

2019

The Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers

Larrica Mosley
Walden University

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



Part of the [Public Administration 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 Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Larrica Mosley

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. Dianne Williams, Committee Chairperson,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Jessie Lee, Committee Member,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Tanya Settles, University Reviewer,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2019

Abstract

The Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers

by

Larrica Mosley

MA, Central Michigan University, 2012

BS, Georgia State University, 2010

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

May 2019

Abstract

Individuals with a criminal background face several barriers to securing employment, one of which is the reluctance of hiring managers to extend employment offers to them. African American ex-offenders are disproportionately affected by these barriers. The purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes of hiring managers in a metropolitan area in the Southern United States and to identify the factors that influence the hiring decisions of ex-offenders. A descriptive study design was used to explore whether type of criminal offense, length of crime, or race of offender affect a hiring manager's decision to hire an ex-felon. The disparate impact of discrimination theory served as the theoretical framework. Data were collected from a nonrandom, purposive sample of 376 current and former hiring managers and HR professionals who make hiring decisions. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Study findings revealed 53% of respondents said they would not hire a person with a felony conviction, which supports the claim that a person's criminal background does play a role in whether an employer extends an employment offer. The findings of this study may provide guidance to legislators in developing or amending hiring laws to better facilitate the reintegration of people with felony criminal backgrounds. Such action may engender positive social change through the reduction of criminal activity in urban areas, gains in the economy, improved public safety, more stable neighborhoods, and a decrease in the cost of housing offenders. Moreover, positive social change may occur when offenders do not recidivate because the state will not have to spend funds on incarceration.

The Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers

by

Larrica Mosley

MS, Central Michigan University, 2012

BA, Georgia State University, 2010

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

May 2019

Table of Contents

List of Tables	iv
List of Figures	v
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study	1
Introduction	1
Background of the Study	2
Problem Statement	5
Purpose of the Study	7
Research Question and Hypotheses	8
Theoretical Framework	9
Nature of the Study	9
Assumptions	11
Scope and Delimitations	11
Limitations	12
Significance	12
Summary	14
Chapter 2: Literature Review	15
Literature Search Strategy	18
Theoretical Framework	19
Literature Review Related to Key Variables and/or Concepts	20
Barriers to Employment	20
Recidivism	29

Laws Affecting Ex-Offenders' Employment Prospects	30
Summary and Transition.....	33
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	35
Research Design and Approach	35
Methodology	38
Sampling	39
Instrumentation	40
Data Analysis Plan.....	40
Threats to Validity	42
Validity	42
Reliability.....	42
Ethical Procedures	43
Summary.....	44
Chapter 4: Results.....	45
Data Collection	45
Results.....	56
Statistics – Cross Tabulation.....	56
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations.....	78
Interpretation of the Findings.....	79
Limitations of the Study.....	80
Recommendations.....	81
Implications for Social Change.....	81

Conclusion	82
References.....	84
Appendix A: Invitation to Participate in Survey.....	93
Appendix B: Descriptive Statistics	95

List of Tables

Table 1. Responses to Allowing Felons to Explain Convictions/Charges..... 47

Table 2. Likeness to Conduct a Criminal Background Check for a Job Applicant 48

Table 3. Likeliness to Hire a Person with a Felony Conviction 51

Table 4. Likeness to Hire a Person with a Felony Charge..... 56

List of Figures

Figure 2. Demographic statistics for gender.	50
Figure 3. Demographic statistics for age	52
Figure 4. Demographic statistics for education.	53
Figure 5. Demographic statistics for job industry.....	54
Figure 6. Demographic statistics for organizational size.....	55
Figure 7. Likelihood to conduct a criminal background check.....	58
Figure 8. Significance of checking criminal background.	59
Figure 9. Likelihood to hire a person with a felony charge (not a conviction).....	60
Figure 10. Likelihood to hire a person with a felony conviction.....	61
Figure 11. Likelihood to hire with a felony drug charge.	62
Figure 12. Likelihood to hire nonviolent felon/white collar crime.....	63
Figure 13. Likelihood to hire a violent felon.	64
Figure 14. Likelihood to consider social status.....	65
Figure 15. Likelihood to reconsider hiring decision based off explanation.....	66
Figure 16. Likelihood to hire with a murder conviction.	67
Figure 17. Likelihood to allow applicant to explain conviction.	68
Figure 18. Automatically rejected application.....	69
Figure 20. Significance of checking criminal background.	71
Figure 21. People with convictions should receive a 2 nd chance.....	72
Figure 23. Significant factors.....	73
Figure 24. Policy revisions agreeableness.	75

Figure 25. Reconsider hiring decision based off explanation..... 75

Figure 26. Policy revision – male vs female..... 76

Figure 27. Agreeableness about law makers revising policies. 77

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

In the United States, having a criminal history equates to having a “civil death” and hinders one’s ability to obtain employment (Adams, Chen, & Chapman, 2016, p. 2). When people with criminal backgrounds complete their sentences, they face multiple barriers to reintegrating into society, including employment. This is despite their qualifications for a job. Barriers to employment include employer attitudes and perceptions and hiring restrictions because of the type of criminal offence (Harley & Feist-Price, 2014). Adams et al. (2016) noted that half of ex-offenders remain unemployed 1 year after their release. Even though employment is critical to a successful reentry to society (Adams et al., 2016), a felony conviction limits an ex-offender’s opportunity in the employment market.

Regarding employer perceptions, some employers believe that if a person has a criminal background, the person is more likely to engage in workplace violence or commit other crimes in the workplace and will not consider employing these individuals (Gauvey & Webb, 2013; Williams, 2007). Yet, although potential employers may believe that there are risks of hiring someone with a criminal history, researchers have not found conclusive evidence showing that workplace violence or other perceived risks are associated with the hiring of people with criminal histories (Gauvey & Webb, 2013; Williams, 2007). This lack of evidence suggests that ex-offenders have the same chance of committing a crime as nonoffenders.

With there being more than 54,000 ex-offenders in Georgia (State Correctional Statistics, 2015), with a recidivism rate of 27% (Boggs & Worthy, 2015) and an unemployment rate of 5.3%, (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016), the ability to obtain employment is difficult for people with criminal backgrounds. This chapter provides the background of the study, the problem statement, the purpose of the study, as well as the research question and hypotheses. Finally, this research may positively affect social change by increasing awareness of disparate impact and disparate treatment among hiring managers, allowing more people with a criminal background to secure gainful and meaningful employment.

Background of the Study

There is extensive evidence showing that people with criminal histories face barriers to finding employment. Solomon (2012), for instance, argued that there are more than 38,000 laws within the United States that impose “collateral consequences” (p. 44) on individuals with backgrounds that create significant barriers to employment. Eighty percent of such laws function as impediments that deny people with criminal backgrounds employment (Solomon, 2012, p. 44). Another barrier is the reluctance of hiring managers to employ ex-offenders. Holzer revealed that more than 60% of U.S. hiring managers declined to employ people with criminal backgrounds (as cited in Solomon, 2012). This finding is supported by the Society for Human Resource Management’s (SHRM; 2010) discovery in 2010 that 74% of organizations discarded an application disclosing a felony conviction, a finding which was supported by a 2012 study by the organization (SHRM, 2012). According to the SHRM (2012), 96% of

organizations stated that they would not hire a person with a violent felony, such as rape, homicide, and domestic violence, while 74% of organizations claimed that they would not hire a person with a nonviolent felony, such as theft, the sale of drugs, and DUI. The perceptions of hiring managers may be in sync with those of the public; the *Wall Street Journal* conducted an informal poll of its readers that revealed that 67% of survey respondents claimed that an organization should reject a candidate with any criminal background (Gauvey & Webb, 2013).

