunach (1985), 31 percent of mothers at the Center had special visits with their kids. The mothers who were interviewed said that the program helped them by understanding and fostering the relationship between them and their children. Women also stated that they "watched their language" and shielded children from morally questionable behavior during visits (Baunach 1985:97). Even attitudes and behaviors of other incarcerated women softened when children were present in the prison. The only problems they noted with visitation were the distance their children had to travel to visit and the lack of available transportation to get them to the prison. An alternative to prison visitation that is being tried in 17 states deals with the problems of mothers and children in a less punitive setting. Community facilities that can accommodate children are being used in place of the prison, or as transition centers for those women leaving prison. This approach allows for a greater focus on rehabilitation, better mother-child relations, and a reduction in the number of minor offenders currently overcrowding women's prisons (Morton and Williams 1998).

## Barriers to Visitation

There are several issues that can prevent child visitation from occurring in prison. One of the most commonly cited problems is the fact that there is usually only one women's prison in each state and it is often located in a remote area inaccessible by public transportation. This has the greatest impact on low income families who cannot afford to travel long distances for visits (Fuller 1993). Although state social service and correctional agencies are obliged to cooperate in providing for parent-child visits when children are in foster care, if the travel distance is greater than fifty miles, foster care agencies do not readily reimburse parents for their expenses. This often results in a decrease, if not the extinction, of the number of visits (Beckerman 1991). Even if a trip can be financed by the family, adults may hesitate to take children on long trips to the prison (Fuller 1993). Care givers and child welfare workers are often reluctant to bring children into the prison setting at all which presents yet another problem for mothers wanting to see their kids (Beckerman 1991).

In some cases it is not the foster parents that present an obstacle to visitation, but another agency such as the courts. As a result of child custody disputes between two natural parents, judges may rule against visitation in the prison. Opposition to parent-child contact by care givers is also common if the care givers happen to be former spouses or partners of incarcerated mothers (Johnston 1995). The duration of the mother's sentence can be another factor in the amount of visitation that occurs. In general, the longer the sentence, the less often visits take place (Beckerman 1991). This is particularly disturbing given the fact that the majority of women in prison today are serving sentences longer than one year (BJS 1997). Another reason for reductions in the

number of visits with children involves the way a woman behaves within the prison. If she has broken any of the rules as applied to visitation or other institutional policies, she may be denied visits altogether or may be punished by having to "visit" her children through glass and phones with no physical contact (Faith 1993:210; Dressel et al. 1998).

There are issues associated with the prison itself that may pose barriers to visitation with children. Gaining access to visit an inmate may present a problem due to the abundance of rules and regulations associated with entrance to the prison (Fuller 1993; Schafer 1989). Schafer (1989) conducted a survey of state-operated long-term adult facilities within the United States. Forty-six of the states were represented in the survey and the responses resulted in the identification of five basic areas of visitation rules. One of the areas was labeled "becoming a visitor" and included rules governing who may visit and how a visitor gains prior approval for visiting (Schafer 1989:27). One of the consistent findings within this grouping of rules was the specification that children be accompanied by an adult.

A second area of rules for visitation was "visitor processing." This included rules about what constitutes proper identification, how one gains admittance to the visiting room, rules on searches, and what goods and materials may be left for the inmate (Schafer 1989:27). A third area of rules covered "contraband rules." Every set of rules that was received in the survey dealt with contraband. Most defined contraband and referred to legal penalties if the rules were broken. They also included listings of items that were permitted in the visiting room. All prisons are obligated to take necessary precautions against illegal items being brought into the prison setting.

The fourth grouping of visitation rules refers to "rules of conduct" for visitors. This included such items as grounds for denial of the visit and grounds for visit termination. These rules were shown to be similar across institutions. The most frequently mentioned rule regarded the control or management of children in the visiting room. Physical contact was another issue that fell under this category of rules. Prison officials seemed to be concerned with any contact an inmate might have with his or her visitors (Schafer 1989:28). The final category of rules was "dress codes" for visitors. The appropriate attire for the visiting area was explicitly outlined in most prison policies (Schafer 1989:29). Good judgment, discretion, and not wearing clothing similar to prison uniforms were all mentioned in prison responses. Maintaining a level of uniformity is important when it comes to the operation of an institution such as a prison. Although rules are required in that setting, Schafer (1989) and others have cited the need for notification of rules prior to the actual visit and sensitivity to visitors upon arrival at the prison. Making the visit a pleasant experience will not only encourage the visitor to visit again, possibly making the inmate more cooperative, but it will also enable prisoners to maintain their outside relationships which results in a smoother transition back into society.

Another common problem with visitation programs is the result of budget limitations. Unfortunately, visitation programs are not always considered a financial priority, thus reductions in the number of visiting hours or days per week may be required within the facility (Fuller 1993). Even if a prison offers 6-9 hours of visitation per day on the weekends, several facilities break the day's schedule into 2-3 hour time blocks, which means that even though the visiting room is open for 6-9 hours per day, the visitor may

stay for only 2-3 hours (Schafer 1991). The poor condition of visiting rooms has also been noted as a frequent problem in many prisons across the country (Fuller 1993). Fortunately, there are programs such as Mothers and Their Children (MATCH) that focus on improving visiting procedures, development of children's centers for increased interaction between mothers and children, and implementation of education and support services. MATCH was started by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency in 1978 and has been replicated in 11 states (Morton and Williams 1998). If the benefits of visitation are going to be maximized, all of these previously mentioned problem areas must be addressed by prison officials and social service agencies.

#### Visitors to Women's Prisons

To gain a clearer picture of who actually visits women in prison, Fuller (1993) conducted a study of three women's prisons in California. She interviewed visitors to find out their relationship to the inmates and also to explore the kinds of problems, if any, they encountered before or during their visit to the prison. She found that the majority of visitors were White females and 58 percent of all visitors (n=99) were related to the inmate. It is interesting to note that 15 percent of the visitors were foster parents of the prisoner's children. This contradicts the notion that few, if any, foster parents allow for visits with natural parents in prison. Thirty-two percent of the sample brought a total of 52 children with them to the prison. The ages of the visiting children ranged from under 3 years old to 18 years of age. Of those 52 children, 74 percent had come to visit their mother who was incarcerated. Sixty-one percent of the children came to see their mothers two or more times per month and 57 percent were visiting their mothers who had

been in prison for less than one year. In this survey, as in previous surveys, children were more likely to visit their mothers within the first year of incarceration rather than later on in their prison term (Baunach 1985).

The problems that visitors encountered are the same as those mentioned in most discussions of visitation in women's prisons. Visitors stated that issues such as cost of traveling to the prison, available transportation, distance to the prison, prison issues such as rules and regulations, and child care for their own children were all factors in the number of visits they could make to the prison. The range of distance traveled to the prison was less than fifty miles by 47 percent of visitors to over 1,000 miles by 3 percent of visitors. Once again, location of the prison is often the determining factor in a person's choice to visit an inmate (Fuller 1993). As Borgman (1985) suggested in his study of visitation in a juvenile facility, one of the most viable solutions to increasing visitation from families would be transportation assistance to the prison. Community groups that are interested in rehabilitation and reducing future crime could help reach those goals by becoming involved with assisting families who want to visit but are not financially able to visit.

## CHAPTER III

### PRISON SOCIAL CONTROL

#### Prison Rules

Prison rules are an integral part of the structure that regiments prison life. Tight regulation, and stiff enforcement, are necessary to control a population that has demonstrated an inability or unwillingness to conform. Indeed, the custody and control of inmates are the primary objectives of prison management and the enforcement of institutional rules is an essential tool for maintaining order (Poole and Regoli 1980). Within the prison, rules are used not only to protect persons from each other (similar to the way criminal law protects citizens outside of prison), but also to ensure the status of the prison as an institution built upon the principles of discipline and punishment (Lovell and Jemelka 1996). In other words, one of the objectives of prison discipline is to encourage inmates to conform to rules that benefit the system rather than the inmate (Toch 1988).

The threat and use of infractions are the primary means of social control in prisons (Lovell and Jemelka 1996). According to Clemmer (1958:150), “social controls are supposed to have a utility, a utility which keeps people in line.” Without the existence of

rules and discipline policies, people working within the prison system would have limited recourse to take with inmates who choose to behave in ways that are inconsistent with the intended goals of the prison. These goals, or missions, vary from prison to prison depending upon treatment philosophy and economic self-sufficiency (Lindquist 1980). In prisons where the primary missions are treatment and rehabilitation of inmates, fewer formal rules may exist and punishments for breaking those rules may be more lenient than in prisons where the primary mission is custodial. Whether the mission is treatment or custodial, prison rules also serve to protect inmates from unfair treatment by prison staff. Without this type of protection, inmates could be reprimanded with random punishments for behaviors that a staff member considers undesirable (Lovell and Jemelka 1996). In terms of economics, a prison that does not depend upon state assistance (such as those run by private corporations) may be inclined to enforce rules more vigorously than those who must expend their often scarce resources to conduct numerous disciplinary hearings. In general, however, all prisons use rules to some extent in their daily operations.

Although rules are meant to be used as a form of social control, research shows rule-breaking has historically been used to justify guard violence. For example, in 1986, James Marquart posed as a prison guard in a male prison within the Texas Department of Corrections and discovered that disobeying rules often resulted in the physical abuse of inmates. In fact, beatings were usually followed by disciplinary report writing sessions rather than writing sessions preceding disciplinary hearings and possible punishments. According to Marquart, "the use of unofficial force was so common in the institution under study that the guards viewed it as an everyday operating procedure and legitimized

its use" (Marquart 1986:355). Rather than using rules as a means of social control, the guards at this particular institution regarded physical force as an important means to achieving tight disciplinary control. For them, coercion was a legitimate mechanism of social control (Marquart 1986:357). The main reason cited for the extensive violence in this institution was the lack of strong organizational controls like those used to govern police departments. Whatever the reason, it is clear that formal mechanisms of social control are not immune from being abused by those in power.

