

2023

Postsecondary Education, Self-Efficacy, and Organizational Commitment Impact on Previously Incarcerated Employee Job Satisfaction

Elizabeth Sadler Roney

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>



Part of the [Organizational Behavior and Theory Commons](#), and the [Social and Behavioral Sciences Commons](#)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Psychology and Community Services

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Elizabeth S. Roney

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. John Schmidt, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty

Dr. Michelle Ross, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty

Dr. Derek Rohde, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost

Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2023

Abstract

Postsecondary Education, Self-Efficacy, and Organizational Commitment Impact on

Previously Incarcerated Employee Job Satisfaction

by

Elizabeth S. Roney

MA, Central Michigan University, 1999

BS, Savannah State University, 1981

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

Walden University

February 2023

Abstract

A study was conducted to determine if previously incarcerated employee age, postsecondary education (PSE) attainment, prior incarceration status, and assessed self-efficacy predict job satisfaction. It also considered if organizational commitment had a moderating effect on the predictors ability to forecast the criterion. Two underlying theories considered in this study are Bandura's social learning theory and Vroom's expectancy theory. The obtained sample of 22 participants included seven previously incarcerated individuals. Demographic data used as predictors were employee age, PSE attainment, and prior incarceration status. Three instruments used included the New General Self-Efficacy Survey to assess self-efficacy as a predictor, the Job Satisfaction Survey to assess job satisfaction as the criterion, and the Organizational Commitment Survey to assess organizational commitment as a moderator. The multiple regression analysis indicated employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration, and self-efficacy did not predict job satisfaction. The planned analysis of organizational commitment as a moderator was not conducted, given the nonsignificant regression results. Positive social change may result from developing mentorship programs, private funding for correctional education, and amending laws to benefit ex-prisoners are a few ways stakeholders, organizations, and lawmakers can assist former prisoners in successfully transitioning into society. Future research with a larger representative sample and partnering with nonprofits and state agencies are also essential to increase the understanding of PSE and job satisfaction among correctional agencies, lawmakers, stakeholders, and community members.

Postsecondary Education, Self-Efficacy, and Organizational Commitment Impact on

Previously Incarcerated Employee Job Satisfaction

by

Elizabeth S. Roney

MA, Central Michigan University, 1999

BS, Savannah State University, 1981

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

Walden University

February 2023

Dedication

I dedicate my work to my children, Brittany and Felicia Roney. They are two of the best young women a mother could have and enjoy. They have supported me throughout this process and encouraged me to complete this milestone of my education. I genuinely admire their strength, love, and support for their mother.

Acknowledgments

I want to thank everyone who has encouraged me throughout this process. Words could not adequately express what each of you represent to me. I want to thank those who read, edited, and assisted me in completing this document. I genuinely thank the Rev. Dr. Adegboye Adeyemo and Minister Dr. Mary Adeyemo for their many years of support and the many hours they spent encouraging me throughout this process, especially when I could not see it becoming a reality. I want to thank them for their prayers and words of comfort and understanding, and especially for reading my work.

I would like to thank my former chairperson, Dr. Brian Cesario, who worked effortlessly to assist me in completing my work. I am grateful for his dedication, warmth, and encouragement throughout this process. I would like to thank Dr. John Schmidt for assisting me in completing my dissertation. Also, I would also like to thank Dr. Michelle Ross and Dr. Derek Rohde, my committee members, who also assisted me throughout this process. Lastly, I would like to thank my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, for leading, guiding, and providing me with his relentless favor upon my life in the completion of my academic career.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	v
List of Figures	vi
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Background.....	4
Problem Statement.....	6
Purpose of the Study	8
Research Questions and Hypotheses	8
Theoretical Framework.....	9
Nature of Study.....	10
Definitions.....	11
Assumptions.....	12
Delimitations.....	13
Limitations	13
Significance of the Study	14
Summary and Transition.....	15
Chapter 2: Literature Review	17
Literature Search Strategy.....	20
Underlying Theoretical Considerations	21
Bandura’s Social Cognitive Theory.....	22
Vroom’s Expectancy Theory	25
Job Satisfaction	27

Job Satisfaction and Self-Efficacy	29
Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment	30
Job Satisfaction and PSE	35
Formerly Incarcerated PSE.....	36
Identified Benefits.....	36
Educational Programs	39
Known Challenges	41
Associated Theory	44
Prior Incarcerated Employees	50
Prior Incarcerated Employees and Self-Efficacy	51
Prior Incarcerated Employees and Job-Related Behaviors.....	54
Prior Incarcerated Employees and Job Satisfaction.....	58
Summary and Transition.....	62
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	65
Research Design and Rationale	66
Methodology	66
Population	66
Sampling Procedures	67
Participant Recruitment	67
Instrumentation and Operationalization.....	68
Data Collection	69
Data Analysis Plan.....	70

Threats to Validity	71
Ethical Procedures	71
Summary and Transition.....	73
Chapter 4: Results	74
Demographic Characteristics	74
Descriptive Statistics.....	75
Correlational Analysis	76
Test of the Assumptions.....	77
Research Question 1	81
Research Question 2	83
Summary and Transition.....	84
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations.....	85
Interpretation of the Findings.....	85
Previous Literature Findings.....	86
Findings in the Context of the Theoretical Framework	89
Limitations of the Study.....	94
Recommendations.....	95
Implications for Social Change.....	96
Conclusion	97
References.....	99
Appendix A: Permission to Use the New General Self-Efficacy Scale.....	137
Appendix B: Permission to Use the Job Satisfaction Survey	138

Appendix C: Permission to Use the Organizational Commitment Scales139

List of Tables

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics Table.....	75
Table 2. Instrument Descriptive Statistics ($N=22$).....	76
Table 3. Study Variable Correlational Analysis	77
Table 4. Regression Analysis Coefficients	82
Table 5. Regression Analysis Model Summary.....	82
Table 6. Regression Analysis Model ANOVA.....	83

List of Figures

Figure 1. Scatterplot Between the Predictors and Criterion JSS	78
Figure 2. Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual.....	79
Figure 3. Histogram of Predictor Self-Efficacy (NGSES).....	80
Figure 4. Histogram of Criterion Job Satisfaction (JSS)	80
Figure 5. Histogram of Moderator Organizational Commitment (OCS).....	81

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Individuals devoted to rehabilitating ex-offenders upon their release from community jails and correctional facilities, including lawyers and politicians, should consider evaluating the job satisfaction of adults reintegrating into the workforce after incarceration. As an initiative to reduce prison overcrowding, states across the country have discovered ways to cut costs and lower their fiscal obligations (Farabee et al., 2014). For instance, in California, in 2011, the federal government ordered the state correctional agency to reduce the overcrowding of 33 prisons within 2 years to 137.5% of their designed capacity, a decision affirmed by the U.S. Supreme Court (Farabee et al., 2014). This trend toward early release was primarily the result of tightened state and federal budgets. It also reflects the widely held expectation that postrelease services have reduced overcrowding and recidivism, ultimately generating further savings (Duwe, 2017; Taxman, 2011).

Because criminal offending is costly to society, understanding how to reduce crime, maximize safety, reduce government spending, and rebuild communities have been essential concerns in structuring the criminal justice policy (Council of Economic Advisers, 2016). Research studies have shown that police reduce crime; in fact, a 10% increase in hiring police leads to a 3% to 10% decrease in criminal activity, dependent upon the offense (Council of Economic Advisers, 2016). Adopting specific policing tactics such as hot-spot policing, broken window policing, or problem-oriented policing may lead to a reduction and deterrent in criminal activity because these strategies, along with policing presence, lead to arrest and crime prevention, resulting in safer

communities (Nagin et al., 2015). The cost of incarceration is expensive to taxpayers. It remains an ongoing problem for Americans, escalating to more than \$83 billion yearly for housing and maintaining prisoners (Council of Economic Advisers, 2016).

As ex-offenders return to the community, many social and community skills are lacking for them to reintegrate into the community successfully. Education and employment are also essential for successful reintegration into society (Berg & Huebner, 2011). In 2016, approximately 1.5 million people in local community jails and U.S. federal and state prison systems were incarcerated (Carson, 2016). Of those incarcerated, approximately 630,000 inmates returned to their community in need of jobs, housing, education, treatment for substance abuse, and mental illness (Fredericksen & Omli, 2016; Hunter et al., 2015; Wiegand et al., 2015). At the end of 2016, 4.5 million people were on parole or probation and under community supervision programs (Jones, 2018; Kaeble, 2018).

Many returning ex-prisoners have substance abuse and mental illness issues, often leading to homelessness (Anderson et al., 2018; Lutze et al., 2014). Recent studies concur that formerly incarcerated individuals have included veterans, adults between the ages of 18 to 60 and older, substance abusers, and mentally ill individuals returning to society in need of assistance lacking many of the social and personal skills required to reintegrate into the community (Hlavka et al., 2015; Visher, 2015). Additionally, many ex-prisoners have poor work histories, are frequently uneducated or undereducated, live with family members with legal trouble, or are prohibited from living with family members. They also have issues with renting or living accommodations, employment, and discrimination

due to their criminal records in a low-wage labor market (Hlavka et al., 2015; Yahner et al., 2016).

As individuals transition into the workforce after incarceration, many factors have been studied and implemented into reentry programs to assist people with learning skills, training, and reintegration. Of these factors, education is one of the primary tools used to affect employability because it allows an employer to discern if applicants can perform well in their job (Gowan & Lepak, 2007). Another factor considered when reintegrating the ex-offender back into the community and workforce after incarceration includes matching the program to the person's abilities (Rosenfeld et al., 2008). When matching employment training and mentoring programs, these programs provide an excellent resource to engage the former prisoner and encourage productivity (Rosenfeld et al., 2008).

Education has been shown to affect the employability of former prisoners (Bhola & Dhanawade, 2012; Duwe, 2018; Erisman & Contardo, 2005; Runell, 2015; Visher et al., 2010). Moreover, data have shown how postsecondary education (PSE), such as 2- and 4-year training, affects former prisoners and employability. Educational classes performed during incarceration or after entering the community are essential. Additional research has shown the need to determine why correctional institutions are not developing innovative ways for PSE training for inmates. Thus, studies have shown that education is a viable tool necessary for a positive return to the community reducing recidivism and ensuring successful reentry into society.

Background

As formerly incarcerated adults reintegrate back into society, one in three Black men, one in eight White men, and one in 14 Hispanic men between the ages of 20 to 34 do not hold the high school credentials needed to ensure successful reentry into the community upon release (Tolbert, 2012). Formerly incarcerated men are 40% less likely to hold a high school diploma. Tolbert (2012) reported that the formerly incarcerated lack the education and workforce skills needed to succeed in the labor market and the cognitive skills (e.g., the ability to solve problems and reason) needed to address the challenges of reentry. They also have cognitive deficits associated with criminal behavior; fewer have completed college coursework, have limited work experience, and struggle to find employment once released (Tolbert, 2012).

Although most state and federal prisons offer adult education, career, and technical education programs, some facilities provide PSE, which has not kept pace with the growing prison population. Individuals supervised under community supervision programs such as the parole or probation system have shown how often the officials are ineffective (Tolbert, 2012). Low participation in adult education programs before and after prison release may be due to a lack of programs or an understanding of program opportunities. Reduced services such as those due to state budget constraints, insufficient personal motivation, and competing demands such as employment may take precedence over pursuing education and contribute to low participation in correctional programs (Crayton & Neusteter, 2008). Therefore, formerly incarcerated individuals cited

education, job training, and employment as vital needs not generally met during incarceration or after release (Koo, 2015; Visher & Lattimore, 2007).

Education is essentially the foundation for eliminating disparities in an ex-offender life when he or she is returning to the community (Muhlhausen, 2018). PSE is a vital and untapped resource for understanding the necessity of correctional education. According to Contardo and Tolbert (2008), the educational gap exists at higher educational levels. Less than one fourth of all state and federal inmates have PSE (Duwe, 2017; Taliferro, 2018). Researchers have conclusively stated that obtaining a college education in today's knowledge-based global economy is increasingly important (Contardo & Tolbert, 2008; Taliferro, 2018). The economy is experiencing seismic changes resulting in new wealth, new patterns of international trade, and a shift in the balance of capital over labor, creating a profound restructuring in the job market, especially in higher levels of education (Contardo & Tolbert, 2008; Taliferro, 2018). Highly skilled professions in management, professional, technical, and executive sales are changing. The wage gap has widened between the most and least experienced workers resulting in men with a bachelor's degree earning twice as much over their lifetime as men without degrees (Contardo & Tolbert, 2008; Kirsch et al., 2007).

Researchers have argued that spending time in prison decreases one's ability to cope in the community and to find and maintain employment that provides a livable wage (Contardo & Tolbert, 2008; Oluwasegun et al., 2019). Formerly incarcerated men earn 11% less per hour and 40% less per year than individuals who were never incarcerated (Tolbert, 2012). As a result, many former inmates return to their criminal behavior

because they lack the educational and social skills required to function in society (Western et al., 2001; Visser et al., 2004). Employment increases with education for inmates before leaving prison despite the barriers (Sampson & Laub, 1997; The Leadership Education Conference Fund, 2013; Uggen, 2000).

Subsequently, the study heightened the awareness of PSE and its effectiveness for inmates returning to the community after incarceration. Although education is essential to excel in society today, it is also necessary to encourage correctional-based programs examining PSE. These programs provide ex-prisoners with gainful knowledge, preparation, and skill readiness to reenter the workforce after incarceration. This study furnished policymakers with information that fosters an understanding of how PSE, such as some college, 2- and 4-year degrees, bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and other graduate-level studies, serve as a medium to support more correctional-based learning programs. Subsequently, prison-based programs need to train inmates leaving prison prepared to transition into a currently economically advanced global society.

Problem Statement

Job satisfaction provides positive contributions, reduces stress, increases loyalty, and raises efficiency and quality in the workplace (Gurbuz, 2007; Lalitamishra, 2018; Mehrad & Zangeneh, 2017). PSE has increased employment opportunities for previously incarcerated individuals (Zoukis, 2015). It has increased the likelihood of employment by 25% for individuals incarcerated (Taliaferro, 2018; Zoukis, 2015). Nevertheless, people with academic and vocational training are 63% more likely to be employed after incarceration (Taliaferro, 2018; Zoukis, 2015). Consequently, education is a viable tool

that aids in job satisfaction, and employability necessitates the importance of correctional education to rehabilitate offenders before leaving prison (Chamberlain, 2011; Gurbuz, 2007; Robinson, 2016; Taliaferro, 2018; Taliaferro & Pham, 2018). Research, however, has not shown how PSE, such as some college, 2- and 4-year degrees, bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and other graduate-level studies, affects the job satisfaction of former prisoners, nor have researchers shown what impact education has on re-employability when training during incarceration.

Job satisfaction of adults reentering the workforce after incarceration is positively affected when education, employment, and cognitive skills have strengthened. Individuals with higher levels of education tend to have increased opportunities for employment (Duwe & Clark, 2014; Schwartz, 2015; Skorton & Altschuler, 2013; Taliaferro, 2018). With stable employment and education, individuals have a better chance of meeting their social cognition, self-efficacy, and job satisfaction goals (Chamberlain, 2012; Yakin & Erdilb, 2012). Self-efficacy provides a foundation for motivation and personal accomplishment, making individuals feel competent to perform their jobs and work-related tasks (Yakin & Erdilb, 2012). As a result, researchers have shown that self-efficacy controls individual behavior, thoughts, and motivation related to job satisfaction (Adebomi et al., 2012). Employee satisfaction promotes a more motivated and loyal workforce that leads to greater organizational output in the form of goods and services, resulting in the improvement of the organization (Haq & Chandio, 2014). Research has shown that more studies need to be conducted on formerly incarcerated adults who attained PSE to explore further its effect on job satisfaction (Cox, 2015).

Purpose of the Study

In this quantitative quasi-experimental study, I explored the effects of job satisfaction and PSE on adults returning to the workforce after incarceration, the impact of self-efficacy and organizational commitment on job satisfaction, and the effect of various levels of PSE, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment of formerly incarcerated individuals. Furthermore, education and self-efficacy may lead to positive outcomes related to organizational commitment.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions and associated hypotheses examined to address the identified gap were as follows:

Research Question 1: Does employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy predict their job satisfaction?

*H*₀1: Employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy do not predict job satisfaction.

*H*_a1: Employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy predict job satisfaction.

Research Question 2: Does employee organizational commitment, as measured by the Organizational Commitment Survey moderate the ability of their age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy to predict their job satisfaction?

*H*₀2: Employee organizational commitment does not moderate the ability of age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy to predict job satisfaction.

H_{a2}: Employee organizational commitment moderates the ability of age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy to predict job satisfaction.

Theoretical Framework

During this study, Bandura's social cognitive theory (1977) addressed ways of introducing rewards and reinforcements in attaining and modifying positive behavior resulting in self-efficacy. Bandura believed we learn by example and pattern our behavior after others. From the perspective of social cognitive theory, goal-oriented behavior is affected by self-efficacy, outcome expectations, environmental supports, and resources (Yakin & Erdilb, 2012). Additionally, self-efficacy is a critical predictor of adjustment and the degree to which employees use effective behavioral strategies (Liu, 2011). According to the self-efficacy theory, individuals judge their ability to cope with new challenges, and as a result, they develop domain-specific self-efficacy beliefs (Yakin & Erdilb, 2012).

Nevertheless, as inmates have participated in work release programs, Astray-Caneda et al. (2011) have shown the necessity of prisoners working for local businesses requiring vocational training and job skills. The authors added that these training programs involved varying degrees of counseling and provided close monitoring of prisoners. The training programs have also included role models and mentoring programs to increase self-efficacy and changes in learned behaviors from their previous or past environment (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). The social cognitive theory reinforces that learning occurs in a social context (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011).

Bandura's work showed that people are more effective when they pattern and model their behavior after others when introduced to rewards and reinforcements. Furthermore, Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) has illustrated the need for identifying factors that explain what motivates people in the workplace. Expectancy theory is a cognitive process theory of motivation, indicating that strong effort will lead to good performance, and good performance will lead to desired rewards (Lunenburg, 2011). The expectancy theory is a cognitive process theory of motivation based on the idea that people believe there are relationships between the effort they put forth at work, the performance they achieve from that effort, and the rewards they receive from their effort and performance (Lunenburg, 2011). Positive behavior tends to lead to a favorable outcome when individuals are offered rewards and reinforcements in the workplace.

Nature of Study

This quantitative study included men and women between the ages of 18 to 60 located within a 10-mile radius of Savannah, Georgia. The focus of the study being on the impact PSE has on prior incarcerated job-related behaviors required purposeful sampling to ensure that the participants included both previously imprisoned individuals as well as those who had never been. Besides participant demographic characteristics of employee age, PSE attainment, and prior incarceration status used as predictors, study data were collected using three instruments: the predictor self-efficacy assessed by the New General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSES; Chen et al., 2001), the criterion job satisfaction assessed by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1997), and the moderator organizational commitment as assessed by the Organizational Commitment

Survey (OCS; Meyers & Allen, 1993). Participants provided demographic information and completed the instruments online, before and after work, during their break, and at other times without disrupting the typical work. Multiple regression analysis was conducted in IBM SPSS to address the research questions.

Definitions

The following definitions were used for operational terms used in this research:

- *Job satisfaction* is an essential component of employee motivation and encouragement toward better performance (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015) and has been defined as employee satisfaction (Haq & Chandio, 2014; Kessuwan & Muenjohn, 2010).
- *Mental illness* is a mental, behavioral, and emotional disorder that may vary in impact ranging from no impairment to mild, moderate, and even severe (National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 2019).
- *Organizational commitment* suggests the relationship between an employee and an organization. It focuses on an individual's desire to remain in an organization or abandon it. Organizational commitment consists of three commitment components: affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Wolowska, 2014).
- *Postsecondary education (PSE)* is all instruction provided to individuals who have completed secondary education, terminated their secondary education, or are beyond the age of compulsory school attendance (Putnam, 1981).

- *Postsecondary correctional education (PSCE)* is any kind of education, vocational or academic coursework taken for college credit that occurs after an inmate has received a GED or high school diploma (Contardo & Tolbert, 2008; Gorgol & Sponsler, 2011).
- *Recidivism* is habitual offending, an act of a person repeating an undesirable behavior after he has either experienced a negative consequence of the behavior. It also refers to the percentage of prisoners rearrested for a similar offense (Mohammed & Mohammed, 2015).
- *Self-efficacy* is a person's perceived capabilities to perform or a belief in one's abilities to organize and execute a course of action required to obtain a goal (Niu, 2010).
- *Substance abuse* is defined as the harmful or hazardous use of psychoactive substances, including alcohol and illicit drugs (World Health Organization [WHO], 2019).

Assumptions

The assumptions for this study included the understanding that the participants had completed secondary education and/or a high school equivalency program and PSE, including some college, 2- and 4-year degrees, bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and other graduate-level studies before leaving a prison facility. Further assumptions included in this study suggest that individuals participating in the research did so honestly and openly participate in the survey process without fear of any barriers that may impede the vetting process. It is further assumed that PSE aids in successful employment based on

the academic level regardless of the former prisoner's criminal background. These assumptions are necessary because education affects employment and the successful progression of ex-prisoners back into society (Duwe, 2018; Koo, 2015).

Delimitations

The scope of this study included individuals 18-60 years of age and older, previously incarcerated, returning to society with education and work-related issues. Individuals identified in this population may also have substance use and/or mental illness problems. This study measured the effects of PSE, including some college, 2- and 4-year degrees, bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and other graduate-level studies, on incarcerated individuals' job satisfaction. Thus, in this study, I did not evaluate the effects of work-related training programs such as technical training, certification, and/or diploma programs. The job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy of the participants in the work-related training programs were not measured.

Limitations

The study posed various limitations, suggesting that formerly incarcerated individuals may experience many barriers due to a lack of PSE before leaving a correctional facility. Thus, higher education beyond a high school diploma is essential to transition into the current technological and economic society (Taliferro, 2018). Other factors may include actively identifying formerly incarcerated skilled workers to participate in the study with some college, 2- and 4-year degrees, bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and other graduate-level studies and individuals of various races/ethnicities. Some biases may include influencing organizations such as correctional

facilities, regardless of the outcomes of this study, to implement, develop, and infuse additional funding resources to provide PSCE into their curriculum. The study also provided further evidence of the necessity of implementing a PSCE and the need to develop a pre-quantified list of organizations to fund PSE programs in state, federal, and local community jails throughout the country. Developing a program of this nature may not be equally important to lawmakers, politicians, and individuals working in correctional environments. Also, the final shortcoming of this study is that this is not a true experiment, making it challenging to derive causal conclusions.

Significance of the Study

This research filled the gap and identified the basis for PSE and its importance to job satisfaction, especially after incarceration. Preparation for postincarceration employment upon release showed that PSCE completion is essential. Although seldom done, many inmates leave jail and prison facilities unprepared to return to the community. As a result, recidivism usually occurs within 3 years of release (Florida Department of Corrections, 2010; Schwartz, 2015). Additionally, the odds of gaining postrelease employment are 13% higher for inmates who participated in correctional education programs than those who did not, including both academic and vocational programs (Gierzynski, 2015).