Perceptions of safety and a desire to reduce risk are factors in why hiring managers are reluctant to hire those with a criminal history. Forty-nine percent of employers reported that they refuse to hire ex-offenders to ensure a safe working environment for employees, for example (SHRM, 2012). In another SHRM quantitative study conducted in 2012, employers revealed that they felt hiring an ex-offender would increase workplace crime (Young & Powell, 2014). In addition, because they are ultimately responsible for negligent hiring or any criminal acts committed by an employee, many employers opt against hiring ex-offenders (Young & Powell, 2014). Yet, as Gauvey and Webb (2013) reported, there are no studies showing that hiring ex-offenders is a potential risk for violent behavior in the workplace (p. 2).

The difficulties faced by ex-offenders in finding employment have compelled action on the part of the U.S. federal government. On July 16, 2011, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) held a meeting to examine arrest and conviction records as a hiring barrier (Fliegel & Hartstein, 2011). The purpose of this meeting was to discuss protection for job applicants with criminal records under the Civil

Rights Acts of 1964, Title VII (Fliegel & Hartstein, 2011). During that meeting, the EEOC commissioners reviewed statistics that showed that there was a significant disparity in arrest and conviction rates for African Americans and Latinos (Fliegel & Hartstein, 2011). The EEOC later introduced policies that prevent U.S. companies from rejecting applicants with criminal records (EEOC, 2012). The EEOC encourages companies to consider factors such as time passed since the offense, rehabilitation, and the relationship between the crime itself and the nature of the job (EEOC, 2012).

In 2015, Georgia adopted hiring practices that prohibit state government organizations from using a person's criminal record as an automatic disqualification to employment (Bluestein, 2016). As stated by Georgia Governor Deal, the purpose of this new policy was to "improve public safety, enhance workforce development, and provide increased state employment opportunities for applicants with criminal convictions" (Wilson, 2015, para. 7). This new practice involves removing any questions from state employment applications that ask about criminal history, which allows applicants to be judged on their qualifications rather than their criminal history (Wilson, 2015). If an employer uses a criminal record to make a hiring decision, the employer must provide information regarding why the applicant was not hired within 30 days (Rodriguez & Avery, 2018). Even with this law in place, some private organizations in Georgia still ask about criminal history on employment applications, according to Rodriguez and Avery (2018). This is because there are no federal laws that prohibit employers from asking about criminal history (EEOC, 2015).

Problem Statement

One in three Georgians have criminal histories (Georgia Justice Project, 2015). Rodriquez and Emsellem (2011) said that ex-offenders may experience employment discrimination after they have completed their sentences even though they are qualified for the positions for which they apply. Harding, Wish, Dobson, and Morenoff (2011) argued that ex-offenders face a high risk of economic insecurity attributable to the difficulties of obtaining employment (p. 2). However, according to my review of the literature, no research has been conducted in the Metro Atlanta area that focused solely on felons finding employment after serving their sentence.

Many of Georgia's polices prevent people with criminal histories from securing employment, with African Americans and Latinos being disproportionately impacted. Ex-offender unemployment has disproportionately impacted African Americans because they make up the majority of the criminal population (Rodriquez & Emsellem, 2011). In support of this claim, Solomon (2011) stated that since African Americans already suffer from racial discrimination, the effect of a criminal past for African Americans is "exacerbated" (p. 43). In addition, Devah Pager conducted two studies that found that the "criminal record penalty for African Americans was substantially greater than for white applicants" (as cited in Solomon, 2012, p. 43).

The EEOC reviewed statistics that revealed how Latino and African Americans may suffer from disparate impact because of their criminal record (Fliegel & Hartstein, 2011). There is also a problem with the stigma of having a felony history as it influences the perceptions of hiring managers when making a hiring decision which

disproportionately effects African Americans and Latinos. Furthermore, hiring managers allow their perceptions to evaluate ex-offenders during the hiring process, which may disparately impact some candidates – mainly African Americans (Young & Powell, 2014). Prior researchers have also exposed that White men with criminal records are more likely to be offered a job than Black men without a criminal history (Roundtree, 2014). Therefore, African American and Latino ex-offenders are more likely to be perceived as unemployable than White ex-offenders, Young and Powell (2014) found.

In 2015, Georgia released 15,392 inmates, of whom 56.53% were African Americans (Georgia Department of Corrections, 2016). In the Metro Atlanta area alone, which includes the Cobb, DeKalb, and Fulton Counties, 3,556 ex-offenders were released in 2015 (Georgia Department of Corrections, 2016). The large population of African American offenders released in Georgia disproportionately impacts African American when it comes to obtaining a job. This problem was worthy of research in the Metro Atlanta area because this issue raises economic and public safety concerns for the City of Atlanta and its citizens as there are more than 54,000 ex-offenders in Georgia (State Correctional Statistics, 2015), with a recidivism rate of 27% (Boggs & Worthy, 2015) and an unemployment rate of 5.3%, which is greater than the U.S. unemployment rate of 5% (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). These data suggest there is a problem with securing employment in Georgia and a criminal offense makes it more difficult to secure employment.

There are no known studies, according to my review of the literature, on the role of race in the employability of felons in the Metro Atlanta area. Therefore, it was

important to conduct research that seeks to gain an understanding of the perceptions of managers who hire ex-offenders and their opinions about extending employment to ex-offenders--primarily people with felony convictions. I viewed it as necessary to examine how factors contribute to an employer's hiring decision in order to reduce recidivism as well as increase ex-offenders' quality of life and economic and social status. Therefore, in this study, I examined the effects of type of criminal offense and job qualifications on the perceived employability of an ex-offender.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the attitudes of hiring managers in the Metro Atlanta area and to identify the factors that influence the hiring decision of ex-offenders. People with criminal backgrounds may face difficulties providing for themselves and their families, which may increase repeat offenses and lead to recidivism (James, 2015). Using the disparate impact theory of discrimination (Belton, 2005), I conducted this quantitative research to gain an understanding of the perceptions of managers who hire ex-offenders and their opinions about extending employment to ex-offenders (primarily people with felony convictions). The disparate impact theory of discrimination proposes that "practices and procedures that are facially neutral in their handling of dissimilar groups and fall more severely on one group, such as Blacks or women, than any other group, such as Whites" (Belton, 2005, p. 434). I distributed a survey to 376 people to investigate the attitudes of hiring managers in Metro Atlanta. The objective was to determine if the type of crime, amount of time since the crime was committed, race, or social status affects hiring personnel's decision to hire ex-offenders.

Furthermore, I sought to identify relationships among variables such as the criminal's education level and length of sentence that may affect the employability of felons in Metro Atlanta. Study findings may provide a foundation for improving hiring policies and procedures.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to assess which factors influence hiring managers' considerations when deciding to offer or deny a person with a felony conviction employment. Conducting this research allowed me to gain an understanding of hiring managers' perceptions of hiring ex-offenders by assessing the relationships between type of criminal offense and time passed since offense. The research question was, Does the type of criminal offense, length of crime, or race of offender affect a hiring manager's decision to hire an ex-felon?