Farmer (1988) tells a similar tale of abuse of power by prison guards, at Walpole State Prison in Massachusetts during the early 1980s. Not only were guards physically abusive toward inmates who misbehaved, but inmates also were violent toward other inmates and staff alike. Though numerous areas were explored to uncover the cause of this pattern of violence, a key finding pointed to the conflict between the two main prison goals, custody and treatment. In many institutions, these two goals are viewed as contrasting realms of a prison, rather than as complementary components. At Walpole, the key to reducing interpersonal aggression was the implementation of a unit management approach. In their approach, daily operations of the prison were reviewed by monitors outside the prison and solutions were offered to the prisons administration. Once order was restored in the prison, and policy changes were implemented, the prison ran much more smoothly and without the constant threat of physical violence.

In today's prisons, physical violence by prison officials in response to disciplinary infractions is no longer tolerated, unless the situation requires inmate restraint. Sanctioned punishments include the threat of loss of privileges, such as visitation rights, good time, and administrative or solitary confinement, the latter reserved for more serious

infractions (Pollock-Byrne 1990). Even though punishments may be used when certain prison rules are broken, some administrators have suggested that the use of prison rules is over-emphasized by prison researchers and the media. Inmates act in compliance with prison policies not only because of rules that exist, but also because of the technology of confinement (the existence of gates, control booths, and locks). Administrators have also noted the positive effects of being proactive with inmates rather than reactive. Behaving while in prison may also be due in part because of a shared interest in maintaining an orderly and predictable environment in which to live (Lovell and Jemelka 1996).

Disciplinary infractions in prison can be classified in various ways. One of the most common ways is to separate them into two categories, major and minor infractions. In Washington State prisons, for example, guards are not required to write citations for minor infractions and can instead simply counsel, warn, or correct the inmate. Minor infractions at those facilities include such acts as theft of food, horseplay, lying, and using abusive language. Major infractions there include homicide, assault, and fighting, and result in such punishments as segregation or loss of good time credit (Lovell and Jemelka 1996).

Distinguishing between violent and nonviolent infractions is another way to categorize types of infractions in prison. The primary focus in most institutions is usually on violent infractions, since they are likely to result in personal harm and disrupt the prison more than nonviolent offenses. Prisoners also have a harder time concealing violence against others. Because of the high visibility of violent infractions, guards have less discretion in whether to cite the perpetrator (Ruback and Carr 1993).

Prison rule violations can also be classified into different levels, similar to the system used within the Texas Department of Corrections (TDC). The TDC uses three levels: 1) *level 1*-serious offenses such as escape and fighting with a weapon, 2) *level 2*-moderately serious offenses such as stealing and fighting without a weapon, and 3) *level 3*-minor violations such as soliciting money or gifts from an officer or another inmate and self mutilation (Tischler and Marquart 1989). Several studies have examined individual rule violations within these three levels. When this occurs, numerous offenses are listed such as profane gestures, drugs/alcohol, order-related, sexual offense, lying to staff, and possession of contraband (Craddock 1996; Lundquist 1980). Because rule violations are classified in several different ways throughout prisons in the United States, researchers must use caution when making generalizations about inmate misconduct

The enforcement of prison rules does not solely depend upon whether an inmate commits a rule violation. There are other factors that affect whether or not an inmate is reprimanded. One of those factors involves individual characteristics of the inmate. In his study of the TDC, Marquart (1986) found that minorities were physically reprimanded more often than non-minorities, a pattern suggesting racial bias. In their study of Georgia state prisons, Ruback and Carr (1993) also uncovered bias toward minority inmates.

Poole and Regoli (1980) looked at the issue of race and decision-making more closely and concluded that “perceptions of inmate behavior based on racial stereotypes may foster a more oppressive disciplinary posture among guards in their response to blacks” (Poole and Regoli 1980:933). As studies have shown in nearly every other phase of the criminal justice process, there appears to be an issue of discrimination within the

prison setting as well. Another individual characteristic that Marquart (1986) observed during his study was the inmate's attitude toward the guards. If the inmate was more complacent and submissive, the guards tended to be less violent towards him. Once an inmate misbehaves there is also a process of labeling that occurs and guards begin to view the prisoner as a troublemaker, thus increasing the attention paid to that inmate. With greater surveillance, the likelihood of detecting further misbehavior is increased.

Although prison guards are expected to issue citations for rule violations, they sometimes have a degree of discretion when it comes to deciding whether to report an incident formally or informally. Consequently, it has been said that infraction records may reflect as much about individual guards as they do about the inmates being reported (Ruback and Carr 1993; Light 1990). As previously mentioned, this decision may have more to do with other factors than the infraction itself. In Marquart's (1986) study, for example, factors associated with increased use of violence against inmates included race of the guard (Whites were more likely to be violent) and age of the prison guard (younger guards were more likely to abuse their power). Another problem with guard discretion involves whether an incident was inmate-initiated or guard-initiated. Often times guards provoke inmates in order to get a reaction so that punishment can be justified (Light 1990; Marquart 1986). Because of the power imbalance within the prison setting, the guard's version of what happened is usually the version that carries the most weight in the prison system. In a study done by Hewitt, Poole and Regoli (1984), the determining factor in a guard's decision to process an infraction formally was the type of infraction. Violence against and disobedience toward guards are both incidents which usually result

in a formal report. For this reason, it is easy to see how infraction rates can be misleading.

Apart from inmates and guards, the prison system itself may have certain characteristics which result in infraction rates that are not representative of the order that actually exists within the prison. One of these characteristics is discretion of the prison administration or management personnel. Even if a guard chooses to file a report about misbehavior, it is up to his or her supervisor to ensure that the report makes it into the hands of the disciplinary hearing officer to be considered for punishment. If the supervisor dismisses the case, there is nothing the individual guard can do (Light 1990).

Overcrowding in prisons is a problem that is currently receiving a great deal of attention by policy makers, corrections officials, and the media. Its effects are variously manifested, one of which is higher behavioral infraction rates. In a study of 25 Georgia state prisons, Ruback and Carr (1993) found that changes in density effect infraction rates: as the density increases, infraction rates increase. The researchers offered the following two possible explanations of this phenomena: 1) as density increases, inmates may lose some of their privileges or living space within the prison resulting in resentment toward newer inmates as well as staff, and 2) with an increase in the prison population, there may be a tightening of rule enforcement as guards attempt to maintain order. Overcrowding is yet another reason why, in certain prisons, infraction rates may be magnified.

Other prison characteristics which may skew official infraction rates include policy alteration and jurisdictional differences. Within a prison, policies change with changes in administrative personnel. What once constituted an infraction may no longer be valid if written policies and procedures are altered. This needs to be considered when

research is done using official records. In terms of differences across jurisdictions, it is difficult to compare prisons across different states, and even different areas within states. Each jurisdiction has its own policies and are usually inconsistent across time and place. For all of the above reasons, research on infraction rates must be carefully analyzed as well as interpreted.

### Adjusting to Prison

The adjustments inmates must make when they enter prison are considerable. Not only are they leaving society and their way of life, but they are also entering a new system where the rules and norms are very different from those of free society. As Clemmer described, the process of prisonization occurs which involves the “taking on, in greater or lesser degree, of the folkways, mores, customs and general culture of the penitentiary” (Clemmer 1958:299). Prisonization was further defined by Wheeler (1961) in his study of inmate’s conformity to staff expectations, as measured through questions pertaining to conflict situations inside the prison. Wheeler found a relationship between time served and conformity to staff norms. His results formed a U-shaped distribution of high conformity responses. In the beginning of their sentence (less than 6 months served), inmates tend to conform most often. In the middle phase, they are least likely to conform, and in the late phase (less than 6 months left to serve), they tend to conform again as they approach release from prison. Wheeler refers to this pre-release pattern as support for Clemmer’s concept of prisonization (Wheeler 1961).

Thomas (1977) also found empirical support for the concept of prisonization in his study of young adult offenders. He discovered that pre-prison influences such as level

of education, prior employment, and number of felony arrests were less important in explaining inmate adjustment than prison specific variables, such as time served and opposition to the prison organization. In other words, there is something intrinsic to living in prison that can account for the behaviors displayed inside of the prison.

Toch (1989) found similar results to Wheeler (1961) in terms of when prisonization occurs. In particular, he found that the greatest number of disciplinary infractions occurred somewhere between the first 6-9 months of incarceration. He notes that this appears to be the time period when inmates are most removed from community influences. This could be due to inmates adjusting to and adopting prison norms and rules, or it may be due in part to a lack of ties with family and friends outside of the prison. Sappington (1996) suggests that cognitive coping strategies, obtained prior to entering the prison, tend to effect the way inmates behave in prison. Prisoners who tend to blame others, dwell on problems, or blame themselves generally have greater difficulty adjusting to prison life.

Since inmates commit fewer infractions with time served, Sorensen and Wrinkle (1996) argue that death-sentenced and life without parole inmates should not be segregated from general population inmates. In their study of long-term inmates, they found no significant differences in terms of rule violating between lifers and inmates with the possibility of parole. The idea that the possibility of parole is a deterrent to misbehaving in prison was discredited in their study.

## Women's Behavior in Prison

Traditionally prison research has been conducted in male prisons across the country. The few studies that have looked at women's behavior in prison usually compare women to men. As Faith (1993) notes, female institutions themselves receive less attention than male institutions because there are fewer women in prison and their offenses are of a relatively minor nature compared to men's offenses. It has been suggested that women receive preferential treatment in the criminal justice system as the result of paternalism. Under a form of "institutional chivalry," male guards overlook misbehavior in order to reinforce passivity and submissiveness in the female prisoners (Hewitt, Poole, and Regoli 1984). However, this hypothesis has not been supported by research.