Furthermore, this research supports correctional learning and academia, prison reform, reentry studies, and organizations that support correctional studies, such as the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMSHA). Studying job satisfaction and the effects of PSE on ex-offenders has significantly impacted the

understanding of how to serve the formerly incarcerated better. More than 630,000 inmates leave federal and state prisons yearly with limited educational resources to successfully survive as they reintegrate into society (Fredericksen & Omli, 2016).

Summary and Transition

The formerly incarcerated population faces many societal concerns. The population consists of individuals between the ages of 18-60 and older, veterans, substance abusers, and individuals with mental illnesses. Approximately 630,000 people were released from prisons due to a nationwide effort to lower incarceration (Fredericksen & Omli, 2016). These people face many barriers upon reentering society, such as a lack of education, no employment, or, if they find employment, they experience low wages, making it challenging to acquire and maintain affordable housing. Education is essential, especially PSE, such as technical and vocational training, 2- and 4-year college program, entrepreneurial experience, and business ownership.

Subsequently, engaging in adult learning, whether high school equivalency or college, decreases the likelihood that ex-prisoners will return to prison, increases opportunities for employment, and serves as a powerful reintegration tool in society (Schwartz, 2015). Although education seems to be the tool for successful reintegration, few states provide the much-needed resources to aid the formerly incarcerated individual in a better lifestyle before release (Davis, 2019; Schwartz, 2015). Much of the research on PSCE focuses on the impact of education on recidivism; however, the contributions of educators delivering PSE to incarcerated students while in prison have been overlooked (Bannon, 2014).

Few prison facilities have defrayed the cost of prison education, especially PSE. With inmates losing their ability to receive the Pell Grant in 1994, institutions refuse to pay to educate inmates as they prepare to return to society (Contardo & Tolbert, 2008). As a result, a gap in the literature requires further investigation because PSE is crucial to prison reentry initiatives and employment after incarceration. Existing programs require additional investigation on ways to improve prison standards to prepare inmates during incarceration but before they are released. Furthermore, more research is needed to fund inmate education programs while in prison and investigate ways to aid in prison reform successfully. Chapter 2 is the literature review; it presents an extrapolation of the literature that reveals the association of PSE, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment to job satisfaction. In the literature review, I discuss the literature showing the necessity of PSE provided prior to the release of the ex-offender and its significance in obtaining employment. Chapter 3 presents the research methodology for the study, including the target population, sample, instruments, design, and analyses. In Chapter 4, the corresponding results are presented. Chapter 5 provides a summary, discussion, conclusions, and recommendations and covers the implications for social change.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The average U.S. incarcerated population is nearly 1.5 million, with approximately 620,000 people released annually (Bronson & Carson, 2019). Of those 1.5 incarcerated, 80% have had substance abuse issues (Wagner & Rabuy, 2017). Many formerly incarcerated people are less educated, have difficulty finding employment, and are often homeless (SAMHSA, 2016).

Former inmates are five times more likely to be unemployed than the general public, and people of color and women are more affected (Couloute & Kopf, 2018). Because of their criminal record, former inmates face job discrimination and often can only find low-paying jobs (Rakis, 2005; Zakaria et al., 2018). These low-wage labor markets also tend to discriminate against people with criminal records (Hlavka et al., 2015). These problems are exacerbated when former offenders cannot read instructions, apply fundamental mathematical skills, and utilize vital information needed for employability (Zakaria et al., 2018). In addition, those previously incarcerated individuals cannot work in certain sectors due to their criminal background (Brown & Rios, 2014; Zakaria et al., 2018).

Nearly 52,000 individuals who left correctional facilities in 2017 entered transitional facilities and emergency shelters (Henry et al., 2018). Consequently, the formerly incarcerated population is 10 times more likely to be homeless than the general public and rely on homeless shelters for housing soon after their release from jail or prison and long-term accommodations (Couloute, 2018). Recent studies also indicate that previously incarcerated individuals include substance abusers and people with mental

illnesses who, in returning to society, need assistance and lack many of the social and personal skills required to reintegrate into the community (Ferguson et al., 2016; Hlavka et al., 2015).

According to Crabbe (2016), education is one of the most critical factors affecting employability because it allows an employer to discern if an applicant will perform well in their job. Education reduces the time it takes for an ex-offender to find employment and leads to them receiving comparable wages (Gowan & Lepak, 2007; Zimmer, 2016). Correctional education programs, including literacy classes, work readiness, vocational training, and General Education Development (GED), are provided for inmates in the federal and state penal system (Oakford et al., 2019). In 2014, 70% of the incarcerated population expressed interest in PSE, while 29% were interested in completing college (Oakford et al., 2019).

A total of 9% of inmates completed PSE, including 7% that completed college or trade school and 2% that received an associate degree (Oakford et al., 2019). Adult education increases employment opportunities for former inmates and serves as a powerful reintegration tool in society (Delaney et al., 2016; Oakford et al., 2019). Former inmates who have engaged in adult education, whether high school equivalency or college, decrease their likelihood of returning to prison (Couloute, 2018; Delaney et al., 2016; Schwartz, 2015).

More than 625,000 former inmates return to the community yearly, often recidivating within 3 years of their release because they return to society without the necessary skills to meet their basic economic needs in education and employment (Davis,

2019; LaBriola, 2020; Strait & Eaton, 2017). Individuals incarcerated in U.S. prisons are disadvantaged due to their low educational attainment, making it challenging to find employment that provides a living wage upon release (Davis, 2019). Inmates participating in correctional education programs are 28% less likely to recidivate when compared with inmates who do not participate in correctional educational programs (Bozick et al., 2018). Inmates are less likely to obtain postrelease employment when returning to society without receiving correctional education (Bozick et al., 2018; Davis, 2019). It is also challenging for formerly incarcerated people to find employment because of the hiring policies and practices that discriminate against people with criminal convictions. If an employer is willing to hire a formerly incarcerated person, jobs that pay a living wage increasingly require at least some PSE (Strait & Eaton, 2017). According to a study conducted at the Georgetown Center on Education and the Workforce, a college education is necessary to compete for many jobs in today's economy. Two thirds of job postings required some college education level by 2020 (Carnevale et al., 2013). The Bureau of Labor Statistics lists 174 occupations requiring a bachelor's degree or entry-level education. It is projected that employment in these occupations will grow by 10% in ten years (Torpey, 2018).

Former inmates are more likely to face other employment issues, such as finding quality employment after incarceration. Finding high-quality employment instead of low-quality employment upon release is essential. Former inmates who find employment after prison in an industry that offers relatively high-quality employment are less likely to be arrested or recidivate within two years after employment (LaBriola, 2020). High-quality

employment includes occupations such as manufacturing, construction, or employment in the transportation industry. These jobs give employees the potential for increased earnings and a sense to achieve normative economic and social goals (LaBriola, 2020).

Literature Search Strategy

Several techniques were used to research this study on PSE, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment impact on previously incarcerated employee job satisfaction. I utilized several library databases, such as Walden University, Savannah Technical College, the Juvenile Justice Database, the Urban Institute, the National Institute of Corrections, and Google Scholar. In each of these databases, I used terms such as *displaced workers, reintegration, re-entry, job satisfaction, incarceration, education, education and inmates, post-secondary education, college degrees in prison, employment and confinement, prison reform, correctional education, and job satisfaction/post-secondary education*. Consequently, specific terms such as *incarcerate, prison, or recidivism* were used to develop further and redefine the search. Terms such as *college or university; employment or re-entry or job satisfaction; offender and post-secondary education or university and recidivism; offender, work, recidivism, or reoffending; and offender, self-efficacy, and work* were searched in the EBSCO database. Ex-prisoners, organizational behavior, and employment were placed on the EBSCO database's first, second, and third tiers stored on Walden University's website, generating approximately 23,803 resources.

Within EBSCO's database, I used several research databases, such as Psychology, Business Management, Criminal Justice, Military and Government, and Education. These

databases provided supplementary possibilities, which narrowed the search to years, specific references, journals, peer review articles, books, and abstracts. I limited the research to a 5-year investigation. Some of the most recent documents provided information to enhance the search for workforce development after incarceration. Moreover, using the Juvenile Justice Database, the Urban Institute, the National Institute of Corrections, and Google Scholar, I entered various combinations of terms into the search engine, such as *job satisfaction*, *promotion*, *education*, *post-secondary education*, *low-income workers*, *ex-prisoner*, and *formerly incarcerated workers*, which generated 69 to 118 entries. Finally, limitations of the search to review the most current studies included few dissertations, peer reviews, or scholarly articles showing how PSE affects returning citizens into society to obtain employment beyond secondary education. Therefore, I used the phrases *investigate programs*, *additional correctional facilities*, *educational institutions*, *business training*, and or *entrepreneur training offered in facilities before re-entry* to complete the search.

Underlying Theoretical Considerations

There are two primary theoretical frameworks that provided a backdrop to the current study. The first is Bandura's social cognitive theory, which has shown the effect self-efficacy has on people when rewards and reinforcements are introduced in the workplace. The second is Vroom's expectancy theory, which has shown that efforts lead to expectancy, ultimately resulting in a positive outcome once rewards are introduced.

Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura's social cognitive theory has been shown effective when people pattern and model their behavior after others (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011; Bandura, 1977). People learn in a social context (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). Bandura's social learning theory has determined how behavior influences expectancies or outcomes (Rosenstock et al., 1988). According to Bandura (1977), cognitive processes dominate factors used to attain and retain behavior patterns.

As human behavior emulates patterns, brief experiences leave a permanent message in the mind (Bandura, 1977). The acquired behavior guides constructive behavior patterns learned through observation and is readjusted based on performance feedback (Bandura, 1977). Thus, individuals master responses or behavioral patterns to appropriately use or perform in specific settings (Bandura, 1977). This theory has shown that reinforcement, secondary goal setting, and self-evaluation are motivational factors that contribute to expected outcomes in the workforce, leading to individual success (Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022).

The social cognitive theory in organizational psychology has been used in the workforce, focusing on personality characteristics, including beliefs, attitudes, previous experiences, expectations, and goals (Bandura, 1977; Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022). Also, the theory has been applied to performance, training, and motivation relative to cross-cultural training, self-regulation, and self-management in human resource development (Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022). The social cognitive theory emphasizes a person's ability to influence change in personality characteristics, behavior, and

capabilities using skills through social interactions, performance feedback, and modeling persuasion (Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022). A person can change his “destiny” or course of life by making decisions following the evaluation of life’s events (Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022).

When people can self-educate, self-develop, and self-regulate their actions through challenges, they will change their lives (Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022). The higher a person’s self-efficacy, the easier it is to navigate life’s challenges, complete tasks, and succeed in a situation (Bandura, 1989; Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022). However, when a person has low self-efficacy, they have difficulties completing tasks and are unsuccessful in situations (Bandura, 1989; Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022). For example, in the workplace, when self-efficacy is high, an employee performs a task well, watches someone complete a task, or if an individual believes that they can complete the task based on previous experience, the person will more likely complete the task without difficulty (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011; Bandura, 1989; Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022).

In human resource development, the social cognitive theory enhances self-management when employees model behavior and persuade employees to accomplish tasks or goals (Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022). The theory is further demonstrated when an employee is trained to master achievements and create experiences that enhance their beliefs about their capabilities to perform tasks (Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022).

Motivation is also used in the social cognitive theory revealing self-set goals. Efficacy and self-set goals are mediators revealing achievements increasing self-efficacy due to perceptions or perceived behaviors (Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022). When someone

experiences high self-efficacy, the chances are greater that they will perform the task when it is given to them to complete (Bandura, 1989; Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022).

Social Learning

Social learning underlines the concept that learning occurs within a social environment (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). It has been suggested that people learn from observing the behavior and the outcome of others. It also states that people learn from one another, including observational learning, which has four components: attention, retention, motor reproduction, and motivation (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011; Bandura, 1977; Stanley et al., 2020). Nabavi (2012) has stated that the theory suggests we learn from our interactions with others in a social context, independently observing the behaviors of others and people with similar behaviors. After watching the behavior of others, people assimilate and imitate the behavior, especially if their observational experiences are positive or include rewards related to the observed behavior (Nabavi, 2012).

Self-Efficacy

According to Bandura (1999), self-efficacy implies having self-confidence in an individual's abilities to organize, implement a specific course of action, and manage precise circumstances. Self-efficacy influences how people think, feel, motivate themselves, and act (Bandura, 1999). Pro-social behavior programs assist offenders in understanding the consequences of their actions while recommending a successful transition of former prisoners is advised (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). Likewise, the social learning theory reinforces the idea that learning occurs within a social context and

suggests that people learn from observing behaviors and the outcomes of their behaviors (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). Social learning identifies a continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental influences (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). These interactions indicate the process of Bandura's theory of modeling and suggest that the control of individual behaviors is through self-regulation (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). Self-regulation involves three processes: self-observation, self-judgment, and self-response. Thus, the social learning theory concentrates on learning within a social context.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) illustrated the need to identify factors that motivate people in the workplace. It is a cognitive antecedent that applies motivation and work effort or ability (Lunenburg, 2011). Thus, expectancy theory is a cognitive process theory of motivation based on the idea that people believe there are relationships between the effort they put forth at work, the performance they achieve from that effort, the rewards they receive from their actions, and performance (Lunenburg, 2011). The expectancy theory was expanded and refined by Porter, Lawler, and others (Lunenburg, 2011). Its four assumptions denote that people join organizations with expectations about satisfying their needs, motivations, and past experiences (Lunenburg, 2011). These expectations have influenced how individuals react to the organization and have shown that individual behavior is a conscious choice (Lunenburg, 2011).

Vroom's expectancy theory has three key elements that correlate with individuals expecting a positive outcome for their performance (Zboja et al., 2020). These three

elements, which indicate that people want different things from their organization and choose among alternatives to optimize their outcomes (Lunenburg, 2011), are (a) expectancy—motivated to the extent effort is thought to lead to performance; (b) instrumentality—the degree performance will be rewarded; and (c) valence—the level to which rewards are valued (Min et al., 2020; Zboja et al., 2020).

Individual effort resulting in a specific outcome is grounded on probabilities and ranges from 0 to 1 defines expectancy. In other words, if an employee sees no chance that effort will lead to the desired performance level, the expectancy is 0; if the employee is completely certain of completing the task, the expectancy has a value of 1 (Lunenburg, 2011). Instrumentality has shown the estimated probability that an achieved task performance led to various work outcomes ranging from 0 to 1 (Lunenburg, 2011). For example, if an employee sees that a good performance rating always results in a salary increase, the instrumentality has a value of 1. If there is no perceived relationship between a good performance rating and a salary increase, the instrumentality has a value of 0 (Lunenburg, 2011). Valence is the strength of an employee's preference for a particular reward. Thus, salary increases, promotions, peer acceptance, recognition by supervisors, or any other reward have more or less value to individual employees (Lunenburg, 2011). Valence will either show positive or negative values provided an employee's preference for attaining the reward. If the employee desires a reward, the valence is positive. Still, the employee lacks the potential and motivation required to obtain the reward showing negative results in a valence of 0 with a total range from -1 to +1. The reward has a valence related to the employee's needs. Consequently, motivation

can be expressed in the equation: $\text{Motivation} = \text{Expectancy} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Valence}$ (Lunenburg, 2011).

Job Satisfaction

Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job and job experiences.” Raziq and Maulabakhsh (2015) proposed that job satisfaction is an essential factor that affects employee motivation and encouragement and imposes or endorses better performance. Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as how people feel about their job and their various aspects. He further suggested that job satisfaction has to do with the extent to which people like or dislike their job. Öktem and Öztoprak (2020) have also described job satisfaction as an employee’s attitude towards the responsibility received. Job satisfaction identifies an assessment of employees and how satisfied they are with their jobs while comparing to other workers based on relative standards in the work context (Al-Kahtani et al., 2021). Additional researchers have defined job satisfaction as “a positive feeling about a job, resulting from assessing and evaluating its characteristics” (Robbins & Judge, 2013) and as “the attitudes and feelings people have about their work” (Kessuwan & Muenjohn, 2010). Job satisfaction can also refer to employee attitudes and feelings about work, where a positive and favorable indicates satisfaction, while a negative and unfavorable one indicates dissatisfaction (Lalitamishra, 2018).

Job Satisfaction is the most important job attitude and one of the leading research topics in organizational literature (Akgunduz et al., 2018). Job satisfaction depends upon an individual’s assessment of the tasks accomplished, work conditions, and work

environment (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). If these qualities have a positive assessment, work satisfaction exists, but if the result of the evaluation is negative, the worker will show dissatisfaction; thus, cognition and affect indicators of job satisfaction (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). The cognitive component involves work-related characteristics, while affective components refer to positive or negative components indicating employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their job (Judge & Kammeyer-

According to Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012), there are two ways of assessing job satisfaction: unidimensional (i.e., job satisfaction is perceived holistically) or multidimensional (e.g., satisfaction with promotion prospects, colleagues, or benefits). Viseu et al. (2020) also examined how employees feel when organizational values, contributions, and concern for their well-being are investigated. The employee develops positive perceptions of the organization and favorable perceptions reinforcing organizational health. Therefore, perceiving organizational support is an enabler of positive organizational-related outcomes (Viseu et al., 2020).

Weiss (2002) distinguishes three related aspects of job satisfaction: an individual's job, beliefs, and affective experiences. Weiss continued to express evaluation as the fundamental factor of job satisfaction, defined as positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about their job or situation (Weiss, p.175, 2002). When employee needs meet physically and psychologically, productivity and motivation will increase, while absenteeism and turnover will reduce (Spector, 1997). As a result, education increases job satisfaction (Gurbuz, 2007; Schudde, 2017). Employees tend to be satisfied with their employment when training fosters professionalism and further encourages

managerial techniques eliminating frustration and a lack of job satisfaction (Gurbuz, 2007).

Das (2002) stated that pay gives social status, prestige, and a sense of security. In a subsequent study, Muhammad and Akhter (2010) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction with salary, supervision, and opportunities for promotion. They hypothesized that job satisfaction and salary are correlated. There is greater job satisfaction with supportive supervision, and job satisfaction is higher if promotion opportunities exist (Muhammad & Akhter, 2010). The results confirmed that salary, supervision, and promotion opportunities are important predictors of employee job satisfaction (Muhammad & Akhter, 2010).

Akgunduz et al. (2018) found when employees believe their work is meaningful and important, their job satisfaction increases. When the alignment of job requirements, values, beliefs, and behaviors occurs, employees experience creativeness improving their performance and productivity (Akgunduz et al., 2018). Supervisors with positive behaviors are directly related to employees and job satisfaction (Howard & Frink, 1996). An employee-centered method supervisor can maintain good human relations in industries that help to achieve organizational goals.

Job Satisfaction and Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a belief or conviction that one can master the situation and produce positive results (outcomes). Self-efficacy is also the individual assessment of confidence in one's ability to perform tasks to obtain results (Benna et al., 2017). Self-efficacy can also illustrate an individual's belief in one's ability to carry out a task.

People who believe in themselves and their ability to succeed will be successful, whereas people who feel like failures tend to fail (Benna et al., 2017). Self-efficacy correlates with job satisfaction, suggesting that a person with high self-efficacy is more likely to succeed in their task, increasing satisfaction with what is done (Benna et al., 2017).

Prasetya et al. (2013) conducted a study showing the relationship between job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and self-esteem. The findings revealed that job satisfaction directly affects the performance of individual self-esteem and self-efficacy. (Prasetya et al., 2013). Subsequently, Benna et al. (2017) have shown no correlation between self-efficacy, self-esteem, and job satisfaction. However, it does show a direct relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance.

Law and Guo (2016) conducted a study showing the correlation between self-efficacy with job satisfaction, job stress, and organizational commitment for correctional officers in the Taiwan prison system. Self-efficacy was significantly related to job satisfaction, while self-efficacy and job satisfaction levels were significantly correlated with organizational commitment (Law & Guo, 2016). The study also has shown that job satisfaction has a significant positive association with organizational commitment, instilling and strengthening a sense of hope and a high degree of self-efficacy for the correctional officers in the prison system (Law & Guo, 2016).

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment refers to the degree to which personnel identifies with the level of commitment, the company they work for, and the satisfaction within the organization (Culibrk et al., 2018). Organizational commitment can also be recognized as

an extension of job satisfaction because it focuses on the positive attitude individuals have for their organization, their emotional attachment, and their willingness to make sacrifices (Culibrk et al., 2018). Organizational commitment describes the psychological bond personnel make to comply with their organization's purpose, values, and alignment in sharing common goals (Aksoy & Yalcinsoy, 2018). Meyer and Allen (1993) suggested three components of organizational commitment: affective, continuance and normative commitment are derived from an individual's emotional willingness to remain employed in a business based on their individual preference, a sense of obligation, and responsibility (Meyer & Allen, 1993).

Culibrk et al. (2018) acknowledged the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and individual commitment to their organization. Employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment are vital to increasing the motivational level of an employee while reducing stress and increasing productivity within an organization (Latham & Budworth, 2007). Hence, organizations are concerned with the associations between employees, their level of satisfaction, and the critical issues relative to organization performance and improvement (Alromaihi et al., 2017). Research has shown companies that recognize workers' opinions in making decisions are more committed to their organization (Prabawa & Supartha, 2018; Zhao et al., 2020).

Viseu et al. (2020) studied organizational support and organizational health as predictor variables of job satisfaction. The researchers have shown that these predictor variables play a crucial role and positively relate to the job satisfaction of hotel and hospitality employees. Park et al. (2019) indicated that this concept played a crucial role

for hospitality employees. Cheng and O-Yang (2018), in a study conducted with Taiwanese frontline hotel employees, observed that perceived organizational support was positively related to job satisfaction.

Organizations show interest in developing their employees' job satisfaction since satisfied workers are more engaged and committed, have increased physical and psychological health, and present lower absenteeism and turnover intention rates (Hantula, 2015; Southgate & Mondo, 2017). To understand the essentials of individual and organizational-related mechanisms that allow the achievement of a satisfied workforce, the researchers also examined two individual variables related to job satisfaction. Positive psychological capital (PsyCap) and creative personality are predictors of job satisfaction.

PsyCap is a construct from the positive organizational behavior framework and is composed of four elements, self-efficacy - confidence to achieve objectives; hope - attain goals or develop alternative strategies to accomplish them, optimism - make positive attributions about the present and future; and resilience - ability to resist the adversities that emerge at the workplace and overcome them (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2015). PsyCap has shown a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Workers who perceive that their organization is performing well internally and externally will be more confident about their skills, develop a positive perspective regarding the present and future, create paths for goal-achievement, and face adverse situations when they arise (Viseu et al., 2020). Other studies have shown that employees with high PsyCap are more satisfied with their jobs, having an overflow effect on other

kinds of satisfaction, such as career and life (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Paeka et al., 2015). Empirical studies have shown the relationship between PsyCap and creativity, suggesting that high self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience promote a higher creative performance (Newman et al., 2014).