For this research, I hypothesized that:

H_01 : the type of criminal offense may influence a hiring manager's attitude or perception of a person with a felony conviction during the selection process, which may in turn affect the hiring decision, H_11 : the seriousness of the offense will negatively impact a hiring managers' perceptions of a person with a felony conviction, H_12 : the recency of the offense will be negatively related to a hiring managers' perception of a person with a felony conviction, and H_13 : African American and Latino ex-offenders will be perceived negatively by hiring managers as less qualified during the selection process.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was the disparate impact theory of discrimination. Because of the *Griggs v. Duke Power Co.* case in 1977, the U.S. Supreme Court introduced the disparate impact of discrimination theory (Belton, 2005). According to Belton (2005), this theory proposes that “practices and procedures that are facially neutral in their handling of dissimilar groups, but fall more severely on one group, such as Blacks or women, than any other group, such as Whites” (p. 434). A major characteristic of the disparate impact theory is that evidence of intentional discrimination is mandatory and cannot be defensible because of business necessity (Belton, 2005, p. 434). The disparate impact theory of discrimination is an established theory associated with the Civil Rights Act (Belton, 2005).

According to the disparate impact theory of discrimination, personnel selection practices could possibly include discriminatory racial practices in employment and employability (McDaniel, Kepes, & Banks, 2011, p. 568). Such practices “disparately exclude protected groups from employment opportunities” (Belton, 2005, p. 434). As Pettinato (2014) stated, “Challenging policies enables the exclusion of minorities from employment opportunities” (p. 840). I used this theory to determine whether employers will discriminate against candidates with felony criminal histories and whether race and type of crime play a role in the employability of ex-offenders.

Nature of the Study

The methodological approach was a quantitative, correlational design using a survey. The quantitative approach was best suited for this research, as this approach

assisted me in identifying any associations and relationships amongst several variables (Creswell, 2014). The survey design was the best tool, as it allowed me to gather and analyze a mathematical narrative of attitudes, opinions, and feelings of hiring managers that impacted their hiring decisions (Creswell, 2014). The principal instrument was a questionnaire survey. I used Survey Monkey, an online surveying tool, to manage and gather the survey data.

Using purposive sampling, I posted the Survey Monkey link on an open to the public LinkedIn account so participants could access the survey link. Although the sampling population was large, some of the population did not meet the qualifications for participating in the study because of their age or type of organization where they were employed. Moreover, the way the survey was structured, many participants were not eligible to take the survey. The expectation was to receive at least 115 surveys back. In the invitation to participate e-mail, I presented the survey, explained the purpose of the research, and informed the partakers of the survey closure date.

Seven days after distributing the original e-mail, I distributed a follow-up e-mail prompting the study participants to take the survey if they had not done so. In 14 days, I forwarded a closing e-mail that informed participants of the survey closing. Due to the amount of survey responses, the survey remained open for roughly seven months. To analyze the data, I performed a Chi Square analysis in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software (SPSS), which is a statistical program to manipulate and analyze the data. This analysis was used to look for correlations among variables.

Assumptions

In the study, the assumptions included but were not limited to the following: (1) the survey participants were all current or former hiring managers, (2) have made a hiring decision during their management period, and (3) be part of the LinkedIn network. One concern with using surveys was the number of completed, returned surveys. The survey method allowed me to provide numerical descriptions of the collected data (Creswell, 2014). In this research, I assumed that I would receive a large return of the survey. Moreover, using a quantitative approach, I was able to test the disparate impact theory of discrimination, which theorizes that some hiring practices may be discriminatory (McDaniel, Kepes, & Banks, 2011). I also assumed that the sample population was an accurate representation of the population I planned to study, and that people answered the survey questions honestly. To ensure that participants answered the survey honestly, the survey was made anonymous, confidential, and worded in a way that each participant could interpret easily. The survey participants were given the chance to withdraw from participation at any period. Taking these steps should have made the participants feel more at ease and confident in being truthful.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study was limited to survey responses of the 376 Human Resources professionals regarding the employability of people with criminal histories. The population was restricted to people who had Human Resources experience or had been a hiring manager. A delimitation of the study was that the sample was not randomly selected from the full Human Resources population. Relatively, the sample was drawn

from the small population of Human Resources practitioners from LinkedIn. The generalizability of the research findings was limited as the sample was not a true representation of the greater HR population.

Limitations

In this study, a potential limitation was that using a quantitative approach, I may not have been able to answer the research question based on the quality and quantity of data. I made the survey available to 376 working professionals to avoid such limitations. Another potential limitation was that I did not use random or probability sampling, but purposive sampling. Not using random or probability sampling could have affected the quality of the data and skewed the statistical data. Another limitation was that the chosen instrument may not have measured what it was intended to measure. A final limitation was that the disparate impact theory of discrimination may not have revealed if the perceptions of hiring managers had an effect on a felon's hire ability.

Significance

The EEOC has recognized that some job applicants suffer disparities when attempting to gain employment, mainly effecting Latino and African Americans (EEOC, 2012). Obtaining employment is the utmost significant factor that prevents recidivism (James, 2015). Out-of-date or biased hiring procedures also impede felons from attaining appropriate employment (Solomon, 2012). I attempted to identify the whys and wherefores employers failed to hire qualified applicants who have a felony criminal background by examining hiring managers' attitudes towards and perceptions of felons. Although there has not been similar research conducted in the Metro Atlanta area, prior

research suggested that Black applicants may suffer from the disparate impact theory of discrimination because these applicants are affected more than Whites are by their felony convictions (Solomon, 2012). This study was important because it was needed to identify factors hiring managers considered when deciding to offer or deny employment to felons. The results of this research may provide valuable information for hiring managers, legislators, and the general public.

This research contributed to positive social change by offering lawmakers and politicians with material that could assist them with changing policies and legislation to better facilitate the reintegration of people with felony criminal backgrounds. Prior research revealed that community supervision costs less than incarcerating offenders and can reduce recidivism by 30% (The Pew Center on the States, 2014). Implementation of related policies may engender positive social change through the reduction of criminal activity in the Metro Atlanta area, gains in the economy, improved public safety, more stable neighborhoods, and a decrease in the cost of housing offenders. Moreover, positive social change may occur when offenders do not recidivate because the state would not have to spend funds on incarceration.

As suggested by The Pew Center on the States (2011), states spend more than \$50 billion a year on corrections while recidivism rates continuously increase. There are more than 38,000 U.S. laws or policies that hinder ex-offenders from employment (Solomon, 2012). This research will enhance professional practice by providing hiring managers with statistics and other pertinent information regarding the employability of people with criminal histories. Moreover, this study may lead to positive social change

by highlighting the obstacles felons face while trying to find employment and offer ways for felons to reenter society. Ultimately, the expectation is that felons can reintegrate and thrive in the general public while providing for their families.