Hewitt et al. (1984) compared self-reported and observed rule-breaking in a Texas co-ed minimum security prison to see if there were any differences in the ways prisoners perceive their actions and the way the prison perceives their actions. They also wanted to see how the number of violations compared between the sexes. For both sexes they found that there were less written rule violations than actual observed violations. This indicates that guards do not file official reports on all violations that they observe, regardless of the sex of the inmate. The number of violations reported by inmates was close to the number observed by the guards. It is surprising that inmates would readily admit to having broken prison rules. There were no significant sex differences for any infraction in terms of prevalence or incidence rates. Women and men were breaking the same rules at about the same rate. The researchers concluded that the type of infraction is

a more important factor in the guard's decision to file a disciplinary report than is the sex of the inmate.

Tischler and Marquart (1989) also conducted a study to compare rule-breaking among women and men in prison. They compared two women's prisons with two men's prisons in Texas over a four year period. The prisons were matched on both unit size and security classification. Data were analyzed from official reports of rule violations brought to disciplinary hearings. There were 45 possible rule violations that could be committed by inmates. These violations were grouped into three levels: 1) most serious, 2) serious, and 3) least serious. For all inmates, failure to obey an order was the most frequent offense. The results showed no significant differences in the number of infractions between minimum level inmates, regardless of sex. The maximum security female inmates had a significantly higher number of reported infractions compared to maximum security male inmates. Both men and women were equally likely to be reported for vulgar language; however, women created a disturbance significantly more often than men did. Women were also more likely to be out of their assigned location and in possession of contraband than men were. Physical altercations between inmates were also more common for women than men. However, men were more frequently written up for level 1 infractions which are the most serious offenses. These include such behaviors as: 1) escape or attempted escape, 2) sexual abuse, 3) rioting, and 4) fighting with a weapon. The differences between men and women in terms of level 1 infractions were not significant, though. These results seem to dispel the myth of the "submissive female".

Rather than just comparing the number of infractions that men and women commit at a particular point in time, Craddock (1996) examined how individual characteristics were related to rule violations and misconduct careers in both men and women in prison. Her sample consisted of a cohort of male and female felons in North Carolina from to five years later or until the inmate's sentence expired, whichever came first. Overall, 50 percent of the men committed rule violations and 33 percent of the women had broken rules. Rule-breakers were several years younger at the time of admission than non rule-breakers. Both male and female violators also had significantly longer average sentence lengths. The most common category of the initial rule violation for both sexes was order-related (i.e. disobeying a prison official).

Women who began their misconduct career soon after incarceration were generally younger, serving longer sentences, had previous incarceration experience, were either probation or parole violators, and had committed public order crimes. Once these women committed a violation, subsequent violations happened more quickly. This pattern could be due to the increased surveillance of the rule violator's behavior. This pattern was common with male inmates as well. A large proportion of women (twice the number of men) had attempted or completed escape as their first infraction in prison. At the time of the study, women were housed in less secure facilities than men, but another suggested reason for the high number of escape attempts was that women were more highly motivated than men to escape. The source of this motivation was the fact that the majority of inmates were mothers and they were trying to escape to check on their children who were often placed in foster care and were not allowed to have contact with their imprisoned mothers.

Lindquist (1980) compared mixed-custody women from the Florida Correctional Institution with a sample of minimum-custody men and found that the average female disciplinary offender committed significantly more offenses than her male counterpart. Lack of deference to authority accounts for a large proportion of the violations committed by women whereas fighting and unarmed assault accounted for a large proportion of the violations committed by men. Therefore, even though each gender is committing offenses, they differ in terms of which offenses they commit. It should also be noted that a small percentage of offenders (19%) accounted for over half of all infractions. This is consistent with the literature that states a minority of prisoners commit the majority of all infractions within prisons.

Studies that have found women committing more infractions than men present a challenge. Perhaps female institutions have more rules in general and that can explain the higher number of rule violations. There may be more rules in female institutions to compensate for the lack of physical security compared to male prisons. This lack of security is due in part to the forced existence of minimum to maximum level inmates residing in a single facility. The other reason that could explain a greater number of infractions in women's prisons may have to do with guard behavior in those institutions. It could be that female guards have a greater tendency to write up relatively minor incidents than male guards. Female inmates may also be more apt to disregard the authority of a female guard. Yet another explanation for the discrepancy between men and women could be that men's rule-breaking is more concealed and not subject to discovery by prison officials. Activities such as assaults, drug dealing, and the black market are not as easily detected as blatant disregard for authority. Even if women are

committing more minor infractions than men, they are less likely to engage in such serious acts as large-scale riots (Pollock-Byrne 1990), therefore, it may be incorrect to assume that a simple tally of reported infractions is an accurate portrayal of what goes on behind prison walls every day.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESEARCH METHODS AND PROCEDURES

#### Data Source and Study Sample

Permission to collect the data for this research project was granted by the Office of Sponsored Programs at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas on August 7, 1998 (OSP #383s0798-062s). The research site for this project was the Corrections Corporation of America's (CCA) Southern Nevada Women's Correctional Facility in North Las Vegas, Nevada. This medium security prison is a private prison that houses an average of 525 inmates. This facility was chosen because it is the major female facility in the state and it is conveniently located near the city of Las Vegas. The facility is relatively new, having opened in September of 1997. It houses a wide variety of inmates ranging from minor drug offenders who are serving a sentence as part of a work release program, to murderers serving life sentences. CCA also currently holds the only woman on death row in Nevada. This allowed for an interesting population of subjects from which to draw upon in this study.

The sample of 160 women was randomly selected from a list of all inmates housed in the facility during the data collection phase. Women were excluded from the

study if they had been in the prison for a period of less than three months because it takes an average of three months to gain visitor approval. It would have been unlikely that women who were incarcerated less than three months would have had any visits. The purpose of this study was to focus on visitation, so this seemed a reasonable limitation to impose on the sample.

The instrument used in this study assessed inmate demographics, criminal history, visitation histories, rule violations, and program participation (see Appendix 1 for data instrument). Most of this information was obtained through inmate files, in particular pre-sentence investigations, disciplinary reports, and visitation records. Date of admittance and current custody levels were verified by the prison intake officer through an inmate database. Worksheets were filled out on each subject and coded for use in a statistical computer program (SPSS).

### Research Hypotheses

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between inmate visitation and institutional adaptation. More specifically, this research is being conducted to assess whether the occurrence of visitation results in the absence of disciplinary infractions. Given a majority of women in prison today have children (BJS 1991; Fuller 1993), I hypothesize that women with children will receive visits and refrain from committing disciplinary infractions as opposed to fellow inmates without children. The reasons for this hypothesis are twofold: 1) as researchers in previous studies have noted (e.g. Schafer 1991), visitation is often an integral part of rehabilitation providing positive effects such as increases in morale and self-esteem, and 2) loss of visitation is

sometimes used as a punishment for inmates who violate prison rules. For both of these reasons, a link between visitation and rule violating is tenable. Women with children are especially vulnerable to both of these conditions, as child visitation is a critical issue with most female inmates, and the threat of losing those privileges should serve as a barrier to rule violating. This hypothesis also stems from the belief that prisoners who stay in touch with family and friends through visitation will be better adjusted inmates and, in turn, will be able to integrate themselves back into society more easily because they have maintained relationships beyond the prison walls.

If differences exist between women with visits, specifically women with visits from children, and women without visits, the evidence would support the hypothesis that there is something inherent in visitation that enables inmates to better cope with their period of incarceration. On the other hand, if the rates of rule violations do not significantly differ between these groups of women, the use of visitation as a means for social control may be misguided. In other words, although visitation allows for the maintenance of relationships between inmates and their families, the benefits of visitation may not extend beyond the visit itself. Misbehavior that occurs inside the institution may be more situationally dependent and less influenced by the inmate's overall attitude and adjustment, even if she has benefitted from visitation.

To test for possible effects of other factors on the commission of infractions, such as demographic characteristics and criminal history, additional variables were included in the logistic regression models. Most of the independent variables included in the analysis have been identified in previous research as significant predictors of rule violation in prison.

## Variables

### Dependent Variables.

Official disciplinary records have been criticized as an unreliable measure of rule violations. For example, Light (1990) holds little confidence in them because of such issues as unsupervised officer discretion and nonrandom procedures of catching inmates in the act of rule violating. Nonetheless, these records are the only efficient way to capture this information. The alternative method would be to use self-report questionnaires which could present other problems such as social desirability (Schutt 1999), and low response rates (Senese 1997). Consequently, I chose to examine official disciplinary reports contained in inmate files. I recorded the date of the infractions, the type of infractions, and the outcome of the disciplinary hearings for offenses that took place during the inmate's period of incarceration at CCA. Since some of the inmates had been transferred to CCA from jails or out of state prisons that have their own disciplinary guidelines, it was important to focus only on offenses that had occurred at the North Las Vegas facility.

In the final analysis, infractions were coded four separate ways. Since the focus of this study was to distinguish rule violators from non-violators, it was important to measure violations in a dichotomous manner as opposed to averaging or using the total number of infractions committed by each inmate. The main dependent variable, MEANOFF1, was a dummy variable coded (1) if the inmate had committed at least one infraction and (0) if they had not committed any infractions. Three other dependent variables, MINOR1, GENERAL3, and MAJOR3 were used to examine the inmate's most serious disciplinary infraction as categorized by the Nevada Department of Prisons.