Employees are more committed to their organization when they are gratified with their income, experience fair work practices, and receive promotion opportunities and manager's support (Eslami & Gharakhani, 2012; Loan, 2020). However, as a dependent variable, organizational commitment increases job satisfaction; committed employees work hard for their organization's vision and benefits, affecting budget emphasis and behaviors of managers, leading to their choice of reward system for employees (Loan, 2020; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992). Organizational commitment is not the result of workers' attitudes toward their work, but it is the cause of changes that increase job satisfaction (Loan, 2020). Bateman and Strasser (1984) proposed that organizational commitment influences job satisfaction, which determines employee turnover. Organizational commitment and job satisfaction affect job performance proposing a relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance (Loan, 2020). Other aspects of organizational commitment may include studying attitudinal, affective, and cognitive constructs such as job satisfaction, responsibility, age, and job tenure (Lalitamishra, 2018).

Loan (2020) has stated that organizational commitment influences job satisfaction, affecting job performance. Organizational commitment provides ongoing gratification by addressing employees' emotional attachment and sense of responsibility

to the company. Job satisfaction correlates with the fulfillment of immediate needs such as working conditions, income, relationships with coworkers and managers, and promotion opportunities (Loan, 2020). Hee et al. (2020) conducted a study on job satisfaction among academic staff in Malaysia. Top management leaders found a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction (Hee et al., 2020). Top management leaders significantly improve academic staff and job satisfaction (You et al., 2017).

Employees are more likely to be committed to their organization when they are satisfied with the payment, fairness at work, promotion opportunities, and the manager's support (Eslami & Gharakhani, 2012). However, organizational commitment increases job satisfaction; committed employees work hard for their organization's vision and benefits (Vandenberg & Lance, 1992). When these variables comply collectively, attitude affects budget emphasis and behaviors of managers, leading to their choice of reward system for employees resulting in organizational commitment. It does not affect employee attitudes toward their work, but it is the cause of changes expected to increase their job satisfaction (Hee et al., 2020). Thus, organizational commitment has been shown to increase job satisfaction providing additional support for the positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Soenanta et al., 2020).

Employee satisfaction and organizational commitment increase employee motivation, reduce stress, and increase productivity (Lalitamishra, 2018). Employees are valuable assets for the continued existence of an organization. For the continued success of organizations, job satisfaction is an important indicator of how employees feel about

their jobs and a predictor of work behaviors such as organizational citizenship, absenteeism, and turnover for tremendous organizational success (Donald et al., 2016). When job satisfaction does not exist, low levels of satisfaction lead to less work commitment and high employee turnovers, leading to physical, emotional, or mental withdrawals, less employee commitment, and subsequently, leaving the organization (Donald et al., 2016).

Job Satisfaction and PSE

More than 80% of all jobs in today's economy require some form of education or training beyond high school, and virtually all new jobs created since 2008 have been given to workers with at least some PSE (Brown, 2018). Schudde (2017) has indicated that increasing levels of PSE attainment predict several positive employment outcomes. Education attainment has positively predicted employer-provided fringe benefits such as health and dental insurance, retirement, and paid leave (Schudde, 2017). Also, educational attainment positively predicts job satisfaction and the ability to work on a flexible schedule showing the relationship of controls diminishing. Thus, the effect of educational attainment on flexible schedules slightly reduces the relationship between educational attainment and job satisfaction (Schudde, 2017). Ahmadi (2020) has shown findings of academic self-esteem, except success/failure are associated directly with students' academic self-efficacy. Self-efficacy hinges on the fact that in an academic setting, students have perceived capabilities to manage their learning behavior, master academic material, and fulfill academic expectations (Bandura et al., 1999)

Formerly Incarcerated PSE

PSE includes education and training by higher education institutions, including associate and bachelor's degrees from colleges, and universities, career training, and technical education programs (Spataro, 2019). PSE is an essential part of today's society. It is critical due to the technological advances required for employment (Carnevale et al., 2018). Today's workforce calls for education and training beyond high school, with 60% of all jobs requiring PSE (Carnevale et al., 2018). The Bureau of Labor Statistics notes that 174 occupations have entry-level education requirements of a bachelor's degree, and it projects that employment in these occupations will grow by 10% over the next decade (Torpey, 2018).

Between 70 to 100 million people have criminal records, accounting for a third of the population (Shannon et al., 2017). Eventually, 95% of the 2.3 million people incarcerated nationwide will be released back into their communities (Boggs, 2019). Although 66% of job postings require a college education, most individuals returning from prison do not have PSE (Davis, 2019). Individuals released from prison usually have low educational attainment, making it more challenging to find employment that provides a living wage (Davis, 2019). For example, 30% of individuals incarcerated in the U.S. do not have a high-school diploma or GED equivalency, 33% have low literacy levels, and 50% have low numerical skills (Rampey et al., 2016).

Identified Benefits

A meta-analysis examining the effectiveness of correctional education for incarcerated adults in the United States showed participation in correctional education

programs that lower recidivism rates over a 15-year period (Gierzynski, 2015). It indicated inmates participating in an educational program were 13% less likely to recidivate (Gierzynski, 2015). Another meta-analysis determined that incarcerated individuals who participated in a correctional education program had 28% lower odds of reoffending and a 9% reduction in the risk of re-incarcerated after three years (Davis et al., 2018). Furthermore, inmates who had an educational experience in prison saved an average of \$5 for every \$1 spent on prison education, or a total of \$365.8 million per year (Davis, 2019).

Erismann and Contrado (2005), in a study of 1000 former inmates, found that those with associate degrees were 29% less likely to be re-incarcerated. The study also showed that inmates who earned a GED or completed vocational training also had lower recidivism rates (Erismann & Contrado, 2005). Consequently, training and education increase a former inmate's chances of maintaining a sustainable lifestyle (Erismann & Contrado, 2005). Offering educational programs to inmates has been shown to help them reestablish their lives after leaving prison when they return to their communities and decrease their chances of returning to prison (Abeling-Judge, 2019; Boggs, 2019). Therefore, offering the offenders education during incarceration provides a link between employment and a reduction in recidivism (Fullilove et al., 2019; Hall, 2015).

Duwe (2018) showed employment outcomes for the correctional population improve when their access to education and employment programming increases. Duwe determined such programming has improved post-prison employment, reduced prison misconduct, decreased recidivism, and shown strong return on investment (ROI)

outcomes. Changing correction policies and practices have improved education, employment, and public-safety outcomes (Duwe, 2018). Consequently, prison systems could increase, expand, redesign, and develop prison education programs more effectively to eliminate barriers (Duwe, 2018).

Education in prison can offer many benefits, such as keeping individuals occupied in productive tasks that promote social awareness and developing problem-solving skills (Evans et al., 2018). It also improves employment and promotes education upon release (Evans et al., 2018). Most studies focus on education's effect on recidivism, but few explore education benefits while in prison or beyond post-release (Evans et al., 2018). For those who had received PSE in prison, an estimated 10% have a better chance of employment and higher earnings when they reenter the workforce (Boggs, 2019). Correctional education is vital during incarceration to enhance and increase prisoners' employability after release and decrease post-release recidivism (Davis, 2019; Lockwood et al., 2015). This study also showed that recidivism among young, uneducated, or under-educated, unemployed African American males was approximately 70%, indicating a need to address this demographic group when developing re-entry strategies and supports (Lockwood et al., 2015).

Prison education programs, especially for PSE, improve a prison's environment and culture, create a safer facility, and provide the inmate population with a positive post-prison perspective (Boggs, 2019). They help inmates focus on life after prison, maximizing the use of their incarcerated time to rehabilitate and equip themselves to contribute to society within a prison environment that is safe and purposeful (Boggs,

2019). Transitioning back to society presents challenges in learning a new culture, behavior, post-traumatic stress disorder, and forming new mental habits which require special accommodations and support in the classroom (Chaney & Schwartz, 2020). Chaney and Schwartz (2020) found that former inmates form interpersonal relationships, develop networks, and increase knowledge through an academic culture. Further, attending college and obtaining a GED poses a new social culture used to replace the previous culture (Abeling-Judge, 2019; Chaney & Schwartz, 2020).

Binda et al. (2020) found a positive relationship between college programming, transformational impact, and programs that facilitate personal change among incarcerated students. They discovered some interrelated outcomes: 1) increased sense of self-confidence and subsequent ability to re-imagine one's future, and 2) transformational effect of an increased understanding of interrelatedness created by the development of various relationships. These relationships were with families, fellow students, and the wider prison community, including prison staff, college professors, and other personnel (Binda et al., 2020). Binda et al. (2020) determined civically oriented education engages students as leaders of one another, leaders of themselves, and the program through continuous assessments, demonstrating the interventional quality of college prison programs.

Educational Programs

Brown and Rios (2014) report that correctional educators recognize inmates lack the math, reading, and language skills required to succeed in today's workforce. Prison education programs fail to raise their grade level equivalency scores of low-performing

inmates to qualify for GED preparation courses to equip them with the skills to apply for most jobs. A study of 53 inmates participating in the Florida Ready To Work Program (FRTWP) significantly increased their grade levels in reading, mathematics, and language arts after just 60 to 70 hours (Brown & Rios, 2014). Research suggests that FRTWP and similar programs in other states determine the effectiveness of workplace credentialing programs in prisons (Brown & Rios, 2014). The result showed an increase in offender work readiness and employability and decreased recidivism caused by ex-offenders' inability to find and maintain employment (Brown & Rios, 2014).

The North Carolina Pathway Program (NCPP) was designed to address PSE needs and re-entry services for incarcerated individuals (Davis, 2019). It has structured an in-prison college program that allows students to build general credits and earn certifications before release. Programs like NCPP have provided continuous funding to maintain a strong financial base for individuals participating in in-prison educational programs (Davis, 2019).

The Community Development and Policy Studies (CDPS) unit is committed to new ways to integrate formerly incarcerated people into the workforce, communities, and the overall economy (Engel et al., 2016). Their primary interest involved encouraging the business community to hire nonviolent criminal offenders (Engel et al., 2016). Several policies presented to the business community, such as the expungement of records, were made available for individuals less than 25 years old with nonviolent offenses (Engel et al., 2016). Other strategies discussed ensured identifying those skills employers look for

in employees, such as job-specific skills in communication, teamwork, confidence in interpersonal connections, and improvement of education (Engel et al., 2016).

The Fast Forward Initiative Blueprint for Prosperity, in collaboration with the Department of Workforce Development, the Wisconsin Department of Corrections, and the Milwaukee Technical College, found improved wages for former inmates training in construction, technology, and manufacturing (Engel et al., 2016). Engel et al. (2016) concluded that successful re-entry predicates obtaining an excellent job because it provides a sense of purpose each day, a social and economic network, and a stable income that pays for long-term housing (Engel et al., 2016).

Known Challenges

A total of 64% of inmates in state and federal prisons are academically eligible to enroll in PSE programs beyond the GED but do not have the opportunity to do so due to the lack of funding (Boggs, 2019). For incarcerated individuals, the cost has been a key obstacle to obtaining a college education for the last three decades. Before 1994, inmates were eligible to receive Pell Grants to help cover the costs of prison correctional educational programs (Brick & Ajinkya, 2020; Davis, 2019). The RAND group found it is more cost-effective for inmates to participate in correctional education programs than re-incarceration costs. The study showed a hypothetical pool of 100 inmates; the estimated cost for education ranged from \$140,000 to \$174,400 or (\$1,400 to \$1,700 per inmate). While the study also showed that three-year re-incarceration costs for those who did not receive correctional education were estimated to be between \$2.94 million and

\$3.25 million, compared with \$2.07 million and \$2.28 million for those who participated in an educational program (Crabbe, 2016; Davis et al., 2013).

Pell Grants cannot cover higher education institutions' administrative costs or correctional facilities associated with implementing the initiatives (Davis, 2019).

Obtaining PSE while incarcerated is sometimes challenging and can often be very tedious due to guidelines, compliance requirements, and restrictions (Ross, 2019). Nevertheless, the Second Chance Pell Grant currently offers post-secondary correctional education in more than 63 prisons, nearly tripling since the program's inception, leading to the full restoration of the Pell Grant by July 2023 for prisoners (Conway, 2022). Sixty percent of the institutions participating in the Second Chance Pell Grant have some form of educational program (Ross, 2019).

Most states fund only career and technical education programs and apprenticeships, while, in some states, college programs have been paid for by philanthropy or by the students themselves (Davis, 2019). In a RAND group study, 28 states reported that individual inmates paid for their PSE courses while in prison, 16 states stated that families helped pay for PSE courses, and 20 states reported that private funding paid for PSE courses (Davis et al., 2014). Only 16 states used its funding, including 12 states reporting college or university funding to cover PSE costs, and very few states used inmate benefits or welfare funds (Davis, 2019).

Ban the box primarily applies to regulations in the public employment sector restricting or banning previously incarcerated people from specific occupations and industries throughout the country (Fredericksen & Omli, 2016). Moreover, "ban the box"

policies prohibiting investigations into conviction records on employment applications prevent discrimination in hiring, reviewing, and removing mandatory bans on employment. Licensing for specific occupations can also expand access to other types of jobs for those with records (Fredericksen & Omli, 2016).

Due to discrimination practices and negative feedback former prisoners experience in the workplace, they often delay revealing their ex-offender status, which benefits them during the selection process, but hinders their employee progression during their post-release employment experience (Lalitamishra, 2018). The discrimination practices ex-offenders experience in the workforce is often the result of stigmas and stereotypes rather than objective performance or ability (Jones, 1997). These practices often necessitate fewer opportunities and financial rewards, less training, slower promotions, unchallenging work, limited performance appraisals, and strained relationships (Ilgen & Youtz, 1986). Thus, ex-offenders' workplace experiences often include unfair post-hire discrimination treatment from supervisors and co-workers (Baura et al., 2018; Lalitamishra, 2018). Ex-offenders' experience leads to many workforce challenges; however, literature does not adequately expose workplace concerns and ongoing hardships ex-offenders face (Lalitamishra, 2018).

Although ex-offenders have experienced many challenges in the workforce, the literature does not adequately expose workplace concerns and ongoing hardships ex-offenders face (Lalitamishra, 2018). Ex-offenders are twice as likely to receive low-quality employment upon post-release than high-quality employment (LaBriola, 2020).

Low-quality employment, such as in the service industry, requires little to no education or formal training, most often held by ex-offenders (LaBriola, 2020).

Associated Theory

In these programs, various teaching methodologies, theories, and designs aid the inmate learner in accomplishing their academic goals. Carberry (2017) has argued that instructional methods that integrate awareness and knowledge of the attachment theory provide educators with opportunities to form more comprehensive and vibrant approaches to understanding and engaging the different learning styles encountered in the adult education environment. In this approach, teachers use care or serve as caregivers, sensitivity, mind-mindedness, and awareness of the student's emotional life history and previous educational experience, linking personal experience with learning (Carberry, 2017).

Attachment and transformative theories have been used to educate inmates in a prison environment (Carberry, 2017). The concept of masculinity is also applied to the approaches to show how childhood experiences unconsciously influence adulthood (Carberry, 2017). Masculinity reinforces the oppressive nature of social expectations, emotional illiteracy diffusing through the learning experience, and spiritual and emotional development (Carberry, 2017). Prison masculinities reinforce the cultural dynamic of dominance and subordination. It restricts positively exploring oneself emotionally (Carberry, 2017). Hence, the physical and emotional limits implicit in incarceration reinforce the enactment of masculine practices (Carberry, 2017).

Transformative learning involves a change in the learner (Tonseth & Bergsland, 2019). A dramatic change in how a person experiences, conceptualizes, and interacts with the world (Hoggan, 2015). A meta-analysis of transformative learning refers to it as making minor changes but could include learning outcomes representing both depth and breadth of change (Hoggan, 2015). Depth refers to the impact of change or the degree to which it affects any particular component of transformation, such as these broad categories: worldview, epistemology –ways of knowing, self, behavior – action, development – increased capacity, and ontology – ways of being (Hoggan, 2015). Breadth refers to the variety of contexts in which a change manifested, resulting in a more distinct description and subtheme of each category resulting in more defined outcomes (Hoggan, 2015).

Transformative learning is used in the rehabilitation framework, focusing on the vital thoughts of masculinity while consciously concentrating on resistance (Carberry, 2017). Here the educator is expected to facilitate a secure learning environment in which the emotional developmental life histories of the students give vital implications to the methodological approach (Carberry, 2017). Thus, life histories are the greatest asset and source of knowledge in the classroom and must utilize effective, transformative learning. Embracing a methodology that shapes the fundamental core of experiences while providing the fulcrum for effectively addressing the learning needs of students that acquire correctional education has been studied (Carberry, 2017). Educators provide students with empowerment and self-belief while employing teaching methodologies that reflect how men are emotionally constructed and contextualized (Carberry, 2017). The

educator uses the male student to reflect on experiences from their childhood and adulthood, incorporating them into the classroom environment for learning (Carberry, 2017).

The context-mechanism-outcome (CMO) model has focused on the role education was used to hook learners in prison education programs into new activities and ways of being, fostering engagement as a means to achieve “qualifications” and the academic environment as a “safe place” (Szifris et al., 2018). In the CMO concept, prison education works through engagement which encourages the prisoner to learn and develop, moving away from a criminal lifestyle (Szifris et al., 2018). This model was used in prison education to provide structured opportunities to assist prisoners in developing a new identity, a new sense of self, and a lifestyle incompatible with criminal activity (Szifris et al., 2018). Educational activity exposes prisoners to new and different ways of thinking and to alternative lifestyle choices (Szifris et al., 2018). Such exposure acts as a ‘hook’ into new ways of being and encourages new identities leading to change in behavior and activities (Szifris et al., 2018).

Education has provided prisoners with the qualifications and skills needed to gain employment successfully (Szifris et al., 2018). Economic concerns are key motivators for criminal activity most relevant to prisoners with few employable skills, insufficient qualifications, or no profession upon entering prison (Szifris et al., 2018). Gaining qualifications develop confidence and self-belief through the experience of task/goal achievement and gaining transferable skills. Qualifications are also used to validate an individual’s competence with employable skills for future use, accomplishments, and

development. It shows a legitimate source of income resulting in the outcomes of skills gained (Szifris et al., 2018).

Prisoners participating in work-release programs with low education levels have shown that it is challenging to prepare inmates to return to society with the necessary skills for employment to obtain a livable wage (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). When examining education from the social learning theory perspective, inmates with low education levels tend to pattern themselves after role models with low education levels, resulting in their educational goals (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). However, the researchers found that in prison work-release programs, inmates were given mentors who served as role models with educational levels that meet the national norm, showing self-efficacy increased due to encouraging role models (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011).

Bloom (2006) has studied factors that affect the well-being of low-income individuals, such as individuals with a history of incarceration. It examined three types of programs: (a) post-release community-based, (b) prison-based, and (c) enhanced post-release, and it showed a 7% decrease in adverse criminal justice outcomes not significant for probationers who participated in job training programs (Bloom, 2006). Specifically, those who participated in prison-based programs focused more on vocational and work schedules significantly reduced recidivism than other educational programs (Bloom, 2006).

Education can provide a safe space where prisoners can communicate and engage in pro-social interaction, be “a learner,” and express themselves while sharing with others (Szifris et al., 2018). It has provided space for new social interactions forming ties with

people based on experiences. Thus, the environment of an education department has an impact on the learner. Carefully cultivating positive learning environments promotes identities that may not be compatible with developing a positive, pro-social identity (Szifris et al., 2018).

Tonseth and Bergsland (2019) suggested that prison education has contributed to social benefits, self-determination, and accountability by enabling former prisoners to improve their control and self-esteem. A process of change, such as a change in attitude, a belief in getting a new life, being appreciated by others, and experiencing personal strength, recognition, and pride, are equally crucial in obtaining an education (Tonseth & Bergsland, 2019). Furthermore, the researchers have shown that a broader approach is needed to gain more knowledge about how different rehabilitation processes can work together to prevent relapse into crime and create positive changes in the lives of former prisoners using transformative learning concepts (Tonseth & Bergsland, 2019).

Although correctional education is essential to individuals transitioning out of prison, multi-institutional collaborations are equally important because students must enroll or take classes and earn a degree from another institution (Castro et al., 2018). Formal and informal relationships between prison PSE programs and their affiliate institutions of higher education are warranted. Information about the relationships between correctional institutions' programs, staff, and management is needed (Castro et al., 2018). Various educational stakeholders have discovered the many collegiate pathways incarcerated students should take, including undergraduate and graduate degree programs during and after incarceration. Stakeholders suggest that additional research

about the degrees conferred, accrediting agencies, and the association between the social and academic currencies are warranted (Castro et al., 2018).

Associate degrees positively affect PSE inside or outside of prison (Castro et al., 2018). The researchers have also suggested that additional research is needed to analyze how state, municipal, and institutional policies widen and limit PSE pathways upon release (Castro et al., 2018). More regionally accredited higher education institutions are requested to partner with prisons to provide quality face-to-face education opportunities while verifying the inadequacy of online-only PSE inside prisons (Castro et al., 2018).

Overall, much is unknown about higher education in prisons, with few institutions providing credit-bearing coursework to incarcerated students and primarily comprising 2-year schools (Castro et al., 2018). Moreover, the overrepresentation of PSE in prison indicates the need for 4-year institutions to allow incarcerated students to pursue transferable pathways to education in bachelor's, graduate, and professional degrees (Castro et al., 2018). Institutions providing credit-bearing PSE in prison as part of the Experimental Sites Initiative are substantial, indicating that over one-third of the current institutions are Second Chance Pell sites with unknown periods of longevity (Castro et al., 2018).

Contardo and Tolbert (2008) have shown that community colleges play a significant role in educating inmates. Several states explored how to use educational resources to prepare inmates to transition from incarceration to life after prison (Contardo & Tolbert, 2008). The researchers suggested the significance of re-entry programs by analyzing the advantages and noteworthiness of correctional education. Areas for future

research should include comparing recidivism rates, employment rates, earnings, and other post-release outcomes for those who complete PSCE and those who do not, with careful attention given to controlling groups (Contardo & Tolbert, 2008). Other studies included examining how community colleges link offenders to community services and resources following release from prison and analyzing how services support case management, career counseling, and job placement, helping inmates use or further PSE (Contardo & Tolbert, 2008).

Prior Incarcerated Employees

When college graduates have a criminal record, they are 50% less likely to receive a callback from an interview than individuals with no criminal history (Cerda-Jara et al., 2020). Policies such as ban-the-box have shown minimal benefits to college graduates with criminal histories seeking employment because the document does not address the issues people face with college degrees and criminal stigmas (Cerda-Jara et al., 2020). Addressing policy changes focused on how people with criminal backgrounds perceive making it easier to obtain employment may include expanding expunging records for individuals who have completed specific educational and vocational programs have been studied (Cerda-Jara et al., 2020).