Summary

Employment is the most imperative factor that affects the recidivism rate. Because of out-of-date or imbalanced hiring practices, people with felony criminal backgrounds may face obstacles when seeking to obtain employment. Prior research indicated that employers are not likely to hire individuals with felony criminal convictions. This problem excessively affects African Americans. This research could serve as a vehicle for opening employment doors for convicted felons and changing the hiring perception of hiring personnel. This research can be beneficial to policymakers and U.S. hiring managers. If a person with a felony criminal background meets the job requirements, those individuals should have the same opportunity as individuals without criminal backgrounds. The following literature review will offer a clearer picture to the research problem. Chapter 2 will report statistics on the unemployment rate, employer perceptions of hiring ex-offenders, and ex-offenders' barriers to employment.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In Chapter 1, I presented an overview of the study which included a detailed description of the study's background, problem, purpose, research question and hypotheses, and theoretical framework. This chapter provides more detail about the research problem and formulation of the research question and hypotheses. In the chapter's literature review, I discuss the barriers ex-offenders face while attempting to reintegrate into society, including stigmas and employer perceptions. This chapter also includes a discussion of how media influence a person's perception of an ex-offender and an overview of the different types of crimes.

With roughly 7 million adults in jail, prison, or on probation or parole, the U.S. has the biggest correctional population in the world (Bichler & Nezam, 2014). Georgia's jail population was 54,004 in 2013, which was about 35% higher than the nationwide average for a state's penal population (State Correctional Statistics, 2015). Moreover, the probationer population was 160,000 in 2013, which was approximately 362% higher than the nationwide average for a state's probationer population (State Correctional Statistics, 2015). In 2015, there were 17,685 people booked in jail or prison and 15,392 released from jail or prison in Georgia (Georgia Department of Corrections, 2016). In 2015 in the Atlanta area alone, which includes Cobb, DeKalb, and Fulton Counties, 3,556 ex-offenders were released (Georgia Department of Corrections, 2016). Throughout the United States, about 650,000 people are released from incarceration and back into the public each year (Richardson & Flower, 2014).

When ex-offenders reenter society, they need jobs, yet, according to Richardson and Flower (2014), finding gainful employment is one of the biggest challenges ex-offenders face when released into the community (p. 35). With an estimated 2016 population of 472,522, and employment in excess of 432,322, it is difficult for individuals who do not have a criminal history to find jobs in Atlanta, Georgia. Hence, numerous capable applicants face barriers to securing employment due to their felony criminal histories (Georgia Justice Project, 2015). Research suggests that people with criminal histories experience significant barriers to employment, including employer attitudes and perceptions and hiring restrictions because of the type of criminal offense (Harley & Feist-Price, 2014). Solinas-Saunders and Stacer (2015) stated that a stigma is attached to a criminal conviction. Richardson and Flowers further supported this claim by arguing, “The stigma of a criminal record is itself a barrier to gainful employment” (p. 37).

While there is research that indicates that people with criminal histories face difficulties with securing employment, the problem is that there is a gap in the research that does not reveal why people with a criminal background fail to secure employment even when they are competent and meet the necessary qualifications for the position applied. None of these studies speak about the qualified ex-offenders. This matter is worthy of research because there are gaps in the literature that could potentially disclose the reasons why ex-offenders do or do not obtain employment after a conviction even though these individuals meet the job requirements. In the state of Georgia alone, this problem affects more than 54,000 individuals (State Correctional Statistics, 2015). Thus,

in this study, I analyzed the perceptions of hiring managers and the various reasons why employers do not hire ex-offenders while also exploring the relationship between the type of crime committed, race, and social status and the likelihood of gaining employment. Employers' reluctance to hire ex-offenders could become an economic problem as Harding et al. (2011) reported that people with criminal histories face a high risk of economic insecurity and have a greater challenge obtaining employment, which may lead to recidivism. For example, in Georgia, it is unlawful for a person convicted of a sex crime to be employed at any child care facility, church, school, any business exhibiting pornographic materials or activities, and any other place of business where minors congregate and is within 1,000 feet of a child care facility, school, or church (Georgia Bureau of Investigation, 2019). Researchers should, thus, extend the existing research on this issue so that the public may understand the barriers to employment and can work to prevent or reduce recidivism.

Solomon (2012) revealed that there are more than 38,000 U.S. laws that impose "collateral consequences" (p. 44) on individuals with a criminal background, which create significant barriers to employment. For example, pursuant to Georgia Code Section 42-1-17, sex offenders are limited to where they can work because they cannot work within 1,000 feet of children (Georgia Bureau of Investigation, 2019). This law makes it more difficult for sex offenders to obtain employment because they are limited to where they can work and because employers may feel that past behavior predicts future behavior. Although Gauvey and Webb (2013) suggested that prior research showed that historical criminal behavior predicts future criminal behavior, they found no

evidence to support the theory that hiring ex-offenders increases criminal behavior in the workplace. The SHRM conducted a study in 2010 which revealed that 74% of employers would discard a candidate's application if it had a felony conviction listed (SHRM, 2012). In New York City and Milwaukee, researchers conducted studies in which they found that a criminal record decreased the possibility of a callback from an employer by 50% (as cited in Solomon, 2012). Similarly, in 2013, the *Wall Street Journal* conducted a survey where 67% of *Wall Street Journal* readers said employers should deny an applicant with any past criminal offense (as cited Gauvey & Webb, 2013).

Since 2014, there have been more than 2 million people imprisoned and roughly 5 million people placed on probation or parole in the United States. (Bichler & Nitzan, 2014). Studies show that one third of American adults have an arrest record by age 23 (Solomon, 2012). As Solomon (2012) reported, in 2009, about 13 million people in the U.S. were arrested and freed from a local jail while more than 700,000 people were detained and freed from a state and or federal prison (see, also, SHRM, 2012). As noted in this section, people affected by imprisonment may face many barriers when trying to seek employment. Employers' attitudes and perceptions are one such barrier, according to Harley and Feist-Price (2014).

Literature Search Strategy

I retrieved the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 by using a diversity of scholarly resources obtained from Walden University Library databases, the SHRM website, and the Georgia Department of Corrections database. The literature was selected by reading the abstract of each scholarly journal, article, or website to ensure that the literature

would be valuable to the research. While searching for articles, I looked for articles that would both support and not support my hypotheses. Some of the literature selected was more than five years old. All the sources were scholarly sources and added value to the study. I used this literature because the literature was of great value to this study.

Theoretical Framework

In 1970, African American employees who worked at the Duke Power Company in North Carolina sued the organization for discrimination (Belton, 2005). Because of this case, the U.S. Supreme Court developed the disparate impact theory of discrimination (Belton, 2005). According to Belton (2005), “After more than a decade of judicial developments under Title VII, the Supreme Court summarized the two basic theories of discrimination (disparate treatment and disparate impact) on which much of the jurisprudence of employment discrimination law and civil rights law is based” (p. 434). In this case, the court ruled that even if the motive had nothing to do with racial discrimination, the company’s actions were still discriminatory. As Belton (2005) noted, the disparate impact theory was later codified by Congress in the Civil Rights Acts of 1991 (p. 434).

The disparate impact theory was later used successfully in the *Ricci v. DeStafano* case. In this case, the U.S. Supreme court found that employers discriminated against employees when the employer required a successful completion of a written exam in order to be qualified for a promotion, which ultimately eliminated particular individuals who were academically limited because they could not pass a test. Ultimately, this affected people who had not achieved academic success (McGinley, 2011). The *Ricci v.*

DeStafano case “adopts a restrictive interpretation of the disparate impact theory and it signals that intentional discrimination is more important than disparate impact” (para. 7). The case also broadened the disparate impact theory by expanding the definition of discriminatory intent to include any overt consideration of a protected characteristic (McGinley, 2011).