(Appendix 2 contains a complete listing and descriptions of each infraction). MINOR1 was used to compare those inmates who had committed a minor infraction (dummy coded 1) with inmates who had not committed a minor infraction (dummy coded 0). GENERAL3 compared inmates with a general category infraction (dummy coded 1) with inmates who had not committed a general infraction (dummy coded 0). MAJOR3 compared inmates who had committed a major infraction (dummy coded 1) with inmates who had not committed a major infraction (dummy coded 0). As mentioned above, the most serious infraction was used in the analysis even if lesser infractions were recorded in the inmate's records. Because the number of individuals with only a minor level infraction was negligible (n=6), a variable labeled MINGEN was created to combine minor and general violators. MINGEN was dummy coded (1) if the inmate's most serious infraction was either a minor or a general level infraction and it was dummy coded (0) if the inmate had committed neither of the two types of infractions. Descriptive statistics and coding of the dependent variables are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Disciplinary Infractions Committed by Female Inmates (N=160)

Variable	Description	Coded	%
MEANOFF1	Individual committed one or more infractions	Yes=1	36
MINOR1	Most serious infraction committed was a minor infraction	Yes=1	4
GENERAL3	Most serious infraction committed was a general infraction	Yes=1	15
MAJOR3	Most serious infraction committed was a major infraction	Yes=1	17
MINGEN	Most serious infraction committed was a minor or general infraction	Yes=1	19

### Independent Variables.

#### Demographics

It was possible to obtain basic demographic information such as race, age, level of education, marital status, state and county of residence, and number of children from inmate records. Race was dummy coded as White (1), non-White( 0). Age was measured as the actual age of the offender at the time of the data collection phase (August, 1998) and coded in the actual years of age. Level of education was coded to represent less than High School (1), completed High School (2), and some college/completed college (3).

State and county of residence were included to see if being from Nevada and/or Clark County resulted in inmates receiving visits, and therefore refraining from committing disciplinary infractions. This result is expected due to the strong possibility that family members, particularly children, lived within visiting range of the prison. Because the location of a prison is usually a main concern with women in prison, it was important to include this variable to see if a more conveniently located prison such as CCA, has any bearing on visitation and/or inmate behavior. It should be noted that the CCA facility was built to replace the previous women's prison in Carson City, Nevada, to facilitate mother-child visitation. Both state and county were dummy coded to represent whether the inmate was from Nevada and/or Clark County (1) or not (0). The number of children an inmate has was converted into a dichotomous variable to contrast those with at least one child (1) from those without children (0). Though this information was obtained through inmate records, and is considered an accurate representation of each individual, it should be noted that pre-sentence investigation reports are constructed using inmate self-reports and are not necessarily verified by the officials who write the reports. The coding for all demographic variables, as well as the descriptive statistics, can be viewed in Table 2.

Table 2: Demographic Characteristics of Female Inmates (N=160)

Variable	Coded	%	Mean
AGE	years	n/a	35
RACE2	Non-White=0 White=1	41 59	
MARITAL	Single=1 Married=2 Divorced=3 Separated=4 Widowed=5 Not Available	34 22 23 10 3 8	
EDUC1	<High School=1 Completed H.S.=2 Any College=3	45 38 17	
NVRES1	Yes=1	93	
CLARK1	Yes=1	54	
KIDS1	Yes=1	77	

### Criminal Record

ARREST1 consisted of the number of arrests prior to the arrest leading to the most current period of incarceration. Because previous encounters with the criminal justice system may have an effect on an individual's attitude, and thus her behavior toward an institution within that system, it was necessary to separate those individuals with one or more arrests (dummy coded 1) from those individuals with no prior arrests (dummy coded 0). Prior jail and/or prison incarcerations (INCARC1) consisted of the

number of jail and/or prison sentences not including the current incarceration. In order to capture any differences that may exist between individuals who have been previously exposed to an institutional atmosphere and those who have not, this variable was dummy coded (1) for having at least one prior incarceration and coded (0) for no prior periods of incarceration.

Along with the individual criminal history, information about the current sentence was also important to record and analyze. Given that most women were incarcerated on multiple charges, including 79 different offense categories, it was necessary to simplify the charge coding. This was done by recording the individual's most serious charge into one of four categories: violent, property, drug/alcohol related, and miscellaneous. This typology is based on a classification system developed and used by the National Institute of Justice as part of its Arrestee Drug Abuse Monitoring (ADAM) project. A complete listing of this sample's charges according to each respective category is presented in Appendix 3. For purposes of analysis, current charge was dummy coded into four separate variables. VIOLENT1 was coded (1) if the offense was violent, (0) if it was not. PROP1 was coded (1) if the offense was a property offense, (0) if it was not. DRUG1 was coded (1) if the offense was drug/alcohol related and (0) if it was not. MISC1 was coded (1) if the offense belonged in the miscellaneous category and (0) if it did not.

To assess whether length of sentence had an effect on rates of infractions, MINTERM was used as a continuous variable in the analysis to represent the inmate's minimum sentence length. In order to combine sentence information for inmates serving more than one sentence (i.e. consecutive sentences), minimum sentence lengths for those individuals were averaged together. Though previous studies have looked at maximum

sentence length (e.g. Lindquist 1980) as a factor in rates of infractions, the state of Nevada does not have determinant sentencing; therefore, maximum sentence length would not provide a reliable measure of sentence length. The state does impose mandatory minimum sentences, however, making the use of minimum sentence length a viable alternative.

The final independent variable associated with criminal record is time served at CCA. This variable was included in the analysis based on findings from previous research addressing time served as it relates to institutional adjustment (e.g. Craddock 1996; Linquist 1980). Most studies looking at this variable find that inmates frequently commit infractions earlier in their prison term, and the number of infractions decreases as time is served. This variable, calculated from date of admittance to time of data collection, was labeled MO@WCC1 and converted months served in the facility into three categories. Inmates who had served 3.0-6.0 months were coded (1). Inmates who had served 6.01-9.0 months were coded (2), and inmates who had served 9.01-12.0 months were coded (3). It was not necessary to create a category for inmates who had served less than three months since they were excluded from the study. Although the institution had only been open eleven months, the separation of time served into these categories allowed for comparisons among inmates at different stages of incarceration. Codes for all criminal record variables along with descriptive statistics are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Criminal Record Information of Female Inmates (N=160)

Variable	Description	Coded	%	Mean
ARREST1	Inmate had at least 1 or more prior arrests	Yes=1	88	
CONVICT1	Inmate had at least 1 or more prior misdemeanor/felony convictions	Yes=1	77	
INCARC1	Inmate had at least 1 or more prior jail/prison sentences	Yes=1	60	
VIOLENT1	Inmate's most serious charge was for a violent offense	Yes=1	28	
PROP1	Inmate's most serious charge was for a property offense	Yes=1	35	
DRUG1	Inmate's most serious charge was for a drug or alcohol offense	Yes=1	28	
MISC1	Inmate's most serious charge was for a miscellaneous offense	Yes=1	9	
MINTERM	Inmate's minimum sentence length	months	n/a	43
CUSTODY	Inmate's custody level	1=minimum 2=medium 3=maximum	17 79 4	
MO@WCC1	Number of months served at CCA	1=3.0-6.0 2=6.01-9.0 3=9.01-12.0	23 21 56	

## Prison Programming

Since the focus of this study is on institutional adjustment, it seemed appropriate to assess whether measures of positive adjustment, such as participation in prison programs, have an effect on rule violating. CCA offers programming in four different areas: 1) substance abuse education-a program designed to help inmates recognize and recover from their addictions, 2) educational training-high school and college classes taught to obtain a GED and/or complete college credits, 3) vocational training-programs that teach the use of computers and other occupational skills, and 4) street readiness-a program designed to assist women with their eventual reintegration into society. It was only possible to record information about women who had completed a program; therefore, this variable does not contain information concerning women who may have been in the program at the time of data collection but had not yet completed the program. The four variables that were created to reflect participation in the programs were: 1) ABUSE1, 2) EDPROG1, 3) VOCPROG1, and 4) STREAD. Each of these variables was dummy coded 1 if the inmate had participated in that particular program and 0 if they had not. A variable labeled PROG1 was also created to combine the four variables and reflect participation in at least one of the programs. It was coded 1 if the inmate had participated and 0 if she had not. Descriptive statistics of the program participation variables are included in Table 4.

Table 4: Information on Female Inmate Program Participation (N=160)

Variable	Description	Coded	%
ABUSE1	Participated in substance abuse educ.	Yes=1	9
EDPROG1	Participated in educational training	Yes=1	35
VOCPROG1	Participated in vocational training	Yes=1	15
STREAD	Participated in street readiness	Yes=1	8
PROG1	Participated in at least one of the four programs	Yes=1	45

### Visitation

The main hypothesis of this study involves whether increased visitation results in lower rates of disciplinary infractions. Visitation programs vary throughout the country in terms of where the visits occur and the amount of time afforded for visitation. At the North Las Vegas facility, once individuals have been approved for visitation, they are afforded several opportunities to stay in contact with an inmate. The prison offers four-hour visitation sessions five days a week and on holidays. Although children must be supervised at all times during the visit, CCA provides a playroom setting to accommodate younger children and encourages child visits to take place. A large visitation area is located next to the playroom which allows for sufficient space and a level of privacy for inmates and their visitors. Because the facility is located in Clark

County, and 54% of the inmates are from that county, visitation should occur more at this facility than at facilities which are remotely located. As the data shows, however, this is not the case.

After retrieving demographic, criminal record, and prison programming information for each inmate in the sample, visitation records were cross-referenced and a tally of visits was recorded. CCA keeps a log of each approved visitor, their relationship to the inmate, and the dates of each visit, so it was possible to separate child visits from other visits. All visits that occurred between September 15, 1997 and August 19, 1998 were included in the tally.

Rather than focusing on the average or total number of visits, I chose to compare inmates who received visits with those who did not, making this independent variable dichotomous in nature. In order to separate child visits from other visits, two variables were created. KIDVIS1 was dummy coded 1 if the inmate had received at least one visit from her child(ren) and was dummy coded 0 if she had received no child visits. Another variable, OTHERVIS, was used to classify visits from people other than the inmate's child(ren). It was coded 1 if the inmate had received at least one visit from someone other than their child and 0 if the inmate had not received a visit from someone besides their child(ren). The final visitation variable, VISITS1, represented all visits combined and was coded 1 if the inmate had received at least one visit from anyone, and coded 0 if she had not received at least one visit during her period of incarceration. Coding of these variables and descriptive statistics are included in Table 5.