Other policies used to aid in expediting the employment process have included receiving a Certificate of Rehabilitation (COR) which indicates a person has completed the process for rehabilitation and may return to society as a productive citizen (Cerda-Jara et al., 2020). Organizations expanding policies, including people with criminal histories in occupational certificate programs, have also been studied. Developing these

programs for individuals with criminal records could serve as a vital resource because obtaining licensing in essential areas will improve their chances of employment (Cerda-Jara et al., 2020). Enhancing their skills assures individuals with prior records an opportunity to obtain a variety of occupational employment chances and a livable wage providing economic sustainability resulting in formerly incarcerated people never returning to a life of crime (Cerda-Jara et al., 2020).

Prior Incarcerated Employees and Self-Efficacy

Ex-offenders return to society with many challenges after post-release entering the workforce, with many issues affecting them. Former prisoners face many issues of low self-esteem, lack of confidence, poor communication skills, and low self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined as a person's confidence in his or her ability to complete particular tasks (Bandura, 1997). It has also been associated with a greater likelihood of engaging in a task than using skills alone (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is a variable used in career development that influences other career attitudes, including career expectations, interests, and goals (Lent et al., 1994). Career-related self-efficacy is associated with higher career aspirations (Flores & O'Brien, 2002). Other relevant factors associated with self-efficacy include investigating offender career development (Fitzgerald et al., 2013; Varghese, 2013; Varghese & Cummings, 2013). Self-efficacy focusing on job search also measures positive orientation toward work showing related decreases in criminal behavior (Devers, 2011). Despite employment barriers, there is a significant lack of scales relevant to the employment needs of offenders (Gendreau et al., 1998; Thompson & Cummings, 2010).

Evans et al. (2018) explored a qualitative goal-directed study of 18 formerly incarcerated individuals who had previously participated in a higher education program while in prison. The study consisted of focus groups containing six participants who had been enrolled in higher education programs while incarcerated. The results showed that prison life and the transition to becoming an inmate damages self-esteem, self-confidence, and education encourages a vital perception that questions the stigma of a criminal label which has consequences long after prison release (Evans et al., 2018). The experience of incarceration has psychological effects leading to reduced self-esteem, hopelessness about the future, and a sense of impairment that has led others to look down on people incarcerated (Evans et al., 2018). The study showed that most formerly incarcerated individuals served through a re-entry program listed education as their primary re-entry need, as well as other resources (Evans et al., 2018).

However, it shows that education and other tools are valuable resources that help formerly incarcerated individuals successfully return to society (Evans et al., 2018). Reducing self-stigma and enhancing self-esteem and self-confidence proves that education help individuals overcome social and personal inconsistencies while pursuing goals minus the internal barriers that self-stigma creates (Evans et al., 2018). Although education is an essential component that triggers awareness of stigmas, understanding its impact and positive change in the self-perceptions of stigmatized individuals and social networks also influence these perspectives. Family members, friends, and fellow graduates with similar life experiences provide positive reinforcement and a sense of community, belonging, and accountability, shaping how formerly incarcerated

individuals view the world (Evans et al., 2018). Length of stay in prison, ability to self-reflect on past experiences, and established relationships with others have laid the foundation for the impact that education has had and will continue to have on how ex-offenders view themselves (Evans et al., 2018).

Self-efficacy is particularly important because released offenders have low confidence in finding a job after prison (Visher & Kachnowski, 2007). Varghese et al. (2018) described developing and validating the Offender Job Search Self-Efficacy Scale (OFJSSE) to assess confidence in prior offenders seeking jobs. Such a scale may be informative in helping detect which job search skills offenders may need to develop to be more successful in securing a job (Varghese et al., 2018). Several assessments measured the OFJSSE for the specific job search needs of the criminal justice population (Varghese et al., 2018).

In the analysis of the OFJSSE scale, negative correlations for criminal thinking demonstrated pro-social attitude measures. Individuals scoring high on the OFJSSE are more likely to achieve lower standards of criminal philosophy because it is one of the strongest predictors of recidivism (Varghese et al., 2018). It is an important variable to lessen job maintenance and desist criminal behavior (Varghese et al., 2018). The study has shown a positive but low correlation between the OFJSSE scale and social desirability. It has demonstrated consistency throughout the literature when reviewing self-efficacy and social desirability (Tsai et al., 2014; Varghese et al., 2018). Thus, higher scores showed positive results in self-efficacy, which is a good indicator of employment.

The OFJSSE identified four job factors relevant to offenders' specific job search needs. Those areas consist of elements that contain items pertinent to both offenders and nonoffenders. Things such as "General Job Search Behaviors" included items appropriate for job search for any population, while the other three factors largely contained items specific to offender needs. Among these items are "passing a drug test," "explaining a criminal history," and "showing employers you can trust" (Varghese et al., 2018). Lower scores on items such as using the internet and writing a resume suggest offenders could have lower confidence in technology and submitting their information online, indicating a need for training in those areas or a lack of access to a computer or the internet (Varghese et al., 2018). The study also showed that offenders using the OFJSSE with high self-efficacy successfully engage in behaviors such as passing a drug test. Offenders may demonstrate overconfidence in their ability to be trustworthy and persistent in socially appropriate job search behaviors that indicate low self-efficacy (Varghese et al., 2018).

Prior Incarcerated Employees and Job-Related Behaviors

Benefits of education, such as the accumulation of knowledge, increased chances to achieve employment following release, motivation to develop and strive for goals, time management skills, and a sense of responsibility, are valuable tools for reintegration (Evans et al., 2018). Although education programs are one of several potentially effective components of rehabilitation in prison, other interventions that may produce positive changes include vocational, therapeutic, and policies that facilitate interaction. Connections between inmates and their families outside of prison and programs put those who have earned seniority and respect in mentorship roles (Evans et al., 2018).

Although education plays a vital role in the successful re-integration of former inmates, it is also as important as other social components of re-entry (Evans et al., 2018). Meaningful employment is significant because it provides the connection needed to aid formerly incarcerated individuals with the vital income to maintain a successful life. Thus, incarceration often leaves the stain of low self-esteem and lack of self-confidence, while education encourages a critical perception that questions the stigma of a criminal brand. It also has psychological effects leading to reduced self-esteem, hopelessness about the future, and a sense of impairment that leads others to look down on people previously incarcerated (Evans et al., 2018).

Varghese et al. (2018) examined self-efficacy's role in formerly incarcerated individuals and career development. Self-efficacy focused on a job search is especially relevant because a positive orientation toward work is related to decreases in criminal behavior (Devers, 2011). Programs that promote and increase opportunities to restore and reconnect individuals to schools and training programs are essential. Specifically, the need to monitor ex-prisoner compliance effectively and incorporate treatment focusing on job training and employment, education, family counseling, and reconnecting individuals to the community is essential (Devers, 2011).

Postprison employment that pays well is stable and allows for future earnings increases to prevent future criminal activity (LaBriola, 2020). Ex-offenders who find high-quality jobs are less likely to return to incarceration or be rearrested within the first two years of employment than individuals employed in industries that offer relatively low-quality employment (LaBriola, 2020). The relationship between available

employment quality and the tendency to commit a crime was reviewed using collective measures of local labor markets as a substitute for accessible occupations (LaBriola, 2020).

Longitudinal data on the employment outcomes of all prisoners paroled in Michigan in 2003 was collected and used in this study from the Michigan Unemployment Insurance Agency and Workforce Development Agency (LaBriola, 2020).

Unemployment insurance data was secured from Michigan for 24- quarters after release from prison (LaBriola, 2020). The data contained information on the total wages earned from each Michigan-based employer, the average quarterly salaries paid to employees, and the employer's detailed six-digit North American Industry Classification (NAICS) Code (LaBriola, 2020). Thus, the study has shown that the quality of employment has a causal effect on future criminal justice interaction. Former prisoners released in counties with higher wages without college degrees see lower recidivism rates (Yang, 2017).

California researchers examined the effect of high-quality industry-specific job openings in manufacturing and construction. They found a substantial impact on lowering recidivism rates, and various types of employment held throughout the county had no effect (Schnepel, 2018). Schnepel (2018) studied more than 1.7 million former male offenders between 18 to 65 released from a California state correctional facility to mandatory parole supervision from 1993 to 2008. Local unemployment rates measured employment opportunities, found small or insignificant effects on recidivism, and studied employment in small industries (Schnepel, 2018). Low-skilled workers with a high school diploma or less in California earned 33% to 100% more in construction or

manufacturing than in retail or food services (Schnepel, 2018). In theory, a construction or manufacturing job opportunity should deter more crime than one with lower expected wages (Schnepel, 2018).

Research has conclusively suggested that the quality of employment, not merely being employed, matters for future criminal justice interaction (LaBriola, 2020). High-quality industries, such as specific occupations in the construction industry, have provided employment for former prisoners and reduced the risk of future criminal justice contacts; however, low-quality industries do not lower illegal interactions (LaBriola, 2020). Due to the increasing precarity of work in the United States, employment available to former prisoners may not provide the economic benefits or social integration expected to reduce criminal interactions resulting in a negligible effect on recidivism (Seim & Harding, 2020). Subsequently, most individuals who find work after prison do so in relatively low-quality industries. Parolees are roughly two and a half times as likely to find low-quality employment as high-quality employment after release from prison (LaBriola, 2020). Furthermore, high-quality jobs do not prevent future criminal justice contact. Many estimates of the effect of high-quality employment on criminal justice contact have confidence intervals that overlap with zero (LaBriola, 2020).

Postprison employment that pays well, is stable, and allows for future earnings growth is especially important in preventing future criminal justice interaction (LaBriola, 2020). Although employment is essential, most ex-offenders return to their community without the necessary education and make less than a living wage (LaBriola, 2020). Ex-offenders are twice as likely to receive low-quality employment upon post-release than

high-quality employment (LaBriola, 2020). Low-quality employment, such as in the service industry, requires little to no education or formal training. Ex-offenders working in low-quality jobs are more likely to return to prison than individuals working in high-quality employment, such as construction, manufacturing, or warehouse positions (LaBriola, 2020). Former prisoners are more likely to find employment in the lowest quality industries due to their poor job possibilities. Informal employment is likely to be of worse quality than formal employment featuring wages, job tenure, wage growth, and worker protections, and is also less structured (Nightingale & Wandner, 2011).

Nationally, less than half of all Americans have a post-secondary degree or credential. In some states, fewer than 40 percent of working-age adults have some form of PSE attainment (Carnevale et al., 2016; Lumina Foundation, 2019). Those with higher educational attainment are more likely to hold jobs with fringe benefits and higher job mobility. Education attainment has shown an optimistic prediction of employer-provided fringe benefits such as health and dental insurance, retirement, and paid leave (Schudde, 2017). Higher PSE attainment was linked to better employment-related outcomes and positively predicted job satisfaction (Schudde, 2017).

Prior Incarcerated Employees and Job Satisfaction

Theories used in evaluating formerly incarcerated prisoners' employment have stated that employment reduces risk but reveal that job qualities are conditional based on work intensity, job duration, self-employment vs. career, and full-time vs. part-time work (Ramakers et al., 2017). Longitudinal research on the role of employment in ex-prisoners and recidivism patterns is sparse and mainly studied using simplistic employment

measures such as employed vs. unemployed, typically not studied job quality (Ramakers et al., 2017). Therefore, re-entry program options provide ex-prisoners with an effortless transition from prison into the community while improving post-release employment outcomes. Thus, subsidized employment includes transitional employment, usually provided after imprisonment offering soft skills training and job search assistance (Ramakers et al., 2017).

Theories such as the social control theory imply that certain aspects of employment are conditional, suggesting that higher-valued jobs can deter offenders from committing criminal acts (Ramakers et al., 2017). Other theories associated with factors that cause individuals to seek crime instead of employment are the strain theory and the general strain theory delineating employment characteristics to criminal behavior (Ramakers et al., 2017). These theories translate criminal behavior as a contributing solution to individuals' dissatisfaction when legal income is insufficient and does not meet economic goals (Ramakers et al., 2017). For ex-offenders likely to participate in criminal behavior, employment reassures individuals' income and certain status and makes illegal activity for financial gain less attractive (Agnew, 1992; Merton, 1938).

A longitudinal semi-structured in-depth interview study of 24 former prisoners consisting of 21 men and three women, released from federal prison to three years post-release in the community, discussed the stigmas associated with employment and pre-employment training in Canada (Sheppard & Ricciardelli, 2020). The study has also illustrated how formal and informal job markets and vocational and work programs effectively lower recidivism and improve job readiness, particularly programs that

connect prisoners to public resources before release (Duwe, 2017; Ricciardelli et al., 2019).

Education during incarceration is priceless and vital for employment before reentering the community upon imprisonment. Less-educated prisoners are more likely to recidivate, earn lower wages, and draw government assistance than prisoners with higher educational attainment (Davis et al., 2013; Harlow, 2003). PSE is instrumental in lowering the rate of return to prison after release, but funding for educational programs in Canada seldom exists (Zinger, 2018). Thus, funding PSE for prisoners is a cost-saving for correctional institutions, especially long term, because former prisoners are less likely to return to prison when educated (Zinger, 2018).

Despite educational efforts, employment opportunities for former prisoners remain extremely limited, and jobs that do exist are low-waged, without benefits, and temporary positions with little chance of future growth (Harding et al., 2019). The barriers associated with having a criminal record and incarceration, lack of employment history, and low educational attainment or systemic barriers make finding and securing employment difficult for former prisoners (Bonta & Andrews, 2017; Ricciardelli & Mooney, 2017). Moreover, institutional or prison programs have helped prisoners with higher educational achievement and programming obtain employment upon re-entry into the community (Duwe & Clark, 2014; Duwe, 2017; Zakaria et al., 2018). Employers are often encouraged to use incentives, such as wage subsidies, to help employ ex-offenders returning to the community seeking employment. Incentives are not usually effective, leaving ex-offenders feeling rejected, unemployed, or choosing employment options

lower than their educational achievement due to the judicial system's parole regulations (Sheppard & Ricciardelli, 2020).

Academicians found that prisoners who participate in PSE while incarcerated notably experienced a noteworthy decrease in parole violations, reoffending, reconviction, and reincarceration (Sheppard & Ricciardelli, 2020; Zakaria et al., 2018). Furthermore, researchers have discovered that employment is essential in supporting deterrence from crime for former prisoners, yet finding work remains challenging for most former prisoners for numerous reasons. The reasons included inexperience, low educational attainment, stigma, and the current precarious employment climate (Sheppard & Ricciardelli, 2020; Zakaria et al., 2018).

Runell (2020) conducted in-depth interviews with formerly incarcerated individuals who were past and present 4-year university students. The participants were members of a program that offers eligible incarcerated people the opportunity to begin their college education in prison and continue it at the state university post-release (Runell, 2020). The findings indicated the potential benefits of post-carceral college participation, policies, and programs that promoted education and suggested that future research should explore other college gateway programs for prior incarcerated individuals and connections with employment (Runell, 2020).

Although community supervision and criminal background checks might hinder formerly incarcerated individuals' employment, research has demonstrated that participants attending college post-incarceration can offer opportunities. Thus, ex-prisoners successfully find legitimate employment in social work, offsetting

complications (Runell, 2020). The study has also shown that involvement in college post-incarceration is one way formerly incarcerated persons connect with people effectively. The development of career paths contributes to prior research on the benefits of ex-prisoners working as social service providers during re-entry (Runell, 2020). The 13 research participants employed as youth counselors, case managers, and academic liaisons also helped themselves through work to resist the effects of incarceration and acquire professional credentials, both critical factors in post-release success (Runell, 2020).

Rabuy and Kopf (2015) studied the income of former inmates. The research findings have shown correctional experts and all political advocates to determine that lack of education, income, and job training allow a previously incarcerated individual to recidivate. Furthermore, this study employs findings that report low wages of formerly incarcerated men and women before their incarceration. However, the report's findings suggest that individuals previously incarcerated earn significantly less than individuals without restraint, nearly 41% (Rabuy & Kopf, 2015).

Summary and Transition

The narrative imposed various societal concerns about formerly incarcerated individuals returning to the community after incarceration. Among those affected by imprisonment includes veterans, substance abusers, the mentally ill, the homeless, and age groups between 18 - 60. African Americans and Hispanics are among the largest population most affected by incarceration. As individuals are released from jail or prison and reenter society, several barriers exist, such as the lack of education and employment.

If former prisoners find employment, they experience low wages, making it challenging to acquire and maintain living expenses.

Furthermore, sustainable employment is necessary to transition back into the community successfully. Education is essential, especially PSE, such as technical and vocational training, 2- and 4-year college or university training, business ownership, and entrepreneurial training. Engaging in adult learning, whether high school equivalency or college, decreases the likelihood that former prisoners will return to prison.

PSE is required, but few prison facilities will defray education costs. Funding is why former prisoners have left prisons without formal education and the necessary job training, resulting in a lack of employment. PSE has been shown crucial to improving prison reentry and employment opportunities after incarceration. Investigating PSE while individuals are incarcerated has been used to strengthen prison guidelines and promoted healthier prison conditions.

Few studies reveal PSE's effect on the job satisfaction of individuals returning to the workforce after incarceration. Investigating this area has facilitated satisfying the gap in the literature while examining the effect of getting PSE training, hence improving the rehabilitation process of the formerly incarcerated population. Exploring concepts such as organizational commitment and understanding ways to improve self-efficacy have led to healthier organizations, better standards, policies, and benefits, leading to a healthier environment with positive job satisfaction experiences.

Chapter 3 presents the research methodology for the study, including the target population, sample, instruments, design, and analyses. In Chapter 4, the corresponding

results are presented. In Chapter 5, I discuss the summary, conclusions, and recommendations, disclosing the implications for social change.

Chapter 3: Research Method

A quasi-experimental study was conducted to determine if age, PSE, and/or prior incarceration, and self-efficacy predict job satisfaction among formerly incarcerated employees. Furthermore, education and self-efficacy may be factors that demonstrate positive outcomes related to organizational commitment. The following research questions and hypotheses were examined to address the gap in the research literature:

Research Question 1- Does employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy, as measured by the NGSES (Chen et al., 2001), predict their job satisfaction as measured by the JSS (Spector, 1997)?

H₀1: Employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy do not predict job satisfaction.

H_a1: Employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy predict job satisfaction

Research Question 2- Does employee organizational commitment, as measured by the OCS (Meyers & Allen, 1993), moderate the ability of their age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy, as measured by the NGSES (Chen et al., 2001), to predict their job satisfaction as measured by the JSS (Spector, 1997)?

H₀2: Employee organizational commitment does not moderate the ability of age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy to predict job satisfaction.

H_{a2}: Employee organizational commitment moderates the ability of age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy to predict job satisfaction.

Research Design and Rationale

A quantitative research design is appropriate for measuring trends, attitudes, or opinions among a population by studying a sample of that population (Creswell, 2009). A quasi-experimental research design was used in this study because participants cannot be randomly assigned to study conditions, nor were the variables manipulated (Creswell, 2009). The lack of random assignment of participants in a quasi-experimental design does not allow the researcher to make causal inferences between variables. However, it allows the researcher to analyze the results unbiasedly. No participants were assigned to experimental situations that could influence participant responses. Specifically, the impact of one or more independent or predictor variables on the dependent or criterion variable was determined. In addition, the impact of a moderating variable on the relationship between the predictor variables and a criterion variable was explored.

Methodology

Population

In Georgia's state prison system, there were approximately 52,000 inmates incarcerated as of March 2020. In the Chatham County area, there were 18,008 inmates released in 2019 (Georgia Department of Correction [GDC], 2019). Of the 18,008 people, approximately 561 individuals have resided in the Chatham County area to which I had access (GDC, 2020). This population consisted of approximately 507 males and 54

females released to the Chatham County area between 18 to 60 years old of various nationalities and ethnic backgrounds. There were approximately 224,581 adults in the Chatham County area in 2020, and the total number of adults never incarcerated between 18–60 years was equivalent to 224,020 individuals, with approximately 48% of males and 52% of females residing (World Population Review, 2020).

Sampling Procedures

The sample for this study included employees taken from various nonprofit and for-profit workplace environments, groups, and organizations that help citizens returning from prison or jail to Chatham County and communities within the local region. The sample involved participants who maintained employment for 6 months or longer with PSE training. An estimated sample size of 84 participants was determined to be required using a G*Power analysis calculator with a confidence level of 95% and an alpha level of 0.5 or 5% confidence.

Participant Recruitment

Several organizations were identified within the Savannah area of Georgia, including communities outside the immediate Chatham County region within a 100-mile radius to potentially partner with to conduct this study. I retrieved names through telephone solicitations, the Reentry Website for Georgia (via the Jobs for Felons Online Website at <https://helpforfelons.org/reentry-programs-in-georgia/>), and LinkedIn. Initially, four organizations were identified; however, a fifth organization was added due to challenges experienced in obtaining the required sample. These organizations provide employment and employment assistance for previously incarcerated individuals and those

who were never incarcerated. The following companies supported this research: Coastal Reentry and Veteran Coalition, Innovative Workforce, Nine Line Apparel, Union Mission, and Gijima, LLC.

Instrumentation and Operationalization

Three instruments were selected to operationalize three study variables, including the predictor self-efficacy, which was evaluated using the NGSE (Chen et al., 2001), the criterion job satisfaction, which was measured by the JSS (Spector, 1997), and the moderator organizational commitment which was assessed by the OCS (Meyers & Allen, 1993). The following paragraphs briefly discuss each of the instruments used.

The NGSES consists of eight items rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*; Chen et al., 2001). The NGSES score for each respondent is calculated by summing the ratings for the items. The NGSES has shown higher construct validity for various tasks, contexts, and performances than previous measures, and it is shorter as well as highly reliable (Chen et al., 2001). Permission to use the NGSES was secured (see Appendix A).

The JSS consists of 36 items rated on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*; Spector, 1997). It has nine components, but for the purpose of this study, I used only the overall score. The JSS score for each respondent is calculated by translating the reversed word items and then summing the ratings for the items. The JSS has shown higher validity than most previous measures, and it is highly reliable (Spector, 1997). Permission to use the JSS was secured (see Appendix B).

The OCS consists of 24 items rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*; Meyers & Allen, 1993). It has three components, but for the purpose of this study, only the overall score was used. The OCS score for each respondent is calculated by summing the ratings for the items. The OCS has shown higher validity than most previous measures and is highly reliable (Meyers & Allen, 1993). Permission to use the OCS was secured (see Appendix C).

Data Collection

Once I was granted permission from each company, I contacted the point of contact (POC) to explain the study's parameters, including the requirements and expectations of the candidates in the study. Through a voluntary selection process, candidates received a consent form and background information instructions for completing the instruments either online or paper-based. Individuals with computer access at work generally completed the process online via SurveyMonkey. As those participants started the process online to fill out their responses, they clicked "next," which presented a consent form with background information and instructions. They were also given the option to leave the survey, and in choosing it, I was informed that they did not want to participate. Individuals without computer access used the paper-based option and returned their response via a drop box in a secured room designated by POC for each organization. Once the forms were completed, the participants placed them inside the envelope provided, sealed them, and then inserted it into a secured drop box.