One critical use of the disparate impact theory was in an article regarding the employment of ex-offenders. Although there are no federal anti-discrimination regulations aimed at protecting ex-offenders, due to the number of minorities affected by such discrimination, “efforts have been made to use the disparate impact theory of discrimination available under Title VII as a remedy” (Pettinato, 2014, p. 833). The limitation of this theory was that it had not been widely used in research. Finally, this theory was important to the literature because this theory theorized that employers may discriminate against a certain group even if race is not an influence.

Literature Review Related to Key Variables and/or Concepts

Barriers to Employment

Employer and media perceptions and personal beliefs. Workplace violence has been a major concern in the United States. Numerous employers and employees worry or fear that their coworkers may retaliate against their employer by demonstrating violence in the workplace (Solomon, 2012). And as such, many employers are hesitant to hire individuals with criminal backgrounds. Prior research showed that some managers believed that ex-offenders had a greater chance at committing workplace violence than non-offenders (Williams, 2007). To support this claim, Solomon (2012) reported that

companies were less interested in hiring people who may potentially commit a future crime and who may be a risk to other employees and customers. However, no research proved workplace violence was attributable to people who have criminal histories. Nor is there evidence of a link between hiring an ex-offender and increased workplace violence. Better yet, there is an absence of empirical data that proves ex-offenders affect workplace crime. As supported by Maruna (2011), companies should recognize that “people can change, good people can do bad things, and that anyone should be able to move past prior convictions” (p. 97).

Over the period of 1992-1994, Harry Holzer surveyed around 3,000 employers in Detroit, Los Angeles, Boston, and Atlanta to analyze employers’ attitudes and behaviors on hiring applicants with a criminal background. Through this research, I discovered that companies were more eager to hire people with little work experience or welfare recipients than they were willing to hire a person with a criminal record (Schmitt & Warner, 2010). Harry Holzer conducted a follow-up study in Los Angeles that included over 600 employers. Holzer’s study revealed that companies were ready to employ people who committed drug offenses than people who committed violent offenses (Richardson & Fowler, 2014). Although having a criminal violation is a barrier to employment, the burden may be less severe for people who committed less severe crimes.

Employers’ perceptions of ex-offenders are an extra barrier. In 2009, researchers discovered that more than 60% of businesses declined to hire individuals with a criminal offense (Solomon, 2012). Rodriguez and Emsellem (2011) suggested that although a

criminal record alone is an inadequate measure of a person's risk of creating a safety or security threat, fears, myths, and biases against those with criminal records influence the decision making for many employers. Previous studies have revealed employers' opinions on hiring people with felonies. Although some studies showed that former criminal behavior forecasts future criminal conduct, Gauvey and Webb reported no research proves "hiring ex-offenders is causally connected to amplified workplace violence" (p. 2).

Lastly, Birkett (2014) claimed that media encouraged people's perceptions of individuals who commit acts of crime. This perception can influence the public's adverse attitude of people with a criminal history and can deter such people from employment.

Type of crime or offense. Prior research showed that the type of criminal offense played a major role in an employer's attitude and hiring decision of ex-offenders (Cerdeira, Stenstrom, & Curtis, 2014). While having a criminal history can impede an ex-offender's ability to be hired, felony convictions pose greater limitations on an ex-offender's chances of hire (Solinas-Saunders & Stacer, 2015). In the state of California, in 2008, researchers conducted a study that included more than 600 businesses, which revealed that companies would consider hiring an individual convicted of drug offenses before hiring a person with a violent offense (Richardson & Flower, 2014). In 2012, the SHRM (2012) conducted a survey that revealed that companies are less probable to employ ex-offenders with felonies. Data collected from the SHRM survey reported that 96% of organizations said they will not hire an ex-offender with a violent felony, while 74% of organizations said they will not hire an ex-offender with a nonviolent felony (SHRM,

2012). This research suggests that employers not only look at the fact that the person is an ex-offender but that they also assess the type of crime the ex-offender committed. Finally, Richardson and Flower (2014) proposed that even though a criminal history is detrimental to an ex-offender's employment, the type of crime could have a positive or negative influence on the hiring decision. Having a record of a lesser offense could potentially "lessen the harm" of having a criminal record (Richardson & Flower, 2014, p. 40).

Cerda, Stenstrom, and Curtis (2014) advised that previous research revealed that the type of crimes does influence an employer's attitude and hiring decision of ex-offenders. To support this claim, Harley and Fiest-Price (2014) agreed that the kind of offense played a role in the employability of ex-offenders. Moreover, Cerda et al. (2014) implied that people who committed violent crimes had a lesser chance at securing gainful employment than people who committed traffic or marijuana distribution offenses. Moreover, violent crimes held a more negative influence on the employer's hiring decision (Cerda et al., 2014). Other research revealed that some companies were more probable to employ a person with a past of drug-related felonies (Cerda, Stenstrom, & Curtis, 2014). Overall, violent crimes significantly reduced an ex-offender's employability compared to non-violent offenses.

White-collar crimes are crimes that are motivated by financial gain (Podgor, 2011) and include crimes such as embezzlement, tax fraud, and securities fraud (Ragatz, Fremouw, & Baker, 2012). Sutherland first introduced the term white-collar crime in 1939, as mentioned by Podgor (2011), and defined white-collar crimes as "crimes

committed by people of uprightness and great societal status in the progression of their profession” (p. 993). White-collar criminals have different levels of criminal intent than nonwhite-collar offenders (Ragatz et al., 2012). These offenders are likely to be White males with high levels of education (Ragatz et al., 2012).

In addition, Arnulf and Gottschalk (2012) argued that white-collar criminals do have previous criminal records and engage in recidivism. In contrast, Ragatz, Fremouw, and Baker (2012) proposed that white-collar offenders are more likely to have minor criminal convictions than nonwhite-collar offenders. Since white-collar offenders suffer from a significant amount of depression and anxiety, these offenders are more likely to experience recidivism (Ragatz, Fremouw, & Baker, 2012). On the other hand, since white-collar offenders are often wealthy, socially connected, educated, and socioeconomically privileged, these offenders may have a greater chance of employment (Arnulf & Gottschalk, 2012). This research suggested that people who commit white-collar crimes have a better chance at employment than people who commit violent crimes.

Length of sentence. According to Hansen (2013), African American men receive roughly 20% longer sentences than Caucasian men who commit the same crime. As of 2014, in Georgia, African Americans made up 31% of the population but 61% of Georgia’s prison population (The Council of State Governments [CSG] Justice Center, 2015). Thus, these longer sentences are excessively imposed upon African Americans, which could potentially have an adverse impact on African American felons who seek employment. To support this claim, the CSG Justice Center (2015) stated that there

continues to be a racial disproportionality in Georgia's prison system, which ultimately affects African Americans.

Prior research revealed that race is a factor that contributes to sentence disparities (Marcum, Higgins, & Tewksbury, 2011). In 2010, researchers conducted a study that revealed young, Black males were most likely to receive longer sentences (Marcum, Higgins, & Tewksbury, 2011). Based on the review of the literature, offenders who served longer sentences tend to be older when released and therefore are less likely to reoffend (Song & Lieb, 1993). Although this source is outdated, it provides valuable information regarding sentence length. This source was included because there is limited research on whether the length of a criminal sentence influences a hiring manager's hiring decision to extend an offer to an ex-offender. Therefore, hopefully the results of this research will identify any gaps in the literature.