Table 5: Visitation Information for Female Inmates (N=160)

Variable	Description	Coded	%
KIDVIS1	Inmate had at least one visit from her child(ren)	Yes=1	16
OTHERVIS	Inmate had at least one visit from someone other than her child(ren)	Yes=1	40
VISITS1	Inmate had at least one visit from anyone	Yes=1	43

## CHAPTER V

### RESULTS

#### Bivariate Analysis

With the exceptions of age and minimum sentence length, all of the variables in this study were coded in a dichotomous manner. For that reason, Chi square was used to assess bivariate relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variables. If significant relationships are found between any of the independent variables (excluding age and minimum sentence length), and measures of infractions, the null hypothesis of statistical independence can be rejected. For instance, in Table 6, Chi Square results show that rule violations of any level of severity (MEANOFF1), are significantly related to months served at CCA (MO@WCC1). Only 13.5% of women incarcerated for 3.0-6.0 months had committed at least one infraction. This increased to 60.6% for women with 6.01-9.0 months served at the facility, and subsequently declined to 35.6% for women who had served 9.01-12.0 months. Tables 7 and 8 resulted in similar relationships between time served and the dependent variables MINGEN and MAJOR3. None of the other categorical independent variables were significantly related to the dependent variables.

Table 6: Bivariate Relationships Between Rule Violating (All Types of Infractions) and Predictor Variables (N=160)

Predictor Variable	No Infractions	One or More Infractions	$\chi^2$
RACE2			
Non-White	68.4%	31.6%	1.871
White	57.8%	42.2%	
EDUC1			
<H.S.	58.3%	41.7%	1.970
H.S.	68.3%	31.7%	
College	70.4%	29.6%	
CLARK1			
Yes	65.5%	34.5%	.052
No	63.8%	36.2%	
KIDS1			
Yes	65.8%	34.2%	.403
No	60%	40%	
ARREST1			
Yes	64.5%	35.5%	.000
No	64.7%	35.3%	
INCARC1			
Yes	63.2%	36.8%	.204
No	66.7%	33.3%	
VIOLENT1			
Yes	63.6%	36.4%	.014
No	64.7%	35.3%	
PROP1			
Yes	62.5%	37.5%	.132
No	65.4%	34.6%	
DRUG1			
Yes	72.7%	27.3%	1.846
No	61.2%	38.8%	

Table 6: Continued

Predictor Variable	No Infractions	One or More Infractions	$\chi^2$
MISC1			
Yes	50%	50%	1.602
No	66%	34%	
MO@WCC1			
3.0-6.0	86.5%	13.5%	16.87**
6.01-9.0	39.4%	60.6%	
9.01-12.0	64.4%	35.6%	
PROG1			
Yes	65.3%	34.7%	.047
No	63.6%	36.4%	
KIDVIS1			
Yes	58.3%	41.7%	.229
No	63.5%	36.5%	
VISITS1			
Yes	62.5%	37.5%	.001
No	62.8%	37.2%	

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\*\*=p<.01

Table 7: Bivariate Relationships Between Rule Violating (Minor/General Infractions) and Predictor Variables (N=160)

Predictor Variable	No Infractions	One or More Infractions	$\chi^2$
RACE2			
Non-White	78.1%	21.9%	.633
White	83.2%	16.8%	
EDUC1			
<H.S.	77.8%	22.2%	1.118
H.S.	85%	15%	
College	81.5%	18.5%	
CLARK1			
Yes	80.5%	19.5%	.117
No	82.6%	17.4%	
KIDS1			
Yes	81.7%	18.3%	.026
No	82.9%	17.1%	
ARREST1			
Yes	80.9%	19.1%	.552
No	88.2%	11.8%	
INCARC1			
Yes	81.1%	18.9%	.056
No	82.5%	17.5%	
VIOLENT1			
Yes	81.8%	18.2%	.013
No	81%	19%	
PROP1			
Yes	78.6%	21.4%	.406
No	82.7%	17.3%	
DRUG1			
Yes	84.1%	15.9%	.322
No	80.2%	19.8%	

Table 7: Continued

Predictor Variable	No Infractions	One or More Infractions	$\chi^2$
MISC1			
Yes	81.3%	18.7%	.000
No	81.3%	18.7%	
MO@WCC1			
3.0-6.0	86.5%	13.5%	8.481**
6.01-9.0	63.6%	36.4%	
9.01-12.0	85.6%	14.4%	
PROG1			
Yes	87.5%	12.5%	3.357
No	76.1%	23.9%	
KIDVIS1			
Yes	70.8%	29.2%	1.825
No	82.7%	17.3%	
VISITS1			
Yes	78.1%	21.9%	.704
No	82.6%	17.4%	

---

 \*\*= $p < .01$

Table 8: Bivariate Relationships Between Rule Violating (Major Infractions) and Predictor Variables (N=160)

Predictor Variable	No Infractions	One or More Infractions	$\chi^2$
RACE2			
Non-White	79.7%	20.3%	.843
White	85.3%	14.7%	
EDUC1			
<H.S.	80.6%	19.4%	.974
H.S.	83.3%	16.7%	
College	88.9%	11.1%	
CLARK1			
Yes	85.1%	14.9%	.421
No	81.2%	18.8%	
KIDS1			
Yes	84.2%	15.8%	.929
No	77.1%	22.9%	
ARREST1			
Yes	83.7%	16.3%	.558
No	76.5%	23.5%	
INCARC1			
Yes	82.1%	17.9%	.109
No	84.1%	15.9%	
VIOLENT1			
Yes	81.8%	18.2%	.074
No	83.6%	16.4%	
PROP1			
Yes	83.9%	16.1%	.040
No	82.7%	17.3%	
DRUG1			
Yes	88.6%	11.4%	1.314
No	81%	19%	

Table 8: Continued

Predictor Variable	No Infractions	One or More Infractions	$\chi^2$
MISC1			
Yes	68.8%	31.3%	2.619
No	84.7%	15.3%	
MO@WCC1			
3.0-6.0	100%	0	9.940**
6.01-9.0	75.8%	24.2%	
9.01-12.0	78.9%	21.1%	
PROG1			
Yes	77.8%	22.2%	2.668
No	87.5%	12.5%	
KIDVIS1			
Yes	87.5%	12.5%	.563
No	81.1%	18.9%	
VISITS1			
Yes	84.4%	15.6%	.648
No	80.2%	19.8%	

\*\*= $p < .01$

Due to the fact that age and minimum sentence length were measured as continuous variables, it was necessary to analyze their relationship to the dependent variables by using a difference of means t-test. Tables 9 and 10 did not result in statistically significant relationships; however, in Table 11 mean age emerged as a significant predictor of major infractions.

Table 9: Difference of Means Between Rule Violating (All Types of Infractions) and Predictor Variables (N=160)

Predictor Variable	No Infractions	One or More Infractions	t
AGE	36 yrs	34 yrs	1.595
MINTERM	44 mos.	41 mos.	.329

Table 10: Difference of Means Between Rule Violating (Minor/General Infractions) and Predictor Variables (N=160)

Predictor Variable	No Infractions	One or More Infractions	t
AGE	35 yrs	35 yrs	-.093
MINTERM	42 mos.	45 mos.	-.226

Table 11: Difference of Means Between Rule Violating (Major Infractions) and Predictor Variables (N=160)

Predictor Variable	No Infractions	One or More Infractions	t
AGE	36 yrs	32 yrs	2.151*
MINTERM	44 mos.	36 mos.	.665

\*= $p < .05$

### Multivariate Analysis

#### Logistic Regression

In order to examine the effects of multiple predictor variables upon a binary response variable, such as MEANOFF1, logistic regression analysis was used. The effects of a single predictor variable upon the response variable can be observed while holding all other predictor variables constant. This technique provides a measure of statistical control in studies where experimental control is not possible. The logistic regression model directly estimates the effects of the independent variables on the unobserved probability of an event occurring. The logistic regression coefficient can be interpreted then as the change in the log odds associated with a one-unit change in the independent variable. Thus, the Logit model was used in this study to estimate relationships between disciplinary infraction outcome and the independent variables. Due to the fact that data was missing from some of the variables throughout the sample, the logistic regression analysis is based upon a smaller sample size of 137 inmates. However, there were no identifiable patterns to the missing data, therefore the outcome of the analysis should not be biased in any way.

All Infractions Model.

Table 12 presents the logistic regression coefficients and odds ratios for the model that includes all categories of infractions. This model examines the relationships between all predictor variables and the dependent variable, whether an inmate has committed any level of infraction or not (MEANOFF1). Statistically significant coefficients include being from Clark County (CLARK1), age of inmate (AGE), months served at CCA (MO@WCC1), and participation in prison programming (PROG1).

Table 12: Logit Regression Coefficients and Odds Ratios For Predictors of Rule Violating, All Types of Infractions (N=137)

Predictor Variable	$\beta$	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Demographics			
RACE2	-.7681	.4414	.4639
EDUC1	-.1246	.2637	.8828
AGE	-.0638*	.0281	.9382
CLARK1	-.8458*	.4316	.4292
KIDS1	-.0290	.4822	.9714
Criminal Record			
ARREST1	.3287	.7111	1.3892
INCARC1	-.1804	.4759	.8349
DRUG1	-.9327	.7219	.3935
PROP1	-.3213	.6455	.7252
VIOLENT1	-.8111	.6946	.4444
MINTERM	.0002	.0034	1.0002
MO@WCC1	.6708*	.3042	1.9558
Prison Programming			
PROG1	-.8517*	.4423	.4267
Visitation			
KIDVIS1	.4588	.6606	1.5821
VISITS1	-.3735	.4601	.6883

\*= $p < .05$

As predicted, being from Clark County reduces the likelihood that an inmate will commit an infraction. The older an inmate is, the less likely she will be to commit an infraction. Participation in prison programs also reduces the chances of committing an infraction. This may be due to the effects of prison programming itself, or it may be a result of restrictions placed upon those who wish to participate in programs. For instance, inmates who have a record of disciplinary infractions may not be allowed entry into the programs at all or inmates who commit an infraction while in a program may face the possibility of losing that privilege. As predicted, the more time an inmate has served in the prison, the greater the chances she will commit some type of infraction. Finally, visits from children appear to increase the chances of an inmate committing an infraction, however the effects were not statistically significant.