The data collection took longer than anticipated. It took 1 month to initiate the process due to issues in three organizations where paper-based surveys resulted in a

delayed POC response. Therefore, I could not enter the facilities to retrieve completed packages, and some packages were left unissued. After waiting several weeks to retrieve data from participants of two organizations, I gained permission from another organization to solicit participants. Although the data collection period was prolonged and an additional organization was added, the response rate was also very poor.

A total of 84 were dispersed, with an option for online access. Only participants from two companies decided to complete their surveys online; participants from the other three used paper-based versions. I received a total of 26 surveys, including 14 online and 12 paper-based surveys. Three of the paper-based surveys received were discarded due to being incomplete, whereas one of the online surveys was discarded due to incomplete information. This yielded a disappointing final sample of 22 participants with a 26.2% response rate.

Data Analysis Plan

All data attained using the paper-based and online surveys were entered into the IBM SPSS (Version 28.0) software for cleaning, processing, and analysis. Initially, the demographic characteristics for the study sample were compiled, and then descriptive statistics were run for the three instruments used. Pearson correlations were run for all the predictors, employee age, PSE attainment, incarceration status, and self-efficacy (NGSES), the criterion job satisfaction (JSS), and the moderator organizational commitment (OCS). To address Research Question 1, I ran a multiple regression to determine whether the predictors, employee age, PSE attainment, incarceration status, and self-efficacy (NGSES), individually or in combination, can forecast the criterion job

satisfaction (JSS). To address Research Question 2, I ran a multiple regression subsequently to determine whether organizational commitment moderates the relationship between the predictors individually or in combination and the criterion.

Threats to Validity

Some factors may have impacted the validity of this study. Self-selection sampling is convenient, easy, and relatively inexpensive to obtain respondents; however, it does not include those who elected not to participate. Further, participants' personal involvement may impact their ability to be unbiased in completing the survey and decide to indicate misleading information. Other participants considered their self-worth when completing the survey or considered the sensitivity of the information in the study and responded dishonestly to the questions. Nevertheless, threats to validity have affected the outcome of the validity of the results of the study, primarily when self-selection biases exist and individuals tend to think independently or cognitively oriented (Jackson et al., 1989).

Ethical Procedures

I gained IRB approval and endorsements from each author who wrote, standardized, prepared, and implemented each survey instrument used in this study. The IRB approval number was 04-07-22-0015033. It expires on April 6, 2023. All data were collected anonymously using an online or paper-based survey using pencils. A drop box attachment with a lock and key was purchased to retrieve the paper-based surveys, including envelopes to place the surveys securely inside. Informed consent was collected online. The conformed consent was also collected using paper-based surveys. If

candidates did not want to participate in the online survey, they had the option to refuse the consent form, which indicated they were not interested in participating in the study. However, if examinees were interested in conducting the study, they were prompted to accept the informed consent form and complete the online survey as directed. The examinees who decided to participate in the paper-based survey had the option to return the consent form indicating their agreement to participate in the study and then complete the survey as directed.

Confidentiality and anonymity of the data were maintained using the web-based survey, Survey Monkey. A privacy and security statement attached to the survey before completing the study was also imposed. No personal information or data were retrieved from the respondents ensuring their anonymity. Additionally, a statement ensuring the anonymity of each participant was included, and an anonymous response setting was used to protect the identity of each subject. Also, to ensure confidentiality and anonymity, subjects were informed of the security of the web-based address demonstrating the security of the webpage and data source used. Also, to ensure further privacy of individuals, especially for individuals acknowledging a need for greater anonymity issues, an option allowing the use of a personal email address was acceptable versus using their work email address.

All information was confidential as it pertained to the participants' responses, nor was the information released to supervisors or any of the company's management. All subjects of the study were between the ages of 18 and 60 years old. The study included individuals with disabilities but was not required to report their disability status. I had no

contact with the participants other than the initial contact before dispersing the surveys. Participant confidentiality was protected because no information collected was used to identify individuals in this study. Therefore, anonymity remained ensured.

Summary and Transition

In this study, examined age, PSE, and/or prior incarceration, and self-efficacy predict job satisfaction among formerly incarcerated employees. Education and self-efficacy were also studied relative to organizational commitment. Self-efficacy was measured using the NGSES (Chen et al., 2001), job satisfaction was measured using the JSS (Spector, 1997), and organizational commitment was measured using the OCS (Meyers & Allen, 1993). The analysis consisted of running descriptive statistics on the demographic and instrument data, correlational analysis among the study variables, and multiple regression analysis between the participant demographic characteristics of employee age, PSE attainment, and prior incarceration status and the instrument NGSES (self-efficacy) and OCS (organizational commitment) predictors with the criterion JSS (job satisfaction).

The analysis and results of the study are revealed in Chapter 4. The demographic characteristics, descriptive statistics, and correlational analysis are discussed, reflecting the study's results. Six assumptions were made before running the analysis for RQ1 resulting in each assumption being met. The null hypothesis was accepted. RQ2 analysis was not run because there was no significant relationship among the variables. The null hypothesis was accepted. In Chapter 5, the summary, conclusions, and recommendations are discussed, disclosing the implications for social change.

Chapter 4: Results

This quantitative, quasi-experimental study explored the ability of predictors employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and self-efficacy on the criterion job satisfaction. I also examined the effect of organizational commitment as a moderator on the relationship between the predictors and the criterion. Specifically, the following research questions and hypotheses were examined:

- Research Question 1- Does employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy as measured by the NGSES predict their job satisfaction as measured by the JSS?
- Research Question 2- Does employee organizational commitment, as measured by the OCS, moderate the ability of their age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy, as measured by the NGSES, predict their job satisfaction as measured by the JSS?

Demographic Characteristics

The obtained sample included 22 respondents, 12 (54.5%) female, and 10 (45.5%) male (see Table 1). The participants were African American ($n = 15$, 68.1%), Caucasian ($n = 6$, 27.3%), and Hispanic ($n = 1$, 4.5%). The sample comprised both previously incarcerated individuals (31.8%) and those never incarcerated (68.1%). The ages of the respondents ranged from 18 to 59. Among the participants, the majority had PSE (68.1%).

Table 1*Demographic Characteristics Table*

Characteristic	Frequency	%
Gender		
Female	12	54.5
Male	10	45.5
Race		
African American	15	68.1
Caucasian	6	27.3
Hispanic	1	4.5
Population		
Previously incarcerated	7	31.8
Never incarcerated	15	68.1
Age group		
18-28	6	27.3
29-39	5	22.7
40-50	8	36.4
50-60	3	13.6
60 and above	0	0
Postsecondary education		
No	7	31.8
Yes	15	68.1

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics for one predictor, the criterion, and the moderator variable captured with the three instruments used in the study, respectively self-efficacy (NGSES), job satisfaction (JSS), and organizational commitment (OCS). The mean NGSES score was 36.4 ($SD = 3.67$), and it ranged from 31 to 40. The mean for the JSS was 155.5 ($SD = 19.92$), and it ranged from 121 to 196. The mean for the OCS was 103.1 ($SD = 14.68$), and it ranged from 66 to 136.

Table 2*Instrument Descriptive Statistics (N=22)*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
NGSES	36.4	3.67	31	40	-.288	-1.727
JSS	155.5	19.92	121	196	.114	-.694
OCS	103.1	14.68	66	136	-.090	1.634

Note. NGSES = New General Self-Efficacy Scale; JSS = Job Satisfaction Survey; OCS =

Organizational Committee Survey.

Correlational Analysis

Pearson product-moment correlations were run between the demographic predictors of employee age, PSE attainment, and prior incarceration status, the predictor self-efficacy assessed by the NGSES, the criterion job satisfaction as assessed by the JSS, and the moderator organizational commitment as assessed by the OCS are presented in Table 3. None of the study variables were significantly correlated at the $p = .05$ level.

Table 3*Study Variable Correlational Analysis*

Variable	Age	PSE	Prior	NGSES	JSS	OCS
Age	1	-.043	.234	.261	.065	.053
(Sig. 2-tailed)		(.848)	(.295)	(.241)	(.775)	(.813)
PSE	-.043	1	-.162	-.121	.031	.345
(Sig. 2-tailed)	(.848)		(.472)	(.591)	(.891)	(.116)
Prior	.234	-.162	1	.366	.044	-.304
(Sig. 2-tailed)	(.295)	(.472)		(.094)	(.845)	(.169)
NGSES	.261	-.121	.366	1	.056	.051
(Sig. 2-tailed)	(.241)	(.591)	(.094)		(.804)	(.823)
JSS	.065	.031	.044	.056	1	.169
(Sig. 2-tailed)	(.775)	(.891)	(.845)	(.804)		(.452)
OCS	.053	.345	-.304	.051	.169	1
(Sig. 2-tailed)	(.813)	(.116)	(.169)	(.823)	(.452)	

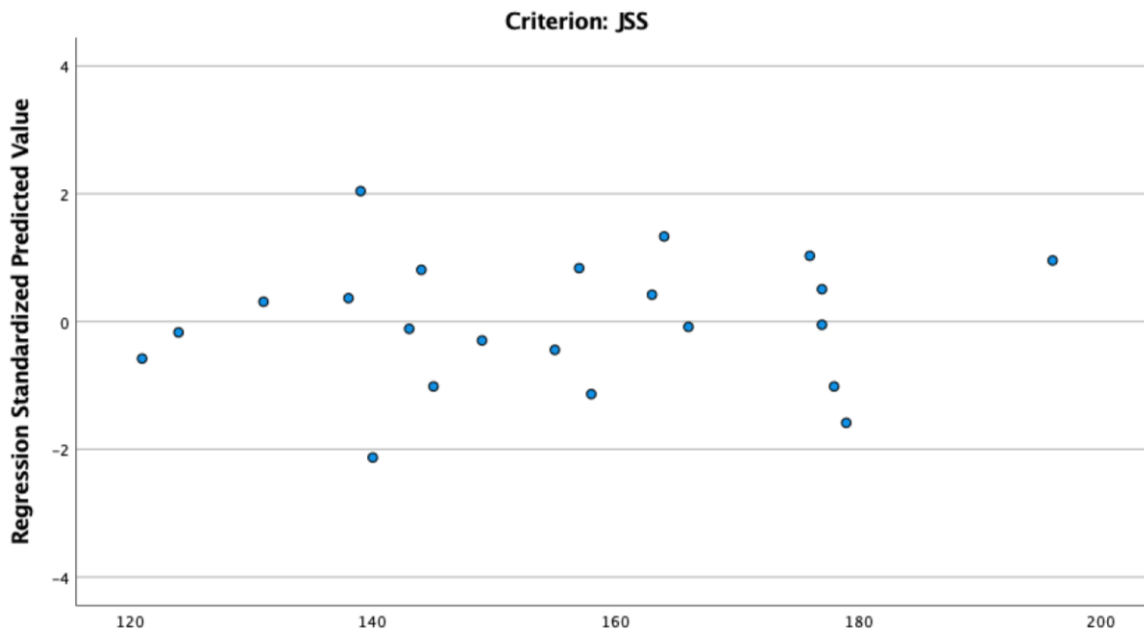
Test of the Assumptions

The assumptions for multiple regression were tested prior to analyzing the data in the current study. The first assumption is a linear relationship between the predictors and the criterion to test it. I produced a scatterplot in SPSS illustrating their relationship.

Figure 1 shows that the first assumption was met.

Figure 1

Scatterplot Between the Predictors and Criterion JSS

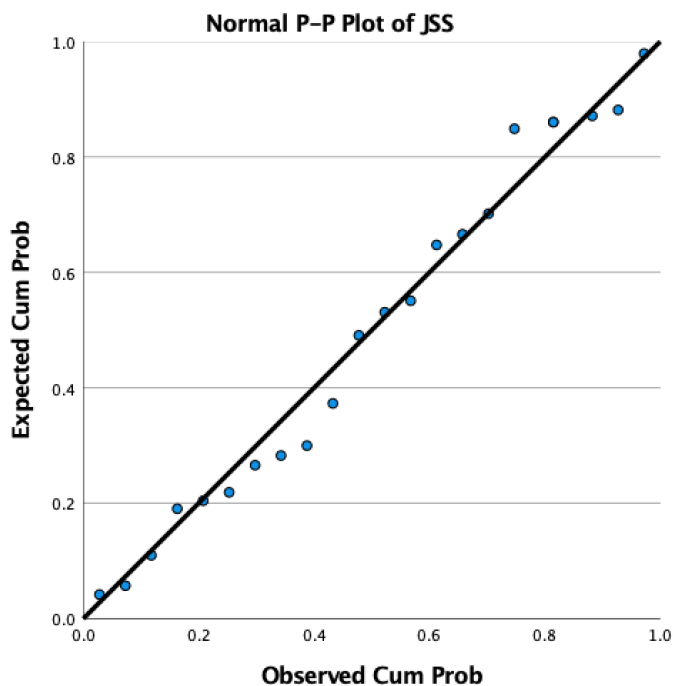


The second assumption is multicollinearity (i.e., none of the predictors being highly correlated with each other). Table 3 indicates that none of the bivariate correlations between the predictors was significant, indicating the second assumption was met. The third assumption is there being independence (i.e., the observations are independent). This assumption indicates that individual data points are uncorrelated. The obtained Durbin-Watson statistic was 2.052 (see Table 5), which indicated that there was minimal autocorrelation and that the third assumption was met

The fourth assumption is homoscedasticity (i.e., the residuals have constant variance at every point in the linear model). The P-P plot of regression standardized residuals versus standardized predicted values. Figure 2 shows no signs of funneling, suggesting that the assumption was met.

Figure 2

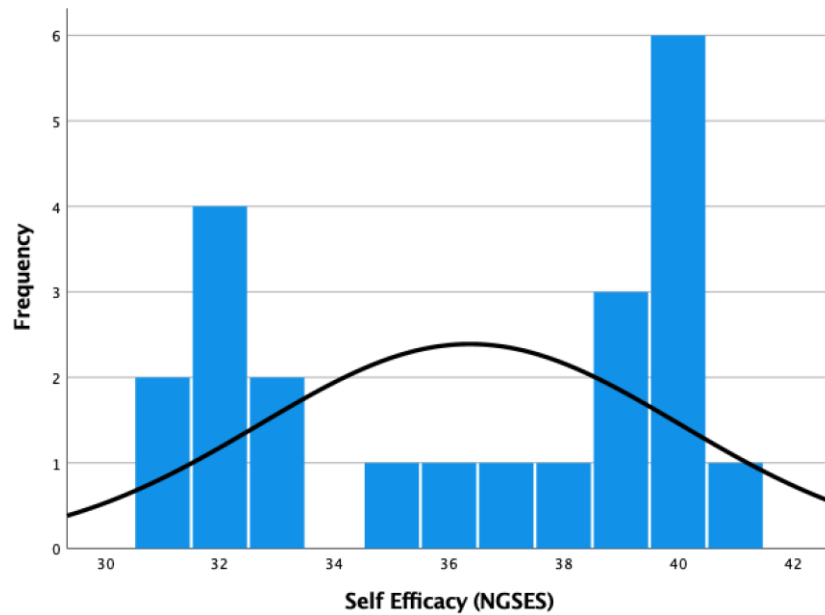
Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



The fifth assumption is multivariate normality (i.e., the residuals of the model are normally distributed). Histograms for each of the three scales measures, the predictor self-efficacy (NGSES), the criterion job satisfaction (JSS), and the moderator (OCS), were generated (see Figures 3–5). The skew and kurtosis of the distributions were within acceptable levels, given the small sample size (see Table 2).

Figure 3

Histogram of Predictor Self-Efficacy (NGSES)

**Figure 4**

Histogram of Criterion Job Satisfaction (JSS)

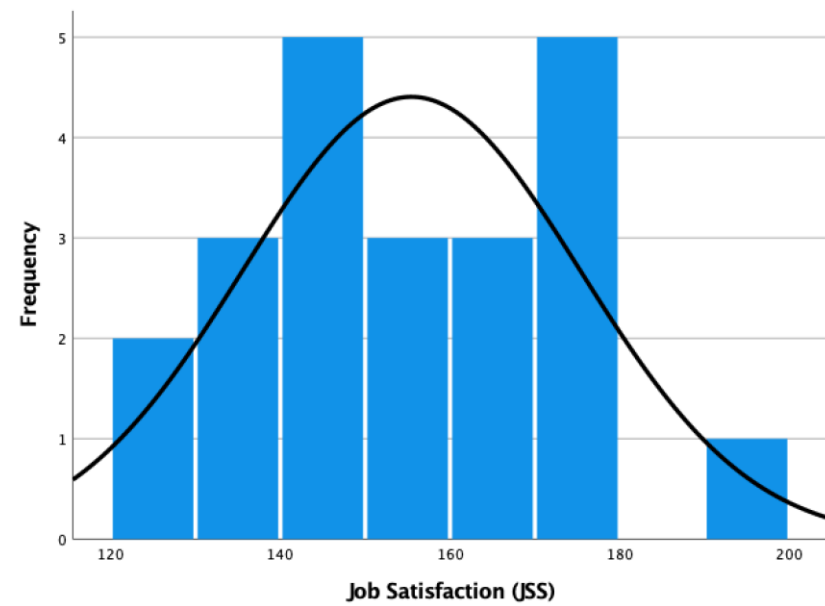
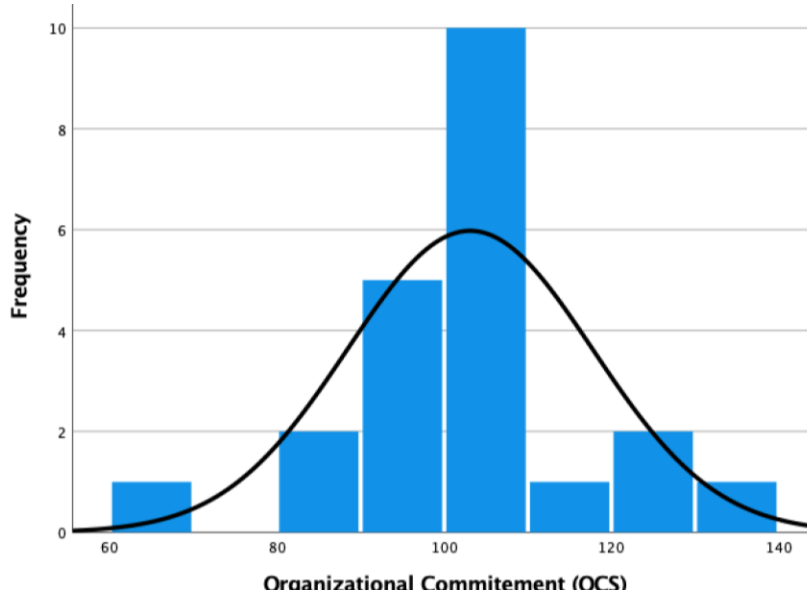


Figure 5

Histogram of Moderator Organizational Commitment (OCS)



The sixth assumption for regression states there is no standardized residuals versus standardized predicted values. Figure 2 showed no signs of funneling, suggesting that the assumption was met.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1: Does employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy, as measured by the NGSES, predict their job satisfaction as measured by the JSS?

H_0 - Employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy do not predict job satisfaction.

H_a - Employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy predict job satisfaction.

A multiple regression analysis was conducted with the predictors; employee age (Age), PSE attainment (PSE), prior incarceration status (Prior), and self-efficacy (NGSES) with the criterion job satisfaction (JSS). Table 4 presents the coefficients for analysis, and it shows none of the predictors were significantly associated with the criterion.

Table 4

Regression Analysis Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	143.963	51.448		2.798	.012
Age	.959	4.811	.050	.199	.844
PSE	1.753	10.253	.042	.171	.866
Prior	1.041	11.068	.025	.094	.926
NGSES	.212	1.439	.039	.147	.885

Criterion: JSS

Table 5 presents the model summary for the multiple regression analysis with the predictors; Age, PSE, Prior, and NGSES with the criterion JSS. The R^2 value of 0.08 associated with this regression model suggests the proportion of the variation in the criterion JSS predicted by the variables Age, PSE, Prior, and NGSES is insignificant.

Table 5

Regression Analysis Model Summary

<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	Adj. <i>R</i> ²	<i>SEE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Durban Watson
.089	.008	-.226	22.053	.034	4, 17	.998	2.052

Predictors: (Constant), Age, PSE, Prior, NGSES

Table 6 presents the ANOVA for the multiple regression model with the predictors; Age, PSE, Prior, and NGSES with the criterion JSS. The reported $F(4, 17) = .034, p > .05$, indicated no statistically significant relationship between the predictors with the criterion variable. Based on the results of the multiple regression analysis, the null hypothesis (H_0) employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and self-efficacy do not predict job satisfaction was accepted.

Table 6

Regression Analysis Model ANOVA

Model	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Regression	65.498	4	16.375	.034	.998 ^b
Residual	8267.956	17	486.350		
Total	8333.455	21			

Criterion: JSS

Predictors: (Constant), Age, PSE, Prior, NGSES

Research Question 2

Research Question 2- Does employee organizational commitment, as measured by the OCS, moderate the ability of their age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy as measured by the NGSES to predict their job satisfaction as measured by the JSS?

H_0 - Employee organizational commitment does not moderate the ability of employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy to predict job satisfaction.

H_a - Employee organizational commitment moderates the ability of employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy to predict job satisfaction.

Given the results of the multiple regression analysis to address Research Question 2, I did not determine there was a significant relationship between any of the predictors and the criterion; it negated the need to run a moderation analysis. Consequently, the null hypothesis (H_02) that employee organizational commitment does not moderate the ability of employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy to predict job satisfaction was accepted.

Summary and Transition

The results analyzed in Chapter 4 have shown no significant correlation among age, PSE, and/or prior incarceration, and self-efficacy predict job satisfaction among formerly incarcerated employees. Six assumptions were made when analyzing RQ1, resulting in assumptions being met. The results have also shown organizational commitment does not moderate the variables resulting in no moderation analysis was run for RQ2.