Stigma, society, and social ties. Society views individuals convicted of a crime in a negative manner, which attaches a stigma to a criminal conviction (Solinas-Saunders & Stacer, 2015). The stigma associated with a conviction disclosed on a job application can "preclude consideration for a job interview" (Adams, Chen, & Chapman, 2016, p. 3). Young and Powell (2014) define a stigma as "a characteristic that is extremely discrediting and decreases the stigmatized individual from a complete and normal person to a contaminated, discounted person" (p. 298). To support this claim, Berg and Huebner (2011) proposed that, "the stigma of criminal conviction makes re-entering offenders unappealing job applicants" (p. 388). Smith (2015) argued that although some ex-offenders have victory with reconnecting with the general public, many ex-offenders

have problems with reconnecting with the general public. In support of Smith (2015) claim, researchers Harding et al. (2011) stated that not too many people with a criminal background has someone or something waiting on them once they complete their sentences. Also, ex-offenders' welfare is reliant on the access to public and nonprofit social services and the support of family and friends (Harding et al., 2011).

Rhodes (2008) conducted a study that revealed that 60% of employers requested criminal background information on candidates no matter the position the ex-offenders applied. Further research also revealed that 75% of employers admit that they would treat people with a criminal history "less favorably" (Rhodes, 2008, p. 4). This literature is 9 years old but is significant to the study as it provides information on a previous study where researchers surveyed employers on their opinions of hiring ex-offenders.

These types of actions by employers can cause an adverse impact on the candidates. According to the SHRM (2014), an adverse impact is "employment practices that seem unbiased but have a biased consequence on a protected group and can be a result of systematic discrimination" (para 1-3). As argued by Richardson and Flowers (2014), one barrier to gainful employment is the stigma of a criminal record" (p. 37). As Pinard (2014) implied that the stigma of a criminal record "holds people back and stand in the way of opportunity" (para. 1). Ultimately, when ex-offenders obtain suitable employment, ex-offenders can secure adequate housing, pay their bills, and produce a closer relationship with other members of society (Berg & Huebner, 2011).

Education. In Atlanta, jobs are scarce. Georgia suffered from having the third highest unemployment rate in the country in 2013 (United States Department of Labor

Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). Georgia had the highest unemployment rate (8.1%) in the country in 2014 (United States Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). At the end of May 2015, the Georgia unemployment rate was 6.3%, which ranked Georgia 42nd in the country and was a progression from 2013 and 2014 (Local Area Unemployment Statistics, 2015). Holding little education puts individuals with a criminal background at a larger drawback. Higher education is a well-documented ingredient for successful community reentry that can reduce recidivism (Rose, 2015).

Solomon (2012) said that, because of their poor education level, people with criminal backgrounds face “restricted” employment opportunities (p. 4). To support Solomon’s statement, Harding et al. (2011) mentioned that lower levels of education are a barrier for people with an arrest record. Petinato (2014) argued that one major reason ex-offenders cannot find employment after incarceration is because they tend to have less education when compared with the rest of the population. Despite having a college education, ex-offenders still face barriers to employment (Rose, 2015). As James (2015) argued, education is highly important when attempting to obtain employment in a “competitive global economy” and that most ex-offenders have low levels of education (p. 14). Consequently, higher education plays a critical role in reducing recidivism (Rose, 2015). As suggested by Custer (2013), ex-offenders need higher education and deserve to be treated as better.

Race. According to the Georgia Department of Corrections (2016), of the more than 17,000 arrests in 2015 in Georgia, the majority of such arrests involved African Americans (55.37%). As stated by Solomon (2012), “The effect of having a criminal

record is worsened among African Americans, who may already experience racial injustices in the labor market and are more likely than Whites to have a criminal record” (p. 42). Also, African American applicants face larger challenges obtaining employment when compared to Caucasian applicants (Solomon, 2012). In 2007, researchers conducted a study that revealed that White males with criminal records were more likely to receive a callback from an employer than Black males without a criminal record (Solinas-Saunders & Stacer, 2015). This comparison demonstrates the relationship between race and criminality that impedes the ability of African American applicants – regardless of their criminal history – to find suitable employment.

Whereas Gauvey and Webb (2013) argued that social ties play a significant role in the capability for ex-offenders to get employment, Solomon (2012) asserted that race is a factor also. Even though all individuals with criminal backgrounds face problems of getting employment, African American and Latino ex-offenders struggle harder with getting work than their Caucasian equivalents (Solomon, 2012). As suggested by Roundtree (2014), combining the stigma of having a criminal history with race harms Black people with criminal records more than it hurts White individuals with criminal records. Moreover, Solomon suggested that a study led by Devah Pager exposed, “The criminal record consequence was more severe for African Americans and Latinos than for the White applicants” (p. 43). Previous research also revealed that White men with criminal records received more favorable treatment than Black men without a criminal history (Roundtree, 2014). This study from Roundtree (2014) demonstrated that race was one of the factors that influence an employer’s hiring decision. Although males make up

75% of the criminal population, African Americans make up under 14% of the U.S. population but are 28% of all detentions (Solomon, 2012).

Recidivism

The Pew Center on the States (2011) defined recidivism as “the act of reengaging in criminal offending in spite of having been disciplined” (p. 7). Employment plays a role in reducing recidivism. People who have criminal pasts face countless trials after the successful conclusion of their punishments. Some of those trials include being able to secure public housing, the ability to receive welfare benefits, and the endless scrutiny from the general public (Solomon, 2012). One chief issue ex-offenders face is that ex-offenders most likely do not have a high-skill level or weak or no employment histories (Rhodes, 2008). As mentioned by Rhodes (2008), “sustainable employment lessens the likelihood that an ex-offender will commit additional crimes by somewhere between one-third and a half” (p. 2). While Rhodes (2008) stressed the significance of community associations between ex-offenders and the general public, Rhodes (2008) also stressed the significance of securing employment.

Additionally, Berg and Hueber (2011) suggested that there was an association amid social ties and recidivism. Lastly, Bergh and Hueber expressed that consistent with the social capital theory, “social ties are causal in obtaining access to jobs” (p. 389). Even though Berg and Hueber (2008) claimed that social ties was the biggest factor for avoiding recidivism, Gauvey and Webb (2013) suggested failure to get suitable employment was the principal cause of recidivism.

Laws Affecting Ex-Offenders' Employment Prospects

According to Solomon (2012), more than 38,000 U.S. laws “impose collateral penalties on ex-offenders,” thus creating added barriers to employment (p. 44). Eighty percent of such statutes refuse ex-offenders employment (Solomon, 2012). In Georgia, it is illegal for a person convicted of a felony to own a gun. Because of this law, individuals convicted of a felony offense cannot hold some certain jobs in certain local, state, or county agencies. The National Conference of State Legislatures defined a felony as “a severe offense that commonly carries a period of one year or more of imprisonment, up to a life term and includes more severe offenses such as drug trafficking, aggravated assault, rape, burglary, murder, robbery, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson” (Lawrence & Lyons, 2011). A felony conviction alone is sufficient to exclude an ex-offender for positions with government automatically (Lawrence & Lyons, 2011). U.S. Attorney General Eric Holder struggled to inspire states to assess hiring practices to see if any of those practices can be improved or abolished so people with a criminal history can be productive in society (Solomon, 2012). Still after Holder’s invitation, the majority of the organizations said they either would possibly or certainly not hire people with a criminal background (Solomon, 2012).