#### Minor/General Infractions Model.

To assess whether the predictor variables have an effect on a specific type of infraction category, it was necessary to run logistic regression analysis with the dependent variable measuring whether an inmate has committed a minor or general level infraction, (MINGEN). Table 13 provides the logistic regression coefficients and odds ratios for the minor/general category infraction model. The only statistically significant coefficient in this analysis was PROG1. Once again, participation in prison programs reduces the chances of committing a minor or general category disciplinary infraction due to either of the previously mentioned reasons. As with infractions in general, visits from children were not significantly related to the likelihood of a minor or general infraction.

Table 13: Logit Regression Coefficients and Odds Ratios For Predictors of Rule Violating, Minor/General Infractions (N=137)

Predictor Variable	$\beta$	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Demographics			
RACE2	-.4338	.5118	.6481
EDUC1	-.1363	.3162	.8726
AGE	.0022	.0317	1.0022
CLARK1	-.3373	.5123	.7137
KIDS1	-.0826	.6012	.9207
Criminal Record			
ARREST1	.4447	.9269	1.5600
INCARC1	-.4160	.5595	.6597
DRUG1	-.4032	.9043	.6681
PROP1	.0075	.8157	1.0075
VIOLENT1	-.3723	.8608	.6891
MINTERM	.0011	.0037	1.0011
MO@WCC1	.1587	.3370	1.1720
Prison Programming			
PROG1	-1.3785*	.5700	.2520
Visitation			
KIDVIS1	.3519	.7575	1.4217
VISITS1	-.0453	.5591	.9557

\*=p<.05

Major Infractions Model.

The final model which compares individuals with major infractions to the rest of the sample is presented in Table 14. Age of inmate (AGE), and time served at CCA (MO@WCC1) were both statistically significant coefficients in this model. The older an inmate is, the less likely she will be to commit a major infraction. Consistent with predictions of infractions overall, the longer an inmate has been incarcerated, the more likely she will be to commit a major infraction. In fact, inmates who have served for longer periods of time are 2.7 times more likely to violate a major rule. Consistent with the other models, visits from children were not a statistically significant predictor of major infractions.

Table 14: Logit Regression Coefficients and Odds Ratios For Predictors of Rule Violating, Major Infractions (N=137)

Predictor Variable	$\beta$	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Demographics			
RACE2	-.7975	.5887	.4504
EDUC1	.0318	.3520	1.0323
AGE	-.1117**	.0390	.8943
CLARK1	-.9391	.5585	.3910
KIDS1	.0707	.5852	1.0733
Criminal Record			
ARREST1	-.1000	.8998	.9049
INCARC1	.1853	.6224	1.2036
DRUG1	-.8430	.8650	.4304
PROP1	-.4419	.7618	.6428
VIOLENT1	-.8630	.8123	.4219
MINTERM	-.0035	.0057	.9965
MO@WCC1	1.0048*	.4511	2.7315
Prison Programming			
PROG1	.1449	.5395	1.1559
Visitation			
KIDVIS1	.2248	.8996	1.2521
VISITS1	-.5960	.6031	.5510
*= $p < .05$			
**= $p < .01$			

## CHAPTER VI

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

#### Discussion

##### Logistic Regression Models.

Bivariate analyses of the relationships between predictor variables and the dependent variable of committing any level of infraction (MEANOFF1) resulted in only one significant relationship. Logistic regression, however, produced other significant coefficients (i.e. age, being from Clark County, time served, and prison programming). As previously mentioned, time served in the prison has been shown to significantly affect the commission of disciplinary infractions. Prisoners tend to behave and follow orders toward the beginning of their sentences. The middle of the sentence is when infractions typically occur and they diminish as time goes on. With major infractions in particular, the threat of loss of early parole or good time credits should serve as a deterrence towards the end of the prison sentence. This appears to be the case in this study as time served was a significant coefficient with major infractions but not with minor and general level infractions that result in lesser punishments. Although the length of time observed in this study is only 12 months, the results lend support to the idea of prisonization and patterns

of inmate adjustment. The effects of prisonization may have occurred early on in this sample due to the fact that 60% of the sample had served previous jail or prison sentences, therefore they adapted more quickly to the institutional setting. Another factor that may have influenced the trend in disciplinary infractions could be correctional officer discretion. Perhaps officers are more lenient in the beginning of an inmate's sentence when they know that the environment is new to the inmates. As time progresses, officers may command greater levels of discipline and exhibit less tolerance for rule violations. This would result in higher numbers of disciplinary reports being written. Towards the end of the prisoner's sentence, when officers have established relationships with the inmates, they may choose to rely on verbal warnings as opposed to write-ups that result in more severe punishments.

Inmates from Clark County were less likely to commit infractions than inmates from outside of Clark County. This could be attributed to increased contact with family and friends, not necessarily through visitation (the effects of which will be discussed later), but through an increased number of phone calls and mail. Women from Clark County may feel more at ease knowing they are closer to home and their loved ones. Increased anxiety from being hundreds of miles away from family could contribute to poorer prison adjustment of women from outside the county. It is possible that women resent being sent to Las Vegas and refuse to conform. There may also be an issue pertaining to officer behavior as well. Officers may treat women differently who are from rural areas of the state. Although any of these explanations are viable, I would argue that shorter distances from home and family plays the most important part in helping inmates adjust to life in the institution.

Inmates age emerged as a significant coefficient in both the all infractions model and the major infractions model. The longer women are imprisoned, the more chances they have to commit an infraction or be caught committing an infraction. With major infractions in particular, women who are older and who are serving longer sentences may be less afraid of the punishments associated with such a violation than their younger counterparts. Since disciplinary segregation is typically the sanction associated with major infraction violations (such as escape and sexual activity), certain women may be looking for an excuse to be alone. To an outsider, segregation may seem like a harsh punishment, but to those who are living in close quarters with hundreds of other women, time to themselves may be a positive thing. As with time served, officer discretion may also play a role in older women being written up for major infractions. Officers may be more lenient with younger women because they feel that these inmates are inexperienced with the prison system. It is interesting to note that age does not significantly increase or decrease the odds of a minor or general infraction being committed. Because there are numerous violations included in both of these categories, and the punishments are less severe, it is probable that women of all ages are susceptible to violating at least one of them at some point in their prison lives.

Prison programming proved to be a significant coefficient in both the all infractions model and the minor/general infractions model. With almost half of the sample (45%) verified to have participated in at least one of the four available programs, it appears as though many women do take advantage of the services offered to them. For this reason, it may be important for women to stay out of trouble or face being terminated from the programs. In light of the fact that programming did not significantly increase or

decrease the odds of committing a major infraction, it is possible that women who commit these infractions are not allowed entry into any of the programs. The programs themselves may serve as a buffer to rule violating either because of their educational value or their use as a way to channel energies into something constructive while staying out of trouble. Another explanation of the effects of programming on rule violating may be associated with the role of correctional officers. Officers may be more tolerant of minor and general violations committed by women in programs because they feel that those women are making a concerted effort to turn their lives around, and officers might not want to impede that progress by writing a formal disciplinary report.

#### Primary Research Hypothesis

The main research question in this study was whether differences in rule-breaking existed between women with visits, particularly from children, and women without visits. According to the data obtained from this sample of female inmates, visitation does not increase or decrease the likelihood of rule violating, regardless of the level of severity of the infraction. The first issue that needs to be addressed is that of visitation, both by children and by other family and friends.

Despite the fact that 77 percent of the inmates sampled has at least one child, only 16 percent received at least one visit from their child(ren). Even when we take into consideration the fact that some of these children may be adults who choose not to visit their mothers, this percentage is still disturbingly low. With 54 percent of the women previously residing in Clark County, the expected number of visits should be higher than the data show. Visits from other family members and/or friends were received by 43

percent of the women.

There are several possible explanations for the low number of women receiving visits from both children and other people. Two of these reasons are related to the institution itself. Because the facility had only been operational for eleven months at the time of data collection, it is possible that there had not been sufficient time to become an approved visitor at the prison. It is likely that inmates would receive more visits as time at the prison increased. The other reason for the low percentage of visits may be attributed to the lengthy process that prospective visitors face while trying to gain access to the prison. Because women are not able to receive visits immediately following incarceration, they may feel that it is better for their children to establish new routines with their caretakers. When visitors are finally approved for visitation, women and/or the caretakers may choose not to disrupt the children's sense of stability by having them visit the prison.

Other reasons for the lack of visits may be related to family issues. Only twenty-two percent of the women in this sample were married, therefore the majority of inmates did not have a spouse who could act as a support system and provide transportation for children who wished to visit. It was not possible to obtain information about the current custody situation of the inmate's child(ren); however previous studies (e.g. Fuller 1993; Beckerman 1991) have shown that many children reside with grandparents or foster families and that tends to lower the chances of children visiting their mothers in prison. It could also be true that some women did not have custody of their children prior to entering the prison or they did not have healthy, stable relationships with their children. In either case, it is important to consider the ramifications of so many mothers in prison

who are either not able or willing to preserve a relationship that is considered by many to be so essential in a child's life.

One more issue related to family support pertains to the large number of women (60%) who had been incarcerated at least one time prior to the current incarceration. Families of those inmates may have had a negative experience with visitation before or they may have lost faith in the woman who has become a recidivist. Some family members might feel uncomfortable with the idea of visiting a prison and especially subjecting children to such an environment. Children themselves may be embarrassed or frightened of seeing their mothers in prison. In any case, the chances of a visit occurring are significantly reduced.

The second major issue related to the research hypothesis that deserves special attention is that of rule violating. Because this prison had been open a relatively short period of time, this study may not be representative of women's prisons in general. It may take time for both officers and inmates to adjust to the policies and practices associated with a new facility. In particular, the fact that this prison is privately operated may have affected the results that emerged in this study. Officers are trained to use the same disciplinary infraction guidelines that are used in state-run facilities, however, that does not exclude the possibility of subtle differences in enforcing those rules. Future research should include prisons that have been operational for more than one year as well as comparisons between private and state-run facilities.