Chapter 5 presents an interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations, and implications were discussed. In Chapter 5, the correlation among the (predictor variables); PSE, organizational commitment, self-efficacy, employee age, and their effect on job satisfaction (criterion variable) among employees with prior incarcerations were discussed. Additional recommendations and a concise evaluation of the study's implications were discussed based on the findings.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This quantitative study aimed to explore the effects of job satisfaction and PSE on adults returning to the workforce prior to incarceration. The study also revealed the impact of self-efficacy and organizational commitment on job satisfaction. It was a quasi-experimental study that explored the effect of various levels of PSE, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment of formerly incarcerated individuals. Furthermore, while investigating this study, I found in RQ1 the multiple linear regression analysis among the predictor variables (PSE, self-efficacy, prior incarceration, employee age) and the criterion variable (job satisfaction) were not statistically significant. Six assumptions were made for RQ1; each assumption was met. In Research Question 2, the predictor variables (PSE, organizational commitment, prior incarceration status, employee age) and the criterion variable (job satisfaction) did not show a significant correlation among the variables. Consequently, a moderation regression analysis was not for an organizational commitment on the relationship between PSE and job satisfaction. The formerly incarcerated individuals showed no correlation among organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Interpretation of the Findings

Based on the findings, the information revealed in the study did not show statistical significance among the predictor variables (PSE, self-efficacy, prior incarceration, employee age) along with the criterion variable (job satisfaction) in RQ1. Six assumptions were made before the study was conducted for multiple regression. Each assumption was met in the study. The first assumption showed a linear relationship

between (PSE, self-efficacy, employee age, and organizational commitment) the predictor variables, and (JSS) the criterion variable. The second assumption showed multicollinearity existed among the variables showing the predictor variables were highly correlated with each other. The third assumption revealed the individual data points were uncorrelated, showing independence. The fourth assumption is homoscedasticity, showing constant variance at every point in the model. The fifth assumption showed multivariate normality, revealing that the model's residuals are normally distributed. The sixth assumption for regression showed no standardized residuals versus standardized predicted values.

For RQ2, I did not determine there was a relationship among the predictor variables (PSE, organizational commitment, prior incarceration status, employee age) and the criterion variable (job satisfaction); therefore, the moderation regression analysis was not run. In summation, the null hypothesis was accepted for RQ1. The predictor variables (employee age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy) do not predict job satisfaction. In RQ2, the predictor variables of employee organizational commitment do not moderate the ability of age, PSE attainment, prior incarceration status, and/or self-efficacy to predict job satisfaction. Consequently, the null hypothesis was accepted for RQ2.

Previous Literature Findings

Previous research studies have investigated PSE, organizational commitment, self-efficacy, and job satisfaction. These studies have shown a correlation between the (predictor variables) PSE, organizational commitment, self-efficacy, and (the criterion

variable) job satisfaction. Schudde (2017) stated that higher PSE attainment is linked to better employment-related outcomes and positively predicts job satisfaction. Education attainment positively predicted employer-provided fringe benefits such as health and dental insurance, retirement, and paid leave (Schudde, 2017). It positively predicted job satisfaction and the ability to work on a flexible schedule showing the relationship of control diminishing. The effect of educational attainment on flexible schedules slightly reduces the relationship between educational attainment and job satisfaction (Schudde, 2017). Other researchers (e.g., Cheng & O-Yang, 2018; Viseu et al., 2020) have also shown positive results when studying organizational commitment as the predictor variable and job satisfaction as the criterion variable among workers in the hospitality industry. Workers who perceived their organization as performing well internally and externally were more confident about their skills, developed a positive perspective regarding the present and future, created paths for goal-achievement, and faced adverse situations when they arose (Viseu et al., 2020). A positive association between self-efficacy and organizational commitment relative to job satisfaction among correctional officers has been studied, showing significant results (Law & Guo, 2016). Self-efficacy correlates with job satisfaction, suggesting that a person with high self-efficacy is more likely to succeed in their task, increasing satisfaction with what is done (Benna et al., 2017).

Organizational commitment as a dependent variable increases job satisfaction (Law & Guo, 2016). Organizational commitment is not the result of workers' attitudes toward their work but the cause of changes, which increases job satisfaction (Loan,

2020). Bateman and Strasser (1984) proposed that organizational commitment influences job satisfaction, which determines employee turnover (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

Organizational commitment and job satisfaction affect job performance proposing a relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance (Loan, 2020). Eslami and Gharakhani (2012) stated that job satisfaction, studied as an independent variable, increases organizational commitment. Employees are more likely to be committed to their organization when they are satisfied with their pay, fairness at work, promotion opportunities, and manager's support (Eslami & Gharakhani, 2012). As a dependent variable, organizational commitment increases job satisfaction revealing that committed employees work hard for their organization's vision and benefits (Vandenberg & Lance, 1992). Thus, organizational commitment increased job satisfaction providing additional support for the positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Soenanta et al., 2020).

Based on the results obtained in the literature findings, PSE self-efficacy and organizational commitment (predictor variables) have shown a significant relationship when measured with job satisfaction (criterion variable). However, analyzing RQ1, PSE, self-efficacy, prior incarceration, and employee age has not shown a significant relationship, nor does it show an association between PSE and job satisfaction of employees with prior incarcerations. When analyzing the predictor and criterion variables, showing the relationship between employees with prior incarcerations does not confirm previous knowledge found in the literature. Moreover, examining RQ2, the moderation regression analysis of PSE (predictor variable), job satisfaction (criterion

variable and organizational commitment (moderation variable) was not run. No significant relationship was found among the variables.

Findings in the Context of the Theoretical Framework

Bandura's social learning theory and Vroom's expectancy theory were used in this study to show the theoretical association of PSE, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment as they relate to job satisfaction for employees who were previously incarcerated. The predictor variables were found not to have a significant relationship with job satisfaction in Research Question 1, which demonstrated that self-efficacy was not a positive predictor of job satisfaction. In Research Question 2, the association between PSE, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction was not significant, and no moderation regression analysis was run.

Nevertheless, when examining these variables based on the literature, it was noted that PSE influences self-efficacy, encouraging how people perceive themselves and their expected outcomes. Bandura's social learning theory suggested that behavior influences expectancies or outcomes (Rosenstock et al., 1988). Bandura (1977) summarized cognitive processes that dominate factors used to attain and retain behavior patterns. Individuals master responses or behavioral patterns to appropriately use or perform in specific settings (Bandura, 1977). Reinforcement, secondary goal setting, and self-evaluation are motivational factors that contribute to expected outcomes in the workforce, leading to individual success (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy has shown self-confidence in an individual's ability to organize, implement a specific course of action, and manage precise circumstances.

Bandura (1999) has also shown that self-efficacy influences how people think, feel, motivate themselves, and act. Likewise, the social learning theory has been shown to reinforce the idea that learning occurs within a social context and suggests that people learn from observing behaviors and the outcomes of their behaviors (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). Social learning identifies a continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental influences (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). These interactions have indicated the process of Bandura's theory of modeling and suggested that the control of individual behaviors is through self-regulation (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). Self-regulation involves three processes: self-observation, self-judgment, and self-response. Bandura's theory has also suggested that people learn from one another, including observational learning, which comprises four components: attention, retention, motor reproduction, and motivation (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011).

To further understand education from the social learning theory perspective, inmates with low education levels were examined by patterning themselves after role models with low education levels, resulting in meeting their educational goals (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011). However, the researchers found that by studying prison work-release programs, inmates were given mentors who served as role models with educational levels that meet the national norm leading to increased self-efficacy due to encouraging role models (Astray-Caneda et al., 2011).

Three aspects of educational engagement addressed education as a hook for change, education to achieve qualifications, and the academic environment as a safe place, serving as the foundation for the initial theory of prison education (Szifris et al.,

2018). Gaining qualifications can develop confidence and self-belief through the experience of task/goal achievement and gaining transferable skills. It has also been shown to validate an individual as a competent individual with employable skills to be used in the future with accomplishments, and developments, showing a legitimate source of income resulting in the outcomes of skills gained (Szifris et al., 2018). Education has been shown to provide a safe space where prisoners communicate and engage in pro-social interaction, be a learner, and express themselves while sharing with others (Szifris et al., 2018).

Nabavi (2012) stated that the social learning theory suggests we learn from our interactions with others in a social context, independently observing the behaviors of others and people with similar behaviors. After watching the behavior of others, people assimilate and imitate the behavior, especially if their observational experiences are positive or include rewards related to the observed behavior (Nabavi, 2012). When positivity is met, self-efficacy is increased and affected based on the implications of the social learning theory. When there is an alignment of employees, job requirements, values, beliefs, and behaviors, workers will experience creative behaviors improving their performance and increasing their organizational productivity (Akgunduz et al., 2018). Akgunduz et al. (2018) have also shown that when employees believe their work is meaningful and important, work and job satisfaction increase.

The social exchange theory showed that employees act more constructively toward organizations when organizations treat them well, describing the social connection between workers and companies. The approach has also suggested that

companies that assist workers and recognize workers' opinions in making decisions suggest workers will be more committed to their organization (Prabawa & Supartha, 2018; Zhao et al., 2020). Individuals remain committed to their organization when essential needs and components come together.

Although the literature has shown a strong association between PSE, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment to job satisfaction, when discussing Bandura's social learning theory, Vroom's expectancy theory also showed a positive correlation in the literature among the predictor and criterion variables. The expectancy theory is a cognitive process theory of motivation shown to suggest that people believe there are relationships between the effort they put forth at work, the performance they achieve from that effort, and the rewards they have received from their effort and performance (Lunenburg, 2011). People will become motivated if they believe that strong effort leads to good performance, and good performance lead to desired rewards (Lunenburg, 2011). The theory involves four assumptions with three key elements, which state that a person is motivated to the degree that they believe that (a) effort will lead to acceptable performance (expectancy), (b) performance will be rewarded (instrumentality), and (c) the value of the rewards is highly positive (valence; Lunenburg, 2011; Min et al., 2020; Zboja et al., 2020). Examining this theory has been shown to foster the understanding that people will do well or put forth more effort when performing a task if they believe they will be compensated for their actions. People will be motivated if they believe that strong efforts will lead to good performance, while good performance will lead to desired rewards creating elevated outcomes for them personally (Lunenburg, 2011).

Vroom's expectancy theory has three key elements that directly relate to individuals expecting a positive outcome for their performance. Individual effort resulting in a specific outcome grounded on probabilities and ranges from 0 to 1 defines expectancy. In other words, if an employee sees no chance that effort will lead to the desired performance level, the expectancy is 0; if the employee is completely certain of completing the task, the expectancy has a value of 1 (Lunenburg, 2011). Instrumentality has shown the estimated probability that an achieved task performance will lead to various work outcomes ranging from 0 to 1 (Lunenburg, 2011). For example, if an employee sees that a good performance rating will always result in a salary increase, the instrumentality has a value of 1. When there is no perceived relationship between a good performance rating and a salary increase, the instrumentality will be 0 (Lunenburg, 2011). Valence is the strength of an employee's preference for a particular reward. Thus, salary increases, promotions, peer acceptance, recognition by supervisors, or any other reward will have varied value to individual employees (Lunenburg, 2011). Valence will either show positive or negative values provided an employee's preference for attaining the reward. If the employee desires a reward, the valence will be positive. Still, the employee lacks the potential and motivation required to obtain the reward showing negative results in a valence of 0 with a total range from -1 to +1. Theoretically, the reward has a valence related to the employee's needs (Lunenburg, 2011). Consequently, resulting in the equation explaining motivation: $\text{Motivation} = \text{Expectancy} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Valence}$ (Lunenburg, 2011).

Limitations of the Study

Many limitations presented during this study impeded the successful completion of this research. Previously incarcerated participants in this study have experienced various criminal background issues including drug trafficking, armed robbery, assault and more. Because of the charges imposed by the participants, this may have hindered their ability to participate in the study or may have reflected negative feedback. Other aspects of this study that I found to be challenging included identifying organizations that allowed me to conduct my study in their company. I met with many company decision-makers who hired formerly incarcerated workers and spoke with many on the telephone. Each decision-maker seemed very enthusiastic about allowing me to conduct my research, but I was often denied the opportunity to conduct my study in their organization. Other challenges I incurred from decision-makers included them refusing to return my calls after four or five attempts to communicate with them after sending numerous emails requesting a response. Additional challenges included targeting companies at the initial phase of the study that hired formerly incarcerated employees. However, during the study's latter stage (research stage), the formerly incarcerated employees were no longer employed by the company. As a result, I was forced to identify additional participants in my study, some of whom were never incarcerated.

Once I obtained the four companies needed to conduct my studies, the Covid-19 virus impacted the country and the outcome of my studies. The virus affected the outcome of my study because organizations did not allow people to enter their businesses. Soon I realized that I would not get the number of participants for the study

as anticipated; therefore, I began looking for other avenues to conduct my studies, such as adding a fifth company to my list of organizations. I also attended a community event that targeted formerly incarcerated people. At the event, I set up a table with a brief explanation of my study and a drop box. When people questioned me about my study and decided to participate, I gave them a packet or retrieved their email addresses if they decided to complete the online survey. From this event, I received a few subjects for my study but did not get enough participants to satisfy my sample size. The limited participation in my study hindered the expected outcome for the results of my study. Of those individuals who participated in the survey, I also noticed in the background section that most people indicated they were skilled workers instead of unskilled workers. I should have used different wording, which would have helped me to determine whether the participants were a part of management or held a supervisory position.

Recommendations

This study was designed to include previously incarcerated individuals. The study was a quantitative study using a quasi-experiment design. However, for future recommendations, I suggest conducting this study using a qualitative or mixed methods approach due to the difficulty in targeting organizations that allow and commit to completing research in their facility. I recommend using a quasi-experimental or focus group design to identify the targeted population easier. Otherwise, I recommend that the researcher use the company where they are currently employed.

I would also limit the research to studying two predictor variables instead of three predictor variables. I think the survey length was distracting to people who did not care to

do much reading. Although the surveys took about 20 minutes to complete, some people refused to commit 20 minutes of their time to complete the survey. Using the paper-based approach and survey monkey certainly provided flexibility for the completion of the study, especially with the spread of COVID-19, yet the expected sample size was not reached.

Implications for Social Change

Finding employment can sometimes be difficult, but it is significantly amplified when a person has been incarcerated. Incarceration poses many challenging problems for individuals returning to their community without the necessary skills to find employment that provides a livable wage. Research has shown that two-thirds of job postings have shown to require some college education level by 2020, with a projected 10% increase over the next decade requiring an entry-level education requirement of a bachelor's degree (Carnevale et al., 2013; Torpey, 2018). Also, according to Duwe (2018), PSE programming has improved post-prison employment, reduced prison misconduct and recidivism, shown strong return on investment (ROI) outcomes, and may be more effective in improving employment and recidivism outcomes. Duwe (2018) has also shown in a meta-analysis study that education programming increased the odds of post-release employment by 13 percent. Furthermore, Duwe (2018) has shown that employment outcomes for the correctional population will improve when their access to education and employment programming increases.

Collective involvement must exist among stakeholders and organizations that serve the needs of individuals returning to society. Organizations such as correctional

institutions, educational facilities, policymakers, local leaders, social groups, churches, and profit and nonprofit organizations serving the formerly incarcerated population working together are among those groups that should work together. Everyone must become a change agent, transforming the lives of individuals who want a second chance in society. In doing so, stakeholders such as those led by nonprofits should develop mentorship programs that will aid the formerly incarcerated person in making changes in their lives before leaving jail or prison upon returning to society. Correctional and governmental agencies need to develop innovative ways to fund educational programs providing PSE programming to the incarcerated population. Lawmakers and policymakers should design and implement laws that will eliminate the strict barriers faced by those returning to the community, making it easier to transition into society and, ultimately, the workforce.

Conclusion

Although in the literature, PSE, self-efficacy, age, prior incarceration, and organizational commitment significantly correlate with job satisfaction, it is not confirmed in the study. The study reveals six assumptions for multiple regression analysis tested before analyzing the data. Each assumption was met in the study. The first assumption revealed a linear relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion variable, the second assumption showed multicollinearity, the third assumption revealed the individual data points were uncorrelated, the fourth assumption is homoscedasticity showing constant variance, the fifth assumption showed multivariate normality revealing the residuals of the model are normally distributed, and the sixth assumption for

regression showed no standardized residuals versus standardized predicted values. RQ1 was not significant based on the results; therefore, PSE, self-efficacy, age, and prior incarceration do not predict job satisfaction, and the null hypothesis (H_0) was accepted. No moderation analysis was run for RQ2 because the multiple regression analysis did not show a relationship between predictor and criterion variables.

Subsequently, although the study does not provide data to support the information found in the literature, I concluded additional research is needed using a larger sample population. I also concluded that different organizations, such as primarily nonprofit organizations that hire prior incarcerated individuals, should be used or extend the length of data collection during the research process.

References

- Adebomi, O., Ibitoye, I., & Sanni, O. (2012). Job satisfaction and self-efficacy as correlates of job commitment of special education teachers in Oyo State. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 3(9), 95-103.
<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/234633542.pdf>
- Agnew, R. (1992). Foundation for a general strain theory of crime and delinquency. *Criminology*, 30(1), 47-88. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-9125.1992.tb01093.x>
- Ahmadi, S. (2020). Academic self-esteem, academic self-efficacy, and academic achievement: A path analysis. *Journal Forensic Psychology*, 5(1), 1-6.
<https://www.longdom.org/open-access/academic-selfesteem-academic-selfefficacy-and-academic-achievement-a-path-analysis.pdf>
- Akgunduz, Y., Kizilcalioglu, G., & Sanli, S. (2018). The effects of job satisfaction and meaning of work on employee creativity: An investigation of EXPO 2016 exhibition employees. *Tourism*, 66(2), 130–147.
- Aksoy, C., & Yalcinsoy, A. (2018). Investigation on the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational justice, and supervisor support: An application in the health sector. *Journal of Management Research*, 10(1), 26-45. <https://doi.org/10.5296/jmr.v10i1.12074>
- Allen, N. J., & Meyers, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. *The Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1990.tb00506.x>

Al-Kahtani, N. S., Iqbal, S., Sohail, M., Sheraz, F., Jahan, S., Bilal, A., & Haiderg, A.

(2021). Impact of employee empowerment on organizational commitment through job satisfaction in four and five stars hotel industry. *Business Management Science Letters*, *11*, 813–822.

<https://doi.org/10.5267/j.msl.2020.10.022>

Alromaihi, M. A., Alshomaly, Z. A., & George, S. (2017). Job satisfaction and employee performance: A theoretical review of the relationship between the two variables.

International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences, *6*(1), 1-20.

Anderson, A. Y., Nava, N. J., & Cortez, P. (2018). The conduits and barriers to reentry for formerly incarcerated individuals in San Bernardino. *Journal of Prison*

Education and Reentry, *5*(1), 2-17. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1180299.pdf>

Armstrong, M., & Taylor, S. (2014). *Armstrong's handbook of human resource management practice* (13th ed.). Kogan Page Publishing.

https://dl.icdst.org/pdfs/files/8483f557c9bb0435e935b4e9554f5a5_5.pdf

Astray-Caneda, V., Busbee, M., & Fanning, M. (2011). Social learning theory and prison work release programs. *Proceedings of the Tenth Annual College of Education & GSN Research Conference*, Miami, FL.

<https://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?referer=&httpsredir=1&article=1165&context=sferc>

- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191-215. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191>
- Bandura, A., Adams, N. E., & Beyer, J. (1977). Cognitive processes mediating behavioral change. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 35(3), 125-139. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.35.3.125>
- Bandura, A. (1988). Organizational applications of social cognitive theory. *Australian Journal of Management*, 13(2), 275-302. <https://doi.org/10.1177/031289628801300210>
- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist*, 44(9), 1175-1184. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.44.9.1175>
- Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 248-287. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90022-L](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90022-L)
- Bandura, A. (Ed.). (1999). *Self-efficacy in changing societies*. Cambridge University Press.
- Bandura, A., Pastorelli, C., Barbaranelli, C., & Caprara, G.V. (1999). Self-efficacy pathways to childhood depression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76(2), 258-269. <http://www.uky.edu/~eushe2/Bandura/Bandura1999JPSP.pdf>
- Bandura, A. (2006). Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales* (pp. 307-337). Information Age Publishing. <https://www.uky.edu/~eushe2/Bandura/BanduraGuide2006.pdf>

- Bannon, S. (2014). Why do they do it? Motivations of educators in correctional facilities. *St. Louis University Public Law Review*, 33(2), 301-315.
<https://scholarship.law.slu.edu/plr/vol33/iss2/5/>
- Bateman, T. & Strasser, S. (1984). A longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 21(1), 95-112.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/255959>
- Benna, M. T., Brahmasari, I. A., & Nugroho, R. (2017). The effect of job enrichment, Self-efficacy and organizational commitment on job satisfaction and performance of civil servants of department of health. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 6(2), 49-64.
[http://www.ijbmi.org/papers/Vol\(6\)2/version-4/I0602044964.pdf](http://www.ijbmi.org/papers/Vol(6)2/version-4/I0602044964.pdf)
- Berg, M. T., & Huebner, B.M. (2011). Reentry and the ties that bind: An examination of social ties, employment, and recidivism. *Justice Quarterly*, 28(2), 382-401.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/07418825.2010.498383>
- Berg, M. T., & Cobbina, J. E. (2017). Cognitive transformation, social-ecological settings, and the reentry outcomes of women offenders. *Crime & Delinquency*, 63(12), 1522–1546. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128716660521>
- Bhola, S.S., & Dhanawade, S.S. (2013). Higher education and employability: A review. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2290103>
- Binda, H., Weinberg, J., Maetzener, N., & Rubin, C. L. (2020). You're almost in this place that doesn't exist. *Journal of Prison Education and Reentry*, 6(2), 242-263.
<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1265662.pdf>

- Bloom, D., (2008). *Employment-focused programs for ex-prisoners: What have we learned, what are we learning, and where should we go from here?* MDRC Public Policy. https://www.mdrc.org/sites/default/files/full_87.pdf
- Boggs, B. G., (2019, June). *A legislator's toolkit for the new world of higher education: Correction by degrees: Postsecondary programs in prisons* (Paper No. 7) National Conference of State Legislatures. https://www.ncsl.org/Portals/1/Documents/educ/Postsecondary-Programs-in-Prisons_v02.pdf
- Bonta, J., & Andrews, D. A., (2017). *The psychology of criminal conduct*. Routledge.
- Bozick, R., Steele, J., Davis, L., & Turner, S. (2018). Does providing inmates with education improve post-release outcomes? A meta-analysis of correctional education programs in the United States. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 14(3), 389–428. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11292-018-9334-6>
- Brick, M. S. & Ajinkya, J. (2020). *Supporting success: The higher education in prison key performance indicator framework* (Report No. ED612972). Institute for Higher Education Policy. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED612972>
- Bronson, J., & Carson, E. A. (2019). *Prisoners in 2017* (Report No. NCJ 252156). U.S. Department of Justice. <https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/p17.pdf>
- Brown, K. (2018). *Putting Pell grants to work for working students*. National Skills Coalition. <https://www.nationalskillscoalition.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/Putting-Pell-Grants-to-work-for-working-students-1.pdf>