Even though 13 states have passed regulations that expunge and seal “low-level” crimes after an established number of years and three states passed laws to “limit the liability” of companies that employ ex-offenders, Georgia had previously failed to react on passing laws (Solomon, 2012). In contrast to Solomon (2012), the SHRM said that for companies to evade the accountability of careless employment practices, the court

systems require companies to confirm their use of “reasonable care” in all employment decisions (Gauvey & Webb, 2013, p. 3). Therefore, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) established policies and procedures that oversee the hiring practices for ex-offenders (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2015). Even though there are hiring policies in position, companies continue to face advantages and disadvantages of sorting out arrest and misdemeanor offenses from criminal records. Hence, the EEOC supplies organizations with strict guidelines for handling applications that contain disclosed criminal offenses (EEOC, 2015).

Although Solomon (2012) suggested certain laws were in position to not favor ex-offenders, Gauvey and Webb (2013) said some laws actually worked in ex-offenders’ favor. One law that worked in ex-offenders’ favor was the Second Chance Act, which is a policy that helps ex-offenders with securing jobs. Since the formation of the Second Chance Act, there have been efforts made to make sure ex-offenders have jobs. Whereas the purpose of the Second Chance Act was to motivate companies to hire ex-offenders, there is still an issue with ex-offenders being able to hold certain government jobs. Although the Second Chance Act provides grants and other funding to local government agencies to assist employees with finding a job, this act does not encourage local government agencies to employ ex-offenders (Gauvey & Webb, 2013).

Another law is the Fair Credit Reporting Act (FCRA). This is a federal law that requires employers to receive written permission from an applicant before an employer can check an applicant’s criminal history (Solomon, 2012). Under the FCRA, if an applicant is not hired because of a criminal conviction, the employer has a legal

obligation to provide the following information to the applicant: (1) the name, address, and phone number of the firm conducting the background investigation, (2) information on how to dispute the findings of the criminal investigation, and (3) a disclaimer that tells the applicant that the firm doing the background investigation did not make the hiring decision (Solomon, 2012).

Finally, acts such as the “ban the box” policy is to shield ex-offenders from having their criminal histories disclosed. The “ban the box” act is a “closed records” policy that limits a company’s access to an applicant’s criminal file (Solinas-Saunders & Stacer, 2015, p. 1187). As implied by Solinas-Saunders and Stacer (2015), this policy tries to remove the discrimination that qualified ex-offenders face in the labor market due to the stigma attached to criminal convictions (p. 1187). Before this bill, Georgia was one of the states that did not allow people convicted of certain crimes to be eligible to receive public assistance such as welfare or food stamps. With the implementation of this bill, such ex-offenders will now be able to receive such benefits. This bill also forbids state licensing boards from asking ex-offenders to disclose their criminal convictions on job applications.

Over the past five years, the state of Georgia has worked to repair Georgia’s criminal justice system. On April 27, 2016, the state of Georgia made history when Gov. Nathan Deal signed Senate Bill 367. The purpose of this bill was to rehabilitate criminal offenders (Bluestein, 2016). This bill will open doors for many ex-offenders by guarding some criminal records and allowing such ex-offenders to receive public aid such as food stamps (Bluestein, 2016).

Summary and Transition

A felony conviction could have a substantial negative impact on a person seeking employment. Based on the review of the literature, race may be a factor when ex-offenders attempt to reenter society because African Americans are disproportionately impacted by having a criminal history (Georgia Justice Project, 2015). Even though having a criminal conviction makes an ex-offender an unattractive job candidate (Berg & Huebner, 2011), the stigma of having a criminal record alone poses a greater threat to candidates who attempt to reenter society (Solomon, 2012).

A review of the literature suggested that although having little education is an impediment for people with criminal backgrounds, having a felony conviction poses greater limitations on a felon's chance of hire. Even though there are laws that work in the favor of people with criminal backgrounds, some applicants with criminal backgrounds may still suffer from disparate impact. To support this claim, prior research revealed that employers evaluate the type of crime the ex-offender committed when making a hiring decision. Moreover, employer perception is a major factor because companies are hesitant to hire people who may potentially commit an upcoming crime and who may be a danger to others (Solomon, 2012). On the other hand, if employers do not discriminate because of race, employers may still discriminate against a certain group, which causes the disparate impact of discrimination.

There has been a lot of research conducted on recidivism and the barriers to employment. However, little research has been conducted on hiring managers' perceptions of hiring felons in the Metro Atlanta area and on whether type of crime or

race affects the employability of felons. The literature in Chapter 2 provided information on the difficulties ex-offenders face and information on perceptions on hiring ex-offenders. In addition, this chapter defined and explained adverse impact and discussed how adverse impact can have a discriminatory effect on certain people. Even though Georgia has adopted a bill that will improve the lives of ex-offenders, further research is needed to fill the gap of employers' perceptions.

The following chapter, Chapter 3, will provide information on the chosen research design and approach, as well as describe the data collection procedures for this study. This chapter explains how I selected the sample and how I conducted the survey. This chapter also entailed the data collection method, sampling strategy, and the data analysis method.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the attitudes of hiring managers and people with knowledge of employee practices in the Metro Atlanta area and to identify the factors that influence a hiring decision for ex-offenders. In Chapter 2, I reviewed the relevant literature related to the chosen independent variables. Chapter 3 includes an explanation of the research methodology, design, approach and an outline of the procedures used to collect and analyze data. Other topics addressed in this chapter include the sampling strategy, validity, and reliability. The chapter concludes with a summary and transition to Chapter 4.

Research Design and Approach

I used a quantitative method with a correlational design to measure hiring managers' perceptions of hiring felons in the Metro Atlanta area. As noted by Creswell (2014), quantitative designs are most suitable for examining relations between variables and answering hypotheses via surveys. I used a formal, objective, and systematic process using quantitative data to answer the research questions. To determine if hiring managers' perceptions of ex-offenders had an impact on a hiring decision, I analyzed survey data. I concluded that the survey design was the most suitable design because of the nature of the information needed to answer the research question. Researchers use surveys to provide mathematical descriptions of data pertaining to the attitudes and opinions of the survey participants (Creswell, 2014).

The quantitative method was appropriate for this study because the primary data collection method was surveys and because I sought to categorize, quantify, and

statistically evaluate the collected data. Furthermore, use of this method allowed me to test my chosen theory and collect data from multiple respondents. The qualitative research approach was not suitable for this study because whereas quantitative research seeks to statistically test hypotheses, qualitative research seeks to generate hypotheses about a phenomenon, its precursors, and its consequences (Curry, Nembhard, & Bradley, 2009). Moreover, qualitative research produces text-based data via open-ended questions (Curry, Nembhard, & Bradley, 2009). This research contained closed-ended questions. For this study, the dependent variable was employability while the independent variables were age, education, type of crime, the amount of time since the crime, length of sentence, socioeconomic status, and race. In addition, I pursued a nonexperimental investigation with a combination of a descriptive/correlational design. A quantitative, correlational design was suitable for this research because the primary goal was to analyze and represent relationships among variables mathematically through statistical analysis.