Thirty-six percent of the sample had broken at least one prison rule but this number may underestimate the actual incidence of rule violating due to the short observation period. On the other hand, this percentage may be an overestimation of the

true number of repeat violators. Though individuals with only one infraction are included in the category of rule violators, there may be qualitative differences between women who commit one infraction and those who are repeat offenders. That is one disadvantage associated with converting a continuous variable (i.e. number of visits) into a dichotomous variable (i.e. the presence or absence of an infraction).

### Conclusions

It appears that rule violating is independent from visitation in the prison setting. It should be noted, however, that Nevada state prisons do not withdraw visitation rights for simply committing any infraction. The infraction must have occurred in the visitation setting in order to lose those privileges. This could be one of the reasons that the hypothesized link between visitation and rule violating did not materialize in this study. Future studies should examine those prisons that do use loss of visitation as a punishment for rule violating. Comparisons could then be made between those prisons and facilities such as the North Las Vegas prison in terms of disciplinary infractions. Another possible explanation for the lack of a relationship between visitation and infractions may be attributed to the temporal sequencing of the two events. If infractions tend to precede visits, the effects of visitation could not be determined. Even when visits precede infractions, there may be a time lag between the two that diminishes any effects visitation may have had on inmate behavior.

While the results in this study did not support the research hypothesis, several important findings did emerge that are worth mentioning. The first finding contradicts the notion that visitation will be higher in centrally located female prisons. The lack of

visits at this prison reveals that the location of a prison does not necessarily ensure the maintenance of family relationships. Even with the barrier of physical proximity reduced, many people still do not visit women in prison. When policy makers are determining how to increase visitation with children, they should spend less time focusing on location of the facility and more time on other possible explanations for the low number of visits by children.

Second, in terms of female rule violators, there is no single profile that defines the typical violator. Women of all educational, racial, and criminal backgrounds are susceptible to breaking prison rules. The issue of who gets written up for rule violations may have more to do with the officer that is doing the reporting, rather than the inmate herself.

Third, in order to maintain relationships between women and their children, strong support systems are necessary. Not only do mothers need to be involved with their kids, but care givers must also make a concerted effort to keep the lines of communication between children and mothers open. Most women will regain custody of their children upon release from the prison. It is for this very reason that policy makers must turn their attention toward transportation of children to prison and the creation of less rigid procedures for obtaining visits.

Fourth, it appears that in this sample, prison programming offers a type of protection from rule violations in addition to the many other positive effects it offers (i.e. helping inmates reach their educational goals, teaching inmates to abstain from drugs and alcohol, and providing inmates with job skills). This is not to say that prison programs should be used as a mechanism of social control, however the benefits of the programs

should not be understated. Ensuring that women in prison receive education and work skills that will assist them upon their release from prison should be the primary goal of all programs. Women who are more educated and better prepared for life outside the prison walls will undoubtedly serve as better parents to the many children who await their return.

Thus in conclusion, further research should be conducted that evaluates visitation programs, the types of individuals most likely to visit prisons, reasons for low visitation rates, and both the manifest and latent effects of social control mechanisms in women's prisons.

## APPENDIX I

### DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

CASE NO. \_\_\_\_\_

Age \_\_\_\_\_

Race/Ethnicity

☐ White

☐ Black

☐ Hispanic

☐ Asian

☐ Native American

☐ Other

Marital Status

☐ Single, never married

☐ Married

☐ Divorced

☐ Separated

☐ Widowed

☐ Don't know

No. Children \_\_\_\_\_

Education   ☐ < High school   ☐ High school/GED   ☐ Some College   ☐ College

Grad

Nevada resident

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

Clark County resident

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

Current Offense

Date Admitted \_\_\_\_\_

(1) \_\_\_\_\_

Length of Current Sentence \_\_\_\_\_

(2) \_\_\_\_\_

Current Custody Level

(3) \_\_\_\_\_

☐ Minimum☐ Medium☐ Maximum

(4) \_\_\_\_\_

Total Prior

Prior Adult Arrests \_\_\_\_\_ Prior F/M Convictions \_\_\_\_\_ Incarceration \_\_\_\_\_

Total number of visits \_\_\_\_\_

No. visits from children \_\_\_\_\_

No. visits from other people \_\_\_\_\_

## BEHAVIORAL INFRACTIONS

Infraction # 1	Date_____	Type_____	Outcome _____
Infraction # 2	Date_____	Type_____	Outcome _____
Infraction # 3	Date_____	Type_____	Outcome _____
Infraction # 4	Date_____	Type_____	Outcome _____
Infraction # 5	Date_____	Type_____	Outcome _____
Infraction # 6	Date_____	Type_____	Outcome _____
Infraction # 7	Date_____	Type_____	Outcome _____
Infraction # 8	Date_____	Type_____	Outcome _____
Infraction # 9	Date_____	Type_____	Outcome _____
Infraction # 10	Date_____	Type_____	Outcome _____

## MEASURES OF POSITIVE ADJUSTMENT

## Substance Abuse Programs

☐ Yes☐ No

## Educational Programs

☐ Yes☐ No

## Vocational Programs

☐ Yes☐ No

Other programs:

## APPENDIX II

### DISCIPLINARY INFRACTIONS

#### Minor Violations

M1-Purchasing, selling, trading, giving, receiving or possessing any item of property, with a value less than \$50, in an unauthorized manner

M2-Possession of coin, currency, checks, money orders or other negotiable instruments in excess of the amount authorized, but less than \$5 over the limit

M3-Possession of unauthorized items

M4-Roughhouse or horseplay

M5-Failure to keep one's person or assigned area neat and clean

M6-Failure to perform work as instructed or a failure to attend work, school or other assignment

M7-Unauthorized use of institutional supplies, tools, equipment or machinery

M8-Smoking in an unauthorized area

M9-An attempt or conspiracy to commit a minor violation

M10-Failure to produce inmate identification card upon request of correctional employee

#### General Violations:

G1-Disobedience of an order from any correctional employee or anyone who has the authority to supervise inmates in work or other special assignments

G2-Unauthorized contact of any off-duty correctional employee or member of the employee's family; any unwanted contact with any private citizen, not amounting to harassment or threats

G3-Organizing, participating in, operating any gambling game or betting pool, or possessing any equipment for gambling or betting purposes

G4-Intentionally destroying, altering or damaging property of another or state property which has a replacement value less than \$50

G5-Self-mutilation

G6-Fighting or challenging another to fight

G7-Issuing a money transfer with knowledge that it is not covered by sufficient funds

G8-Possession of another inmate's identification card

G9-Abusive language or actions toward another person

G10-Tampering with evidence or influencing a witness involved in any disciplinary process, not amounting to threats

G11-Failure to produce inmate identification card upon request of staff

G12-Failure to appear at the proper time and place for count or interfering with the count

G13-Cutting into line

G14-Failure to follow posted rules and regulations

G15-Presence in areas identified as off limits to inmates by posted regulations or signs that identify areas that are restricted, not amounting to an attempted escape

G16-Possession of coin, currency, checks, money orders or other negotiable instruments in an amount of more than \$5 and less than \$50 over the limit

G17-Manufacture, possession or use of any intoxicant or possession of materials suitable for such manufacture

G18-Delaying, hindering or interfering with a correctional employee in the performance of his or her duties

G19-Possession of a custodial or correctional employee's uniform or parts thereof

G20-Preparing, soliciting, or giving false or misleading information to or about a staff member and representing the statement as fact

G21-Possession of gang materials including, but not limited to, jewelry, stationary, emblems and patches

G22-Attempt or conspiracy to commit a general violation

G23-The commission of three or more minor violations within a six month period

G24-Possession of prescribed medication that is not a controlled substance without the approval of the proper authority

G25-Purchasing, selling, trading, giving, receiving or possessing any items of property, with a value equal to or greater than \$50, in an unauthorized manner

#### Major Violations:

MJ1-Arson-Setting a fire with the potential of causing damage or injury to persons or property

MJ2-Assault-Unlawful attempt coupled with present ability to commit a violent injury on the person of another

MJ3-Battery-Any willful use of force or violence upon the person of another

MJ4-Burglary-The entering of a building, structure or vehicle with the intent to commit a crime therein

MJ5-Embezzlement-The fraudulent conversion of the property of another by one who is already in lawful possession of it

MJ6-Escape-The departure or absence from custody of a person who is imprisoned, before he/she is entitled to his/her liberty by the process of law. This violation should be charged in cases of walkaways from assignments of minimum or community custody where no weapons, force or injury to others was involved

MJ7-Extortion-The obtaining of property or money from another by wrongful use of actual or threatened force, violence or fear

MJ8-False Imprisonment-The unlawful violation of the personal liberty of another which consists of confinement or detention without sufficient legal authority

MJ9-False Pretenses-A false representation of a material present or past fact which causes the victim to pass title to his property to the wrongdoer who knows his/her representation to be false and intends thereby to defraud the victim

MJ10-Gang Activities-Organizing or being a member of a gang which engages in criminal activities, threatens the order and security of the institution and/or promotes racism

MJ11-Kidnapping-The unlawful taking and carrying away of a human being by force or against his/her will

MJ12-Larceny-The trespassory taking and carrying away of personal property of another with intent to steal it

MJ13-Larceny by Trick-Obtaining possession of another's property by falsehood with the intent to convert it for his/her own use

MJ14-Manslaughter-The unlawful killing of another human being without malice, either expressed or implied. It may be either voluntarily, in the heat of passion, or involuntarily.