- Brown, M. A., & Rios, S. J. (2014). Can a workplace credentialing program improve inmate literacy? *The Journal of Correctional Education*, 65(2), 59-83.
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/e26507643>
- Brunton-Smith, I., & Hopkins, K. (2014). *The impact of experience in prison on the employment status of longer-sentenced prisoners after release*. Ministry of Justice Analytical Series. https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/296320/impact-of-experience-in-prison-on-employment-status-of-longer-sentenced-prisoners.pdf
- Burnes, J. J., Martin, J. E., Terry, R., McConnell, T. R., & Hennessey, M. N. (2018). Predicting postsecondary education and employment outcomes using results from the transition assessment and goal generator. *Career Development and Transition for Exceptional Individuals*, 41(2), 111–121.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/2165143417705353>
- Cai, J., Ruhil, A. V. S., & Gut, D. M. (2019). Prison-based education: Programs, participation, and proficiency in literacy/numeracy.
https://static1.squarespace.com/static/51bb74b8e4b0139570ddf020/t/5e4192c89a480e7dee6da3d9/1581355720733/2019_Cai_Ruhil_Gut_Prison-Based_Education.pdf
- Carberry, D. (2018). Masculinities, attachment theory, and transformative learning: A discussion of some theoretical considerations for developing an emotionally secure teaching praxis. *Journal of Prison Education and Reentry*, 4(2).
<https://doi.org/10.15845/jper.v4i2.883>

- Carnevale, A. P., Smith, N., & Strohl, J. (2010). *Help wanted: Projections of jobs and education requirements through 2018*. The Georgetown University Center on Education and the Workforce. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED524310>
- Carnevale, A., Jayasundera, T., & Gulish, A. (2016). *America's divided recovery: College haves and have nots*. Georgetown University Center on Education and the Workforce. <https://cew.georgetown.edu/cew-reports/americas-divided-recovery/>
- Carnevale, A. P., Gulish, A., & Strohl, J. (2018). *Educational adequacy in the twenty-first century*. The Century Foundation Center on Education and the Workforce McCourt School of Public Policy. <https://tcf.org/search/Educational+adequacy+in+the+twenty-first+century/>
- Carnevale, A.P., Smith, N., & Strohl, J. (2013) *Recovery: Job growth and education requirements through 2020* (Report No. ED584413). Georgetown University Center on Education and the Workforce. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED584413.pdf>
- Carson, E. A. (2018). *Prisoners in 2016* (Report No. NCJ 251149). U.S. Department of Justice. <https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/p16.pdf>.
- Carter, M. M. (2015). *The reentry of formerly incarcerated persons: Key accomplishments, challenges, and future directions* (Report No. COBO-150227). U.S. Department of Justice. <https://nicic.gov/reentry-formerly-incarcerated-persons-key-accomplishments-challenges-and-future-directions-report>

- Castro, E. L., Hunter, R. K., Hardison, T., & Johnson-Ojeda, V. (2018). The landscape of postsecondary education in prison and the influence of Second Chance Pell: An analysis of transferability, credit-bearing status, and accreditation. *The Prison Journal*, 98(4), 405–426. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0032885518776376>
- Centers, R., & Cantrill, H. (1946). Income satisfaction and income aspiration. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*. 41(1), 64 - 69.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/h0053923>
- Chamberlain, A. (2012). Offender rehabilitation: Examining changes in inmate treatment characteristics, program participation, and institutional behavior. *Justice Quarterly*, 29(2), 183-228. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07418825.2010.549833>
- Chaney, J., & Schwartz, J. (2020). Reintegrating formerly incarcerated citizens. In S. E. Clemans, A. Mandell, & K. LaBarge (Eds), *Explorations in adult higher education: An occasional paper series access, identity, and power in American higher education* (pp. 43-59). SUNY Empire State College.
<https://www.esc.edu/media/ocgr/publications-presentations/Occasional-Paper-Series-VI-1-7-2020-1.pdf#page=49>
- Chan, S., & Huff Stevens, A. (2001). Job loss and employment patterns of older workers. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 19(2), 484–521. <https://doi.org/10.1086/319568>
- Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4(1), 62-83.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/109442810141004>

- Cheng, J., & O-Yang, Y. (2018). Hotel employee job crafting, burnout, and satisfaction: The moderating role of perceived organizational support. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 72, 78–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.01.005>
- Cerda-Jara, M., Elster, A., & Harding, D. J. (2020). *Criminal record stigma in the college-educated labor market and how to level the playing field*. Institute for Research and Labor Employment. https://irle.berkeley.edu/files/2020/05/Harding_Jara-Cerda-Elster-brief.pdf
- Contardo, J. & Tolbert, M. (2008). *Prison postsecondary education: Bridging learning from incarceration to the community*. http://johnjay.jjay.cuny.edu/files/ContardoTolbert_Paper.pdf
- Conway, P. F. (2022). Andragogy in prison: Higher education in prison and the tenets of adult education. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 72(4), 361–379. <https://doi.org/10.1177/07417136221100481>
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2003). *Business research methods* (8th ed). McGraw-Hill.
- Couloute, L. (2018). Getting back on course: Educational exclusion and attainment among formerly incarcerated people. *Prison Policy Initiative*. <https://www.prisonpolicy.org/reports/education.html>
- Couloute, L. (2018). Prison policy nowhere to go: Homelessness among formerly incarcerated people. *Prison Policy Initiative*. <https://www.prisonpolicy.org/reports/housing.html>

- Couloute, L., & Kopf, D. (2018). Out of prison & out of work: Unemployment among formerly incarcerated people. *Prison Policy Initiative*.
<https://www.prisonpolicy.org/reports/outofwork.html>
- Council of Economic Advisors (2016, April). *CEA report: Economic perspectives on incarceration and the criminal justice system*.
<https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/sites/whitehouse.gov/files/documents/CEA%2BCriminal%2BJustice%2BReport.pdf>
- Council of Economic Advisors (2019). *The state of homelessness in America*.
<https://www.nhipdata.org/local/upload/file/The-State-of-Homelessness-in-America.pdf>
- Courtney, J. A. (2019). The relationship between prison education programs and misconduct. *The Journal of Correctional Education*, 70(3), 43-59.
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/26864369>
- Cox, R. (2015). *The effect of private sector work opportunities in prison on labor market outcomes of the formerly incarcerated* (Report No: 2015-014). Center for Economic and Social Research. https://cesr.usc.edu/documents/WP2015_014.pdf
- Crabbe, M. J. C. (2016). Education for offenders in prison. *Journal of Pedagogic Development* 6, (3), 3-7.
- Craft, T., Gonzalez, N., Kelleher, K., Rose, M., & Takor, O. (2019). A second chance college-in-prison programs in New York State. Rockefeller Institute of Government's Center for Law & Policy Solutions. https://rockinst.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/06/5-30-19_CLPS-Report-College-in-Prison.pdf

- Crayton, A., & Neusteter, S. R. (2008). *The current state of correctional education*. John Jay College, Prisoner Reentry Institute. https://www.prisonlegalnews.org/media/publications/pri_crayton_state_of_correctional_education.pdf
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Culibrk, J., Deli, M., Mitrovic, S., & Culibrk, D. (2018). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement: The mediating role of job involvement. *Frontiers in Psychology, 9*, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00132>
- Das, G. (2002). *Industrial Psychology*, King Books Co.
- Davis, L. M., Bozick, R., Steele, J. L., Saunders, J., & Miles J. N. V. (2014). *Evaluating the effectiveness of correctional education: A meta-analysis of programs that provide education to incarcerated adults*. Bureau of Justice Assistance. https://www.bja.gov/Publications/RAND_Correctional-Education-Meta-Analysis.pdf
- Davis, L.M. (2019). *Higher education programs in prison: What we know now and what we should focus on going forward*. Rand Corporation. https://www.rand.org/content/dam/rand/pubs/perspectives/PE300/PE342/RAND_PE342.pdf
- Delaney, R., Subramanian, R., & Patrick, F. (2016). *Making the grade: Developing quality postsecondary education programs in prison making the grade*. Vera Institute of Justice. <https://www.vera.org/downloads/publications/making-the-grade-postsecondary-education-programs-in-prison.pdf>

- Delaney, R., Patrick, F., & Boldin, A. (2019). *Unlocking potential: Pathways from prison to postsecondary education*. Vera Institute of Justice. <https://www.vera.org/downloads/publications/unlocking-potential-prison-to-postsecondary-education-report.pdf>.
- Dewey, S., Codallos, K., Barry, R., Drenkhahn, K., Glover, M., Muthig, A., Lockwood-Roberts, S., & Abbott, B. (2020). Higher education in prison: A pilot study of approaches and modes of delivery in eight prison administrations. *The Journal of Correctional Education*, 71(1), 57-89. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/26915042>
- Devers, L. (2011). *Desistance and developmental life course theories*. Bureau of Justice Assistance, U.S. Department of Justice. <https://bja.ojp.gov/sites/g/files/xyckuh186/files/media/document/desistanceresearchsummary.pdf>
- Donald, M. F., Lucia, M. E., & Victor, N. M. (2016). The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment among academic staff members in a selected higher education institution. *Journal of WEI Business and Economics*, 5(2), 25-35. <https://westeastinstitute.com/journals/wp-content/uploads/2017/06/Mabasa-Fumani-Donald-Mabasa-Engetani-Lucia-Netshidzivhani-Mmbegeni-Victor.pdf>
- Duke, B. (2018). A meta-analysis comparing educational attainment prior to incarceration and recidivism rates in relation to correctional education. *The Journal of Correctional Education*, 69(1), 44-59. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/26508040>

- Duke-Benfield, A. E., Wilson, B. Kaleba, K., & Leventoff, J. (2019). *Expanding opportunities: Defining quality non-degree credentials for states*. National Skills Coalition. https://thinkcollege.net/sites/default/files/files/Defining_Quality_Non-degree_Credentials_NSC.pdf
- Duwe, G. (2018). *The effectiveness of education and employment programming for prisoners*. American Enterprise Institute. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED585975.pdf>
- Duwe, G. (2017). *The use and impact of correctional programming for inmates on pre- and post-release outcomes*. US Department of Justice Office of Justice Programs: National Institute of Justice. <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/250476.pdf>
- Duwe, G., & Clark, V. (2014). The effects of prison-based educational programming on recidivism and employment. *The Prison Journal*, 94(4), 454–478. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0032885514548009>
- Engel, E., Kuehl, S., & O'Dell, M. (2016). *Employment challenges for the formerly incarcerated*. *ProfitWise News and Views*, 2, 14-17. <https://www.chicagofed.org/publications/profitwise-news-and-views/2016/employment-challenges-for-the-formerly-incarcerated>
- Eslami, J., & Gharakhani, D. (2012). Organizational commitment and job satisfaction. *ARPN Journal of Science and Technology*, 2(2), 85- 91. <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download;jsessionid=E6ED0BE989A2E7E4DE8BD4DD670BDD19?doi=10.1.1.679.6952&rep=rep1&type=pdf>

- Erisman, W., & Contardo, J. B., (2005). *Learning to reduce recidivism: A 50-state analysis of postsecondary correctional education policy*. The Institute for Higher Education Policy. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED558210.pdf>
- Evans, D. (2018). The elevating connection of higher education in prison: An incarcerated student's perspective. *Critical Education*, 9(11), 1-14.
<https://doi.org/10.14288/ce.v9i11.186318>
- Evans, D. N., Pelletier, E., & Szkola, J. (2018). Education in prison and the self-stigma: empowerment continuum. *Crime & Delinquency*, 64(2), 255–280.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128717714973>
- Farabee, D., Zhang, S. X., & Wright, B. (2014). An experimental evaluation of a nationally recognized employment-focused offender reentry program. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 10, 309-322. <https://doi:10.1007/s11292-014-9201-z>
- Ferguson, W. J., Cloud, D., Spaulding, A. C., Shelton, D., Trestman, R. L., Altice, F. L., Champion-Lippmann, C., Thomas, D., & Taxman, F. S. (2016). A call to action: A blueprint for academic health sciences in the era of mass incarceration. *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved*, 27(2), 5-17.
<https://doi.org/10.1353/hpu.2016.0051>
- Fitzgerald, E., Chronister, K. M., Forrest, L., & Brown, L. (2013). OPTIONS for preparing inmates for community reentry: An employment preparation intervention. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 41(7), 990 –1010.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0011000012462367>

- Flores, L. Y., & O'Brien, K. M. (2002). The career development of Mexican American adolescent women: A test of social cognitive career theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 49*(1), 14–27. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.49.1.14>
- Fredericksen, A., & Omli, D. (2016). *Jobs after jail: Ending the prison to poverty pipeline*. The Alliance's Job Gap Economic Prosperity series. <https://nicic.gov/jobs-after-jail-ending-prison-poverty-pipeline>
- Fullilove, R. E., Cortes, A., Gamarra, R., & Maxis, H. (2019). The Bard Prison Initiative: Education, Incarceration, and Public Health. *American Journal of Public Health, 110*(S1), 533-534. <https://ajph.aphapublications.org/doi/10.2105/AJPH.2019.305457>
- Geiger, R. L. (2019). *American higher education since World War II: A history*. Princeton University Press.
- Georgia Department of Correction. (2020). *Inmate statistical profile inmates released during CY2020*. http://www.dcor.state.ga.us/sites/all/themes/gdc/pdf/Profile_inmate_releases_CY2020.pdf
- Gierzynski, J. (2015). Correctional education programs. The University of Vermont, The Vermont Legislative Research Service. https://www.uvm.edu/sites/default/files/Department-of-Political-Science/vlrs/New%20folder/Correctional_Education.pdf

- Gorgol, L. E., & Sponsler, B. A. (2011). *Unlocking potential: Results of a national survey of postsecondary education in state prison institute for higher education policy* (Issue Brief No. IB01201105). Institute for Higher Education Policy.
<https://www.ojp.gov/ncjrs/virtual-library/abstracts/unlocking-potential-results-national-survey-postsecondary-education>
- Gowan, M. A., & Lepak, D. (2007). Current and future value of human capital: predictors of reemployment compensation following a job loss. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 44*(3), 135-144. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1920.2007.tb00032.x>
- Gurbuz, A. (2007). An assessment on the effect of education level on the job satisfaction from the tourism sector point of view. *Doğuş Üniversitesi Dergisi, 8*(1), 36-46.
<https://doi:10.31671/dogus.2019.240>
- Hall, L. L. (2015). Correctional education and recidivism: Toward a tool for reduction. *The Journal of Correctional Education, 66*(2), 4-29.
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/26507655>
- Hantula, D. A. (2015). Job Satisfaction: The management tool and leadership responsibility. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 35*(1-2), 81-94.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01608061.2015.103143>
- Haq, S., & Chandio, J. A. (2014). Employees job satisfaction: Analyzing the satisfaction by length of service and employment status. *International Journal of Management Sciences and Business Research, 3*(2), 16-29.
<https://ssrn.com//abstract=2718782>

- Harding, D., Morenoff, J., & Wyse, J. B. (2019). *On the outside prisoner reentry and reintegration*. University of Chicago Press. <https://doi.org/10.1086/705789>
- Harlow, C. W., (2003). *Education and correctional populations* (Report no. NCJ 195670). Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report.
<https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED477377>
- Hee, O. C., Shi, C. H., Kowang, T. O., Fei, G. P., & Ping, L. L. (2020). Factors influencing job satisfaction among academic staffs. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education*, 9(2), 285~291.
<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1256319.pdf>
- Heider, C., & Lehman, K. (2019). Education and transformation: An argument for college in prison. *Critical Education*, 10(9), 1-13.
<https://doi.org/10.14288/ce.v10i9.186361>
- Henry, M., Bishop, K., de Sousa, T., Shivji, A., & Watt, R. (2018). *The 2017 Annual homeless assessment report to Congress: Part 2: Estimates of Homelessness in the United States*. U. S. Department of Housing and Urban Development.
<https://www.huduser.gov/portal/sites/default/files/pdf/2017-AHAR-Part-2.pdf>
- Henry, M., Watt, R., Mahathey, A., Ouellette, J., & Sitler, A. (2020). *The 2019 annual homeless assessment report (AHAR) to congress: Part 1: point-in-time estimates of homelessness*. U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development.
https://works.bepress.com/dennis_culhane/235/

- Hirschi, T. (1969). *Causes of delinquency*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
https://www.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upm-binaries/36812_5.pdf
- Hlavka, H., Wheelock, D., & Jones, R. (2015). Ex-offender accounts of successful reentry from prison. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation, 54*(6), 406-428.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10509674.2015.1057630>
- Hopkins, W. G. (2008). Research design. Choosing and fine-tuning a design for your study. *Sports Science, 12*, 12-21.
<http://www.sportsci.org/jour/0001/wghdesign.html>
- Howard, J. & D. Frink (1996), The effects of organizational restructure on employee satisfaction. *Group and Organization Management, 21*(3), 278-303.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v22i3.609>
- Hunter, B. A., Lanza, A. S., Lawlor, M., Dyson, W., & Gordon, D. M. (2015). A strengths-based approach to prisoner reentry: The fresh start prisoner reentry program. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 11*, 1-17. <https://doi:10.1177/0306624X15576501>
- Jackson, J. M., Procidando, M. E., & Cohen. C. E. (1989). Subject pool sign-up procedures: A threat to external validity. *Social Behavior and Personality, 17*(1), 29-43. <https://dx.doi.org/10.2224/sbp.1989.17.1.29>
- Jacobs, A & Weissman, M. (2019). Mapping the landscape of higher education in New York State Prisons (Report No: ED594766). Prisoner Reentry Institute John Jay College of Criminal Justice. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED594766>

- Jensen, E. L., Williams, C. J., & Kane, S. L. (2020). Do in-prison correctional programs affect post-release employment and earnings? *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 64(6-7) 674–690.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0306624X19883972>
- Jones, J. M. (1997). *Prejudice and racism*. McGraw-Hill. <https://doi.org/10.1037/14189-019>
- Judge, T., & Kammeyer-Mueller, J. (2012). *Job attitudes*. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 63, 341–367. <http://m.timothy-judge.com/documents/Jobattitudes.pdf>
- Kaeble, D. (2018). *Probation and parole in the United States, 2016* (Report No. NCJ 251148). Bureau of Justice Statistics. <https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/ppus16.pdf>
- Karatepe, O., & Karadas, G. (2015). Do psychological capital and work engagement foster frontline employees' satisfaction? A study in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(6), 1254–1278. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-01-2014-0028>
- Kessuwan, K., & Muenjohn, N. (2010). Employee satisfaction: Work-related and personal factors. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 6(3), 168-177. <https://studylib.net/doc/8048590/employee-satisfaction--work-related-and-personal-factors>
- Kirsch, I., Braun, H., Yamamoto, K. & Sum, A. (2007). *America's perfect storm: Three forces changing our nation's future*. Education Testing Service.
<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED496620.pdf>

- Koo, A. (2016). Correctional education Can make a greater impact on recidivism by supporting adult inmates with learning disabilities. *Journal of Criminal Law & Criminology*, *105*(1), 233-270.
<http://scholarlycommons.law.northwestern.edu/jclc/vol105/iss1/6>
- Koo, B., Yu, J., Chua, B. L., Lee, S., & Han, H. (2020). Relationships among emotional and material rewards, job satisfaction, burnout, affective commitment, job performance, and turnover intention in the hotel industry. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, *21*(4), 371-401.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2019.1663572>
- Koutroubas, V., & Galanakis, M. (2022). Bandura's social learning theory and its importance in the organizational psychology context. *Psychology Research*, *12*(6), 315-322. <https://dx.doi.org/10.17265/2159-5542/2022.06.001>
- LaBriola, J. (2020). Post-prison employment quality and future criminal justice contact. *Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences*, *6*(1), 154– 172.
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/10.7758/rsf.2020.6.1.07>
- Lalitamishra, (2018). A study of employee satisfaction and organizational commitment of the teaching and non-teaching staff. *International Journal of Engineering Research and Application*, *8*(1), 35-39.
http://www.ijera.com/papers/Vol8_issue1/Part-1/F0801013539.pdf

- Latham, G. P., & Budworth, M. H. (2007). The study of work motivation in the 20th century. In L. Koppes-Bryan (Ed.), *Historical perspectives in industrial and organizational psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 353-381). Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315820972>
- Law, M. F., & Guo, G. J. (2016). Correlation of hope and self-efficacy with job satisfaction, Job stress, and organizational commitment for correctional officers in the Taiwan Prison System. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 60(11), 1257–1277.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0306624X15574997>
- Lawler, E. E., & Porter, L. W. (1963). Perception regarding management compensation. *Industrial Relations*, 3(1), 41-49. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-232X.1963.tb00808.x>
- Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Hackett, G. (1994). Toward a unifying social cognitive theory of career and academic interest, choice, and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 45(1), 79-122.
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S000187918471027X>
- Likert, R. (1961). *New patterns of management*. Garland Science
- Liu, O. (2011). Examining American post-secondary education (Report No. ETS 1122). Educational Testing Service. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1002/j.2333-8504.2011.tb02258.x>

- Loan, L. T. M. (2020). *The influence of organizational commitment on employees' job performance: The mediating role of job satisfaction*. *Management Science Letters* 10, 3307–3312. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/7c3c/cd05f0a608288f39cd69c965ade497096d53.pdf?>
- Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp.1297-1343). Rand McNally.
- Lockwood, K. S., Nally, J. M., Ho, T., & Knutson, K. (2015). Racial disparities and similarities in post-release recidivism and employment among ex-prisoners with a different level of education. *Journal of Prison Education and Reentry*, 2(1), 16-31. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1148844.pdf>
- Lumina Foundation (2019). A stronger nation: Learning beyond high school builds American talent. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED598334>
- Lunenburg, F. C. (2011). Expectancy theory of motivation: Motivating by altering expectations. *International Journal of Business, Management, and Administration*, 15(1), 1-6.
<http://www.nationalforum.com/Electronic%20Journal%20Volumes/Lunenburg,%20Fred%20C%20Expectancy%20Theory%20%20Altering%20Expectations%20IJMBA%20V15%20N1%202011.pdf>

- Lutze, F. E., Rosky, J. W., & Hamilton, Z. K. (2014). Homelessness and reentry: A multisite outcome evaluation of Washington State's reentry housing program for high risk offenders. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *41*(4), 471-491.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854813510164>
- Maqsood, A., Hanif, R., Rehman, G., & Glenn, W. (2012). Validation of the three-component model of organizational commitment questionnaire. *FWU Journal of Social Sciences*, *6*(2), 135-145. <https://irep.ntu.ac.uk/id/eprint/6649>
- Mehrad A., & Zangeneh M. H. T. (2017). Different levels of job satisfaction by educational organization motivators. *Open Science Journal*, *2*(2), 1-6.
<https://doi:10.23954/osj.v2i2.872>
- Merton, R. K. (1938). Social structure and anomie. *American Sociological Review*, *3*(5), 672-682. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2084686>
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J. & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*, 538-551. <https://doi:10.1037/0021-9010.78.4.538>
- Miller, D.C. (1941). Economic factor in the morale of college-trained adults. *American Journal of Sociology*, *47*(1), 139-156. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/2769672>
- Min, H., Tan, P. X., & Kamioka, E. (2020). Enhancement of study motivation model by introducing expectancy theory. *International Journal of Learning and Teaching*, *6*(1),28-32. <http://www.ijlt.org/uploadfile/2020/0305/20200305105004440.pdf>

- Mohammed, H., & Mohamed, W. A. W., (2015). *Reducing recidivism rates through vocational education and training*. Paper presented at Fourth World Congress on Technical and Vocational Education and Training, Malaysia, 204, 272 – 276.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.08.151>
- Moodie, G. (2020). American higher education since World War II: A history. *Journal of Higher Education Policy & Management*, 42(3), 380-384.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2020.1747960>
- Muhammad, N., & Akhter, M. (2010). Supervision, salary, and opportunities for promotion as related to job satisfaction. *ASA University Review*, 4(1), 256-261.
<http://www.asaub.edu.bd/data/asaubreview/v4n1s119.pdf>
- Muhlhausen, D. B. (1968-2018). *National institute of justice: An overview of offender reentry* (Report No. NCJ 251554). U.S. Department of Justice
<https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/251554.pdf>
- Nagin, D. S., Solow, R. M., & Lum, C. (2015). Deterrence, criminal opportunities, and police. *Criminology*, 1, 74-100. <https://doi:10.1111/1745-9125.12057>
- National Skills Coalition, (2017). *Statement on the PROSPER Act of 2017- a bill that would reauthorize the higher education act*.
<https://www.nimh.nih.gov/health/statistics/mental-illness.shtml>
- Nabavi, R. T, (2012). *Bandura's Social Learning Theory & Social Cognitive Learning Theory*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/267750204_Bandura's_Social_Learning_Theory_Social_Cognitive_Learning_Theory

- Newman, A., Ucbasaran, D., Zhu, F., & Hirst, G. (2014). Psychological capital: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(1), 120–138.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1916>
- Nightingale, D. S., & Wandner, S. A. (2011). *Informal and nonstandard employment in the United States*. (Policy Brief no. 20). The Urban Institute.
<https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/32791/412372-Informal-and-Nonstandard-Employment-in-the-United-States.PDF>
- Noor Harun, A. K., & Noor Hasrul, N. M. N. (2006). Evaluating the psychometric properties of Allen and Meyer's Organizational Commitment Scale: A cross-cultural application among Malaysian Academic Librarians. *Malaysian Journal of Library & Information Science*, 11(1), 89-101.
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/265322369>
- Paeka, S., Schuckert, M., Kim, T., & Lee, G. (2015). Why is hospitality employees' psychological capital important? The effects of psychological capital on work engagement and employee morale. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 50, 9-26. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2015.07.001>
- Park, S., Johnson, K., & Chaudhuri, S. (2019). Promoting work engagement in the hotel sector: Review and analysis. *Management Research Review*. 42(8). 971–990.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/MRR-03-2018-0126>

- Peter, L., & Stevens Andersen, T. (2016). The effectiveness of certificates of relief as collateral consequence relief mechanisms: An experimental study. *Yale Law & Policy Review Inter Alia*, 11-22. https://ylpr.yale.edu/sites/default/files/IA/leasure.certificates_of_relief.produced.pdf
- Prabawa, IMA, & Supartha, IWG (2018). Increase employee productivity through Empowerment, teamwork, and training in service companies. *E-Journal of Management of Udayana University*, 7(1), 497-524. <https://doi.org/10.24843/EJMUNUD.2018.v7.i01.p19>
- Putnam, J. F. (1981). *Postsecondary student terminology: A handbook of terms and definitions for describing students in postsecondary education*. National Center for Education Statistics. <https://nces.ed.gov/pubs79/79409.pdf>
- Oakford, P., Brumfield, C., Goldvale, C., Tatum, L., diZerega, M., & Patrick, F. (2019). *Investing in futures: Economic and fiscal benefits of postsecondary education in prison*. Vera Institute of Justice. https://www.prisonlegalnews.org/media/publications/Vera_Institute_of_Justice_Investing_In_Futures_2019.pdf
- Öktem, Ş., & Öztoprak, M. (2020). The effects of workplace safety climate on organizational identification and job satisfaction perceptions in hotel kitchens. *Journal of Hospitality*, 2(1-2), 15-29. <http://htmjournals.com/jh/index.php/jh/article/view/22>
- Oluwasegun, O. Ritter-Williams, D., & Antonopoulos, G. (2019). A phenomenological study of employer perspectives on hiring ex-offenders. *Cogent Social Sciences*, 5(1), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311886.2019.1571730>

- Rabuy, B., & Kopf, D. (2015). *Prisons of poverty: Uncovering the pre-incarceration incomes of the imprisoned*. Prison Policy Initiative.
<https://www.prisonpolicy.org/reports/income.html>
- Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. A. (2009). Job satisfaction in organizational research. In D. Buchanan & A. Bryman (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of organizational research method*. (pp. 196-212). SAGE Publications. <https://uk.sagepub.com/en-gb/eur/the-sage-handbook-of-organizational-research-methods/book230566>
- Rakis, J. (2005). Improving the employment rates of ex-prisoners under parole. *Federal Probation*, 69(1), 7-12. https://www.uscourts.gov/sites/default/files/69_1_2_0.pdf
- Raziq, A., & Maulabakhsh, R. (2015). Impact of working environment on job satisfaction. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 23, 717-725.
[https://doi:10.1016/S2212-5671\(15\)00524-9](https://doi:10.1016/S2212-5671(15)00524-9)
- Robbins, S., & Judge, T. (2013). *Organizational behavior* (15th ed.). Pearson.
- Robinson, G. (2016, December 7). Prison time should be well spent: Criminal Justice, education, society, and culture. *Baltimore Sun*.
<https://www.aei.org/publication/prison-time-should-be-well-spent/>
- Rosenfeld, R., Petersilia, J., & Visher, C. (2008). The first days after release can make a difference. *Corrections Today*. <https://www.ojp.gov/pdffiles1/nij/222983.pdf>
- Rosenstock, I. M., Strecher, V. J., Marshall H., & Becker, M., H. (1988). Social learning theory and the health belief model. *Health Education Quarterly*, 15(2),175-183.
doi:10.1177/109019818801500203

- Ross, J. I. (2019). Getting a second chance with a university education: Barriers & opportunities. *Interchange*, 50(2), 175-186. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10780-019-09354-4>
- Rubenstein, L., Tabaczyk, O.M., & Jeglic, E. (2019). Barriers to education: Policies and perceptions of individuals with histories of sexual offenses in higher education. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation*, 58(8), 720-731. <https://dx.doi.org//10.1080/10509674.2019.1648355>
- Runell, L. L. (2015). Identifying desistance pathways in a higher education program for formerly incarcerated individuals. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 61(8),1–25. <https://doi: 10.1177/0306624X15608374>
- Runell, L. L. (2020). Becoming a social work professional after incarceration. *Journal of Social Work*, 20(3), 307–320. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1468017318815293>
- Saks, A. M. (1995). Longitudinal field investigation of the moderating and mediating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between training and newcomer adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 211-225. <https://doi:10.1037/0021-9010.80.2.211>
- Sampson, R., & Laub, J. (1997). A life-course theory of cumulative disadvantaged and the stability of delinquency. In T. Thornberry (ed) *Development theories of crime and delinquency*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203793350>

- Schudde, L. (2017). *Nonpecuniary returns to postsecondary education: Examining early non-wage labor market outcomes among college-goers in the United States* (Report no. ED573078). Center for Analysis of Postsecondary Education and Employment. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED573078>
- Schultz, D. P., & Schultz, S. E. (2004). *A history of modern psychology* (8th ed.). Thomson Wadsworth.
- Schwartz, J. (2015). After incarceration and adult learning: A collaborative inquiry and writing project. *Adult Learning, 26*(2), 51-57.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1045159515573022>
- Shannon, S. K. S., Uggen, C., Schnittker, J., Thompson, M., Wakefield, S., & Massoglia, M. (2017). The growth, scope, and spatial distribution of people with felony records in the United States, 1948–2010. *National Center for Biotechnology Information, 54*(5), 1795–1818.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5996985/>
- Sheppard, A., & Ricciardelli, R. (2020). Employment after prison: Navigating conditions of precarity and stigma. *European Journal of Probation, 12*(1), 34–52.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/2066220320908251>
- Skorton, D., & Altschuler, G. (2013, March). College behind bars: How educating prisoners pays off. *Forbes*, 1-6.
<https://www.forbes.com/sites/collegeprose/2013/03/25/college-behind-bars-how-educating-prisoners-pays-off/?sh=753a52d32707>
- Soenanta, A., Akbar, M., & Sariwula, R. T. (2020). The effect of job satisfaction and

organizational commitment to employee retention in a lighting company. *Issues in Business Management and Economics*, 8 (4), 97-103.

<https://doi.org/10.15739/IBME.20.009>

Southgate, A. N., & Mondo, T. S. (2017). Perceptions of job satisfaction and distributive justice: A case of Brazilian Fand B hotel employees. *Tourism*, 65(1), 87–102.

<https://hrcak.srce.hr/178626>

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. SAGE Publications. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781452231549>

Stanley, M. J., Banks, S., Matthew, W., & Brown, S. (2020). Operationalization of bandura’s social learning theory to guide interprofessional simulation. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice*, 10(10), 61–67.

<https://doi.org/10.5430/jnep.v10n10p61>

Strait, A., & Eaton, S. (2017). *Post-secondary education for people in prison. Social Justice Funders Opportunity Brief*.

<https://heller.brandeis.edu/sillerman/pdfs/opportunity-briefs/post-secondary-education-people-in-prison.pdf>

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2016). *Homelessness and housing*. <http://www.Homelessness%20and%20Housing%20%20SAMHSA.htm>

Szifris, K., Fox, C., & Bradbury, A. (2018). A realist model of prison education, growth, and desistance: A new theory. *Journal of Prison Education and Reentry*, 5(1), 41–62. <https://doi.org/http://doi.org/10.25771/qac7-9w77>

Taliaferro, W. (2018, February). *Short-term education and training programs as part of a*

career pathway: The case for Pell eligibility. CLASP.

<https://www.clasp.org/sites/default/files/publications/2018/02/2018.02.14%20Short-Term%20Education%20and%20Training%20Programs.pdf>.

Taliaferro, W., & Pham, D. (2018, May). *Incarceration to reentry 2 education & training pathways in Ohio.* CLASP.

<https://www.clasp.org/publications/report/brief/incarceration-reentry-education-training-pathways-ohio>

Taliaferro, W., Pham, D., & Cielinsk, A. (2016, October). *From incarceration to reentry a look at trends, gaps, and opportunities in correctional education and training.*

CLASP. https://www.clasp.org/sites/default/files/public/resources-and-publications/publication-/2016.10.27_fromincarcerationtoreentry.pdf

Taxman, F. (2011). The cattle call of reentry. *Criminology and Public Policy*, 10, 925-937. <https://doi:10.1111/j.1745-9133.2011.00780.x>

The Leadership Conference Education Fund (2013, October). *A second chance: Charting a new course for re-entry and criminal justice reform.* Report of The Leadership

Conference Education Fund. <http://civilrightsdocs.info/pdf/reports/>

[A_Second_Chance_Re-Entry_Report.pdf](http://civilrightsdocs.info/pdf/reports/A_Second_Chance_Re-Entry_Report.pdf)

Tewksbury, R., & Ross, J. I. (2017). Instructing and mentoring ex-con university students in departments of criminology and criminal justice. *Corrections: Policy Practice*

and Research, 4(2), 79–88. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23774657.2017.1387081>.

- Thompson, M. N., & Cummings, D. L. (2010). Enhancing the career development of individuals who have criminal records. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 58(3), 209-218. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-0045.2010.tb00187.x>
- Tolbert, M. (2012). *A reentry education model supporting education and career advancement for low-skill individuals in corrections*. U.S. Department of Education. <https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ovae/pi/AdultEd/reentry-mode.pdf>
- Tonseth, C., & Bergsland, R. (2019). Prison education in Norway – The importance for work and life after release. *Cogent Education*, 6(1), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1628408>
- Torpey, E. (2018). *Employment outlook for bachelor's-level occupations*. Bureau of Labor Statistics. <https://www.bls.gov/careeroutlook/2018/article/bachelors-degreeoutlook.Htm>
- Tsai, C.-L., Chaichanasakul, A., Zhao, R., Flores, L. Y., & Lopez, S. J. (2013). Development and validation of the strengths self-efficacy scale. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 22(2), 221–232. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072713493761>
- Uggen, C. (2000). Work as a turning point in the life course of criminals: A duration model of age, employment, and recidivism *American Sociological Review*, 65, 529-546. <https://doi:10.2307/2657381>
- United States Census Bureau, (2020). *Quick facts Chatham County, Georgia*. <https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/chathamcountygeorgia,GA/PST045>
- 219

- U.S. Bureau of Labor, (2020). *Economic News Release*.
<https://www.bls.gov/news.release/empst.t05.htm>
- U.S. Department of Education. (2013). Revision of PD-13-04 instructions for the completion of the Annual Vocational Rehabilitation Program/Cost Report.
<https://www2.ed.gov/policy/speced/guid/rsa/pd/2013/pd-13-05.pdf>
- U.S. Interagency Council on Homelessness (2018). *Homelessness in America: Focus on Veterans*. https://www.usich.gov/resources/uploads/asset_library/Homelessness_in_America_Focus_on_Veterans.pdf
- Vandenberg, R. J., & Lance, C. E. (1992). Examining the causal order of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Journal of Management*, 18(1), 153-167.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639201800110>
- Varghese, F. P. (2013). Vocational interventions with offenders: Interdisciplinary research, theory, and integration. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 41(7), 1011–1039.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000012462369>
- Varghese, F. P., Anderson, K. M., Cummings, D. L., & Fitzgerald, E. (2018). The Offender Job Search Self-Efficacy Scale: Development and initial validation. *Psychological Services*, 15(4), 477–485. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ser0000170>
- Varghese, F. P., & Cummings, D. L. (2013). Introduction: Why apply vocational psychology to criminal justice populations? *The Counseling Psychologist*, 41(7), 961–989. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000012459363>

- Viseu, J., Pinto, P., Borralha, S., & Neves de Jesus, S. (2020). Roles of individual and organizational variables as predictors of job satisfaction among hotel employees. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 20(4), 466–480.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1467358420924065>
- Visher, C. V., & Kachnowski, V. (2006). *Finding work on the outside: Results from the returning home project in Chicago*. The Urban Institute.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/292865328_Finding_work_on_the_outside_Results_from_the_returning_home_project_in_Chicago
- Visher, C. A. (2015). Re-entry and reintegration after incarceration. In Wright, J. D. (Ed). *The international encyclopedia of the social & behavioral sciences* (2nd ed). Elsevier. 61-66. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-097086-8.45096-8>
- Visher, C.A., Debus-Sherrill, S. A., & Yahner, J. (2010). Employment after prison: A longitudinal study of former prisoners. *Justice Quarterly*, 28, 698-718.
<https://doi:10.1080/07418825.2010.535553>
- Visher, C. A., & P. K. Lattimore, (2007). Major study examines prisoners and their reentry needs. *NIJ Journal*, 258, 30–33.
<https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/219603g.pdf>
- Visher, C., Kachnowski, V., La Vigne, N., & Travis, T. (2004). *Baltimore prisoners' experiences returning home*. The Urban Institute.
<https://www.urban.org/research/publication/baltimore-prisoners-experiences-returning-home>

- Wagner, P., & Rabuy, B. (2017). *Mass incarceration: The whole pie 2017*. Prison Policy Initiative. <https://www.prisonpolicy.org/reports/pie2017.html>
- Wandner, S. A., Balducchi, D. E., & O'Leary, C. J. (2018). Public employment policy for an aging workforce. *Gerontology Geriatrics Medicine*, 4, 1–13.
<https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/2333721418800064>
- Warner, C., Kaiser, J., & Houle, J. N., (2020). Locked out of the labor market? State-level hidden sentences and the labor market outcomes of recently incarcerated young adults. *The Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences*, 6(1), 132-151. <https://doi.org/10.7758/rsf.2020.6.1.06>
- Weaver, A., Rousseau, D., & Napior, A. J. G. (2020). Learning from teachers: A needs assessment of faculty in postsecondary correctional education. *Journal of Correctional Education*, 71(1), 18-56. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/26915041>
- Weiss, H. M. (2002). Deconstructing job satisfaction: Separating evaluations, beliefs, and affective experiences. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12(2),173-194.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822\(02\)00045-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(02)00045-1)
- Western, B., Kling, J. R., & Weiman, D. (2001). The labor market consequences of incarceration. *Crime and Delinquency*, 47(3), 410-427.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128701047003007>
- Wiegand, A., Sussell, J., Valentine, E., & Henderson, B. (2015). *Evaluation of the re-integration of ex-offenders (RExO) program: Two-year impact report* (Project No. 1251). Social Policy Research Associates.
https://www.mdrc.org/sites/default/files/ETAOP_2015-04.pdf

- Wilson, M., Alamuddin, R., & Cooper, D. (2019). Unbarring access: A landscape review of postsecondary education in prison and its pedagogical supports. *Ithaca S+R*.
<https://doi.org/10.18665/sr.311499>
- Wolowska, A. (2014). Determinants of organizational commitment. *Human Resources Management & Ergonomics*, 8, 129-146. https://frcatel.fri.uniza.sk/hrme/files/2014/2014_1_10.pdf
- World Health Organization. (2019). *Substance abuse*.
https://www.who.int/topics/substance_abuse/en/
- World Population Review. (2020). Chatham County Population 2020.
<https://worldpopulationreview.com/us-counties/ga/chatham-county-population/>
- Yahner, J., Paddock, E., & Willison, J. B. (2016). *Validation of the employment retention inventory: An assessment tool of the national institute of corrections*. The Urban Institute. https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/85331/validation-of-the-employment-retention-inventory_0.pdf
- Yakin, M., & Erdilb, O. (2012). *Relationships between self-efficacy and work engagement and the effects on job satisfaction: A survey on certified public accountants*. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*. Paper presented at the Eighth International Strategic Management Conference, Kocaeli, Turkey, 58, 370 – 378. <https://doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.1013>
- Yang, C. S. (2017). *Local labor markets and criminal recidivism*.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpubeco.2016.12.003>

- You, S., Kim, A. Y., & Lim, S. A. (2017). "Job satisfaction among secondary teachers in Korea: Effects of teachers' sense of efficacy and school culture," *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 45(2), 284-297.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.1177%2F1741143215587311>
- Youssef-Morgan, C., & Luthans, F. (2015). Psychological capital and well-being. *Stress and Health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*, 31(3), 180–188. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2623>
- Zakaria, M. S., Jaafar, J. R., & Lazim, N.H.M. (2019). Employment issues among ex-offenders: Difficulties in securing employment and barriers of employment. *International Journal for Studies on Children, Women, Elderly and Disabled*, 5, 8-12. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/326681863>
- Zboja, J. J., Jackson, R. W., & Grimes-Rose, M. (2020). An expectancy theory perspective of volunteerism: the roles of powerlessness, attitude toward charitable organizations, and attitude toward helping others. *International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing*, 17(4), 493–507. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12208-020-00260-5>
- Zhao, P., Xu, X., Peng, Y., & Matthews, R. A. (2020). Justice, support, commitment, and time are intertwined: A social exchange perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 120, 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103432>
- Zimmer, T. (2016). The importance of education for the unemployed: Based on a working paper. *Indiana Business Review*.
<http://www.ibrc.indiana.edu/ibr/2016/spring/pdfs/article2.pdf>

Zinger, I. (2018). Ottawa: The Correctional Investigator Canada. (Report no PS100)

Annual Report: Office of the Correctional Investigator. <https://www.ocibec.gc.ca/cnt/rpt/pdf/annrpt/annrpt20172018-eng.pdf>

Zoukis, C. (2015). *College courses in prison cut crime: College-level education in prison cuts recidivism.* Prison Education.com.

<https://prisoneducation.com/resources/prison-research-papers/college-courses-in-prison-cut-crime/>

Appendix A: Permission to Use the New General Self-Efficacy Scale

Email Requesting to Use the New General Self-Efficacy Scale

Good Morning Dr. Chen,

My name is Elizabeth S. Roney. I am a doctoral student at Walden University, completing my studies on “Job Satisfaction of Adults Reentering the Workforce after Incarceration.” One of the areas I am exploring is the self-efficacy of the incarcerated population, and I would love to have the opportunity to use your scale.

Subsequently, I am requesting permission to use your New General Self-Efficacy Scale. Thanking you in advance.

Respectfully,
Elizabeth S. Roney

Cc: Dr. S. Gully
Cc: Dr. D. Eden

New General Self-Efficacy Scale

Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). New General Self-Efficacy Scale [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi:10.1037/t08800-000

Instrument Type: Rating Scale

Test Format: Responses on a 5-point scales (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree).

Source:

Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4(1), 62-83.
doi:10.1177/109442810141004.

Permissions:

Test content may be reproduced and used for non-commercial research and educational purposes without seeking written permission. Distribution must be controlled, meaning only to the participants engaged in the research or enrolled in the educational activity. Any other type of reproduction or distribution of test content is not authorized without written permission from the author and publisher.

Appendix B: Permission to Use the Job Satisfaction Survey

Email Request to Use the Job Satisfaction Survey

Good Morning Dr. Spector,

My name is Elizabeth S. Roney. I am a doctoral student at Walden University, completing my studies on “Job Satisfaction of Adults Reentering the Workforce after Incarceration.” One of the areas I am exploring is the self-efficacy of the incarcerated population, and I would love to have the opportunity to use your scale.

Subsequently, I am requesting permission to use the Job Satisfaction Survey. Thanking you in advance.

Respectfully,
Elizabeth S. Roney

Job Satisfaction Survey

Spector, P. (n.d.). Job Satisfaction Survey.

<https://paulspector.com/assessments/pauls-no-cost-assessments/job-satisfaction-survey-jss/>

Instrument Type: Rating Scale

Test Format: Responses on 6-point scales (1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree).

Source:

Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the job satisfaction survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 13, 693-713.

Permissions:

The JSS is a copyrighted scale. It can be used free of charge for noncommercial educational and research purposes, in return for the sharing of results”.

Appendix C: Permission to Use the Organizational Commitment Scales

Email Request to Use the Organizational Commitment Scales

Good Morning Dr. Meyer,

My name is Elizabeth S. Roney. I am a doctoral student at Walden University, completing my studies on “Job Satisfaction of Adults Reentering the Workforce after Incarceration.” One of the areas I am exploring is the organizational commitment of the incarcerated population, and I would love the opportunity to use your questionnaire.

Subsequently, I am requesting permission to use your Organizational Commitment Scales. Thanking you in advance.

Respectfully,
Elizabeth S. Roney

Cc: Dr. N. Allen

Organizational Commitment Scales

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Organizational Commitment Scales [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS.
doi:<https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t10076-000>

Instrument Type: Rating Scale

Test Format: Responses on 7-point scales (1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree).

Source:

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 538-551. doi:<https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.4.538>

Permissions:

Test content may be reproduced and used for non-commercial research and educational purposes without seeking written permission. Distribution must be controlled, meaning only to the participants engaged in the research or enrolled in the educational activity. Any other type of reproduction or distribution of test content is not authorized without written permission from the author and publisher. Always include a credit line that contains the source citation and copyright owner when writing about or using any test.