MJ15-Mayhem-The infliction of an injury which disfigures, disables, or dismembers another

MJ16-Murder-The unlawful killing of another human being with malice aforethought, either expressed or implied, and all lesser included offenses

MJ17-Receiving Stolen Property-One must receive stolen property, know it is stolen, and intend to deprive the owner of it

MJ18-Robbery-A larceny where the taking of the property must be from the person of the victim or in his/her presence and the taking must be by means of violence or intimidation

MJ19-Sexual Assault-Subjecting another person to sexual penetration against the victim's will and/or understanding. Subjecting another person to perform any sexual act against their will

MJ20-Tattooing-Tattooing oneself or another or possession of tattooing equipment

MJ21-Theft-The taking of property without the owner's consent

MJ22-Tampering with any locking device

MJ23-Intentionally destroying, altering or damaging the property of another or state property with a replacement value equal to or greater than \$50

MJ24-Adulteration of any food or drink

MJ25-Threats-Issuing a threat, either verbally, by gesture or in a written statement to or about any person

MJ26-Possession of contraband, including physical ingestion of items considered contraband

MJ27-Rioting or inciting others to riot

MJ28-Organizing, encouraging or participating in a work stoppage or other disruptive demonstration or practice

MJ29-Charging or collecting a fee or favors for services as a counsel-substitute, legal assistant or "writ writer"

MJ30-Sexually stimulating activities, including but not limited to caressing, kissing or fondling, except as authorized by Departmental visitation regulations

MJ31-The unauthorized use of telephone or mail

MJ32-Being in an unauthorized area, or hiding on the prison grounds or hiding at a place of assignment or classification

MJ33-Bribery-Giving or offering a bribe to any person

MJ34-Trading, bartering, lending or otherwise engaging in any personal transactions with any employee when such transaction has not been specifically authorized

MJ35-Counterfeiting, forging or making an unauthorized reproduction of any document

MJ36-An attempt or conspiracy to commit a major violation

MJ37-The third or subsequent general violation committed within a 6 month period may be treated as a major violation

MJ38-Possession of coin, currency, checks, money orders, or other negotiable instruments in an amount of more than \$50 over the authorized limit

MJ39-Running from a correctional employee when ordered to halt

MJ40-Propelling any substance toward any person

MJ41-Gathering around, blocking, or impeding any correctional employee or visitor, in a threatening or intimidating manner and exhibiting conduct which causes the person to fear for his/her safety

MJ42-Unauthorized contact, including harassment, of any off-duty correctional employee or other private citizen

MJ43-Violation of any local, state or federal criminal statute or law

MJ44-Failure to submit to a drug and/or alcohol screening

MJ45-Possession, introduction, sales or use of any narcotics, drugs, alcohol or other intoxicants, or possession of materials suitable for such manufacture

MJ46-The possession or use of tape recording devices to record conversations without the person's consent

MJ47-Escape-The departure or absence from custody of a person who is imprisoned, before he/she is entitled to his/her liberty by the process of law. This violation should be charged in cases of escape from assignments of medium custody or above, or escapes from any custody where weapons, force, the taking of hostages or injury to others was involved

MJ48-Any violation of the Rules of Court, contempt of court, submission of forged or otherwise false documents, submissions of false statements, violations of Rules of Civil Procedure, Criminal Procedure or Appellate Procedure and/or receiving sanctions and/or warnings for any such actions from any court. Although not necessary for disciplinary purposes, any Order from any court detailing such action shall be sufficient evidence for disciplinary purposes

MJ49-Possession of any confidential prison regulation. Any prison regulation which is not specifically delineated as accessible to inmates is considered confidential. A prison regulation includes, but is not limited to, Administrative Regulations, Administrative Directives, Information Bulletins, Institutional Procedures, Emergency Response Regulations, and Post Orders

## APPENDIX III

### INMATE OFFENSES

#### Violent Offenses:

Attempt robbery  
Conspiracy to commit robbery  
Robbery w/use of a deadly weapon  
Armed robbery  
Robbery  
Attempt child abuse causing sbh\*  
Child abuse  
Child abuse with sbh  
Child abuse and neglect with sbh  
Battery with intent to commit robbery  
Battery causing sbh  
Battery with deadly weapon  
Attempt assault with deadly weapon  
Assault with deadly weapon  
Use of deadly weapon  
Conspiracy to commit murder  
Attempt murder  
2<sup>nd</sup> degree murder  
1<sup>st</sup> degree murder  
1<sup>st</sup> degree murder with deadly weapon  
2<sup>nd</sup> degree kidnapping  
1<sup>st</sup> degree kidnapping  
Attempt discharge firearm from vehicle  
Possession firearm by ex-felon  
Voluntary manslaughter w/use of deadly weapon  
Sexual assault (victim <16)  
Sexual assault

\*sbh=substantial bodily harm

#### Property Offenses:

Attempt larceny from person  
Attempt grand larceny  
Larceny from person  
Grand larceny  
Grand larceny auto  
Attempt possession stolen vehicle  
Possession stolen vehicle  
Attempt possession stolen cr.card\*  
Possession stolen cr.card  
Possession cr. card w/out consent  
Fraudulent use of cr. card  
4<sup>th</sup> degree arson  
3<sup>rd</sup> degree arson  
2<sup>nd</sup> degree arson  
Attempt burglary  
Burglary  
Attempt possession stolen property  
Possession stolen property  
Attempt forgery  
Unlawful use of calculating device  
Non-sufficient funds-check  
Sign bad credit transaction  
Possession of forged instrument  
Embezzlement  
Forgery  
Destroying building w/an explosive  
Obtain \$ under false pretense  
Theft

\*cr.card=credit card

Drug/Alcohol Related Offenses:

Under influence of controlled substance  
DUI  
Attempt furnishing dangerous drugs  
Sale of controlled substance  
Traffic controlled substance  
Attempt possession of controlled substance  
Possession of controlled substance  
Possession of controlled substance for sale  
Attempt to manufacture controlled substance

Miscellaneous Offenses:

Escape  
Lewdness w/a minor  
Lewdness w/a minor (victim <14)  
Statutory sexual seduction  
Use of minor in pornography  
Attempt accessory to felony  
Accessory to felony  
Attempt engage prostitution w/AIDS  
Attempt felony prostitution  
Internal transmission of HIV  
Engage prostitution w/AIDS  
Habitual criminal (lesser)  
Habitual criminal (violent)  
Victim over 65 enhancement  
Probation violation

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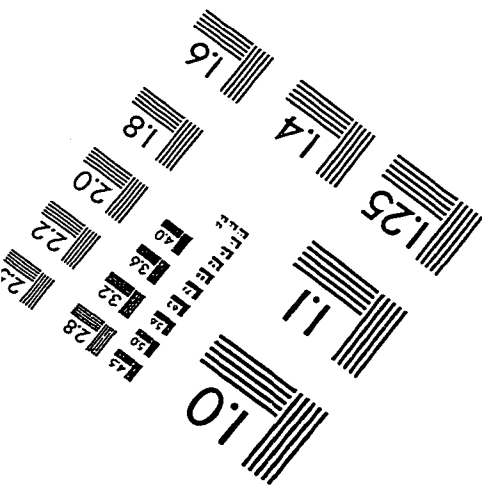
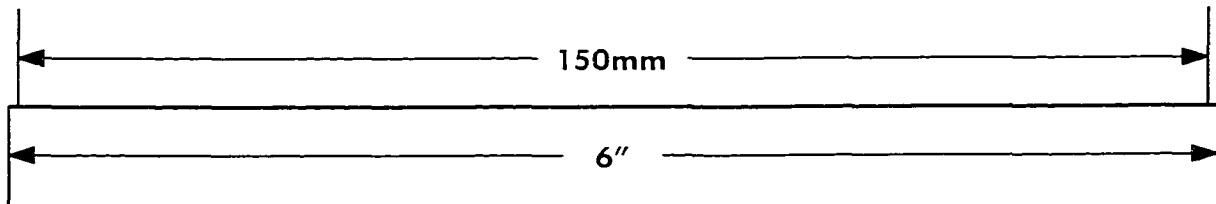
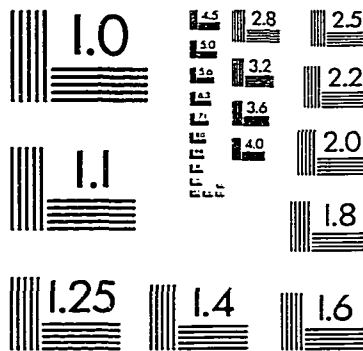
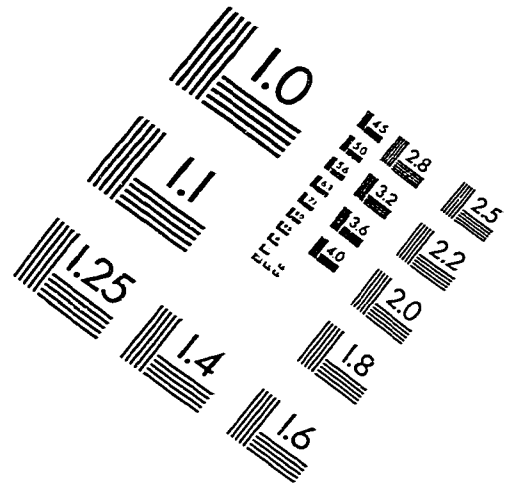
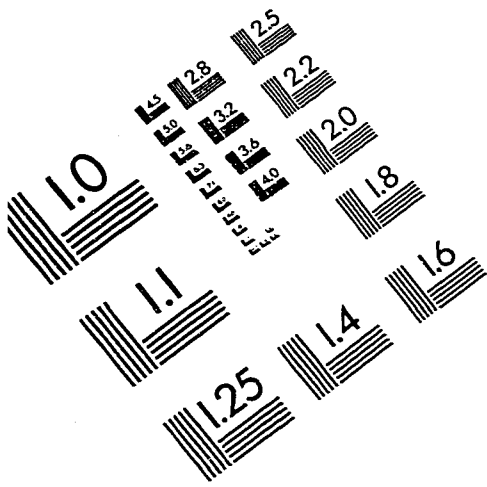
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