For this study, the prime instrument was a questionnaire survey. I administered surveys because they are convenient and enable rapid data collection (see Wright 2017). I created a survey that was similar to one created by SHRM in 2012, which was validated (see SHRM, 2012). To reuse its survey, I had to obtain written permission from SHRM by submitting a request on the organization's website and pay a fee. I used an online survey tool, Survey Monkey, to collect the survey data. Using purposive sampling, I posted the Survey Monkey survey link on my personal LinkedIn page. The post (a) introduced the survey, (b) provided information about the purpose of the research and

survey, (c) provided information on how the survey results would be used, (d) provided information on confidentiality, and (e) notified the participants of the survey closure date. By clicking on the survey link, the participants automatically provided their consent to participate in the survey. Approximately seven days after sending the opening e-mail (see Appendix A), I sent an e-mail reminding the participants to take the survey if they had not done so. Fourteen days after sending the initial invitation, I sent a closing e-mail that advised participants of the survey closure date. I anticipated that the survey would close at the end of the 14th calendar day. However, because there had not been an adequate number of responses, the survey remained opened for roughly seven months.

The sample was from different ages, genders, races, marital statuses, occupations, and national origins. I made the survey available to my LinkedIn connections. However, to participate in the survey, members had to be at least 25 years of age, have HR experience or knowledge, have employment practices knowledge, and have been part of a hiring decision in the Metro Atlanta area at the time that the survey was distributed. The participants' level of experience in the human resources industry was not considered. Each participant had the same chance and opportunity to take part in the survey.

The survey questionnaire was anonymous and confidential, and I did not capture the survey respondents' identities. Furthermore, I set up the Survey Monkey survey to not collect or store the respondents' IP addresses in the survey results. This process involved the following steps:

1. going to the Collect Responses section in the survey,
2. clicking the collector name,

3. accessing the collector options,
4. selecting “Anonymous Responses,”
5. selecting “Exclude all respondent information,” and
6. selecting the option to turn off the “Save IP Address in Results” option.

In addition, I enabled the Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) function in Survey Monkey, a protocol that encrypts secure data over the Internet (Survey Monkey, 2018), to secure survey responses. SSL was automatically enabled for all Survey Monkey surveys.

I analyzed the collected data using SPSS and performed crosstabulations to determine if there were correlations among the independent variables. The quantitative approach was best suited for this research, as it allowed me to detect associations and correlations among numerous variables. Using a survey design, I was able to quantitatively assess the attitudes, opinions, and feelings of hiring managers.

Methodology

I used closed-ended survey questions to collect data. In addition, I used a structured and validated data collection instrument in the form of a Likert-type rating scale of 1-5 where 5 was *highly likely*, 4 was *likely*, 3 was *neither likely nor unlikely*, 2 was *unlikely*, and 1 was *highly unlikely*. The data came from subjects who now or previously served as a hiring manager and had been part of a hiring decision in the Metro Atlanta area. Some of these subjects were SHRM-Atlanta members who had served in a human resource professional capacity that involved making a hiring decision. I was the only person to have access to the data, which I collected and stored electronically using Survey Monkey. I did not collect any personal identifying information such as

participant name or organization name, and I stored the collected data on a password-secured server.

Sampling

For this study, I used a nonrandom, purposive sampling design. The total population of hiring managers in the Metro Atlanta area was unknown. I devised the target population for the study to consist of current and former hiring managers and HR professionals who make hiring decisions, who worked in the Metro Atlanta area, and who were of at least 25 years of age. To access the sample, I logged into my personal LinkedIn account to determine how many people were available in my network. There were 376 LinkedIn members to whom I had direct access. Although there were 376 connections, some of the connections did not qualify to participate in the survey because of one of the following: (a) had never managed in the Metro Atlanta area, (b) was not at least 25 years of age, and/or (c) did not work in the private sector. According to the Survey Monkey sample size calculator, based on a population size of 376, a 90% confidence level, and a 5% margin of error, the suggested sample size was 191.

The goal was to have 115 participants complete the survey, which was 60% of the sample population. As suggested by Finchman (2008), electronic surveys may yield as much as a 70% return rate. However, a good response rate would be 60% (Finchman, 2008). Since many of the LinkedIn group members are human resources professionals, I expected more than 115 members would respond and complete the survey. To prevent more than 134 members from completing the survey, the survey collector set up the survey to close automatically after 134 responses had been collected. This process

involved selecting an option in Survey Monkey to select a number of responses to collect. Only people who had worked in or now work in the Metro Atlanta area private sector were eligible to take the survey. When I did not receive 115 responses during the initial survey opening period, I reopened the survey, extended the survey completion time, and posted another reminder for participants to complete the survey. Purposeful sampling allowed me to be highly selective of the survey participants. Selecting a diverse group of participants provided more reliable and valid responses to the survey questionnaire. Since 115 people did respond to the survey, I determined that the sample size was statistically significant.

Instrumentation

For this study, I prepared a survey instrument that inquired about participants' self-assessed perceptions of felons. The instrument was based off an existing instrument that was tested by the Society for Human Resource Management. I distributed the 25-item survey to 376 people who were at some point human resources professionals, hiring managers, supervisors, or aware of hiring and employment practices. The survey asked participants to use a five-item Likert-type scale to assess how they felt about hiring felons and policies regarding the employment of felons. The survey collected demographic information such as education level, race, gender, and age.

Data Analysis Plan

For this research, the data analysis plan took place in a sequence of steps. As recommended by Simpson (2015), the first step in the data analysis plan was to describe the collected data. I did this by presenting descriptive statistics using a series of charts

and graphs. I also used statistics such as the mean and standard deviation. The mean is the “arithmetic average of all values within a variable while the standard deviation tells how widely the values are dispersed around the mean” (Simpson, 2015, p. 312). The next step of the data analysis plan was to identify relationships among variables if any (Simpson, 2015) by presenting the multivariate correlations. Further steps involved identifying differences among variables and forecasting outcomes.

I used data analysis to identify any statistical relations among the dependent and independent variables. To obtain a demographic profile on each participant, I performed descriptive statistical analyses. To determine differences among the participants, I collected demographic data such as age, sex, gender, race, and educational background. I performed crosstabulations to determine if there were any correlations among the participants regarding the hiring of felons. In doing so, this study attempted to investigate if there were substantial differences among the type of crime, length of sentence, education, race, and social ties to the community.

I performed a Chi Square analysis to look for relationships among variables and to determine if there were any substantial differences among the participants as it related to age, race, education, and gender. To examine the differences among participants, I identified statistical significance of the data findings by reporting the mean and standard deviation of such variables.

Threats to Validity

Validity

Validity refers to the degree to which a measurement measures what it aims to measure (Bolarinwa, (2015). Because I created an instrument that was similar to a previously validated instrument, the chosen instrument measured what it was intended to measure. To maximize validity, I collected demographic data from the participants so I could be sure to receive substantial survey responses. To ensure construct validity, the survey was distributed to two Human Resource Directors who were familiar with hiring practices. Furthermore, I ensured that the sample was an accurate representation of the study population. I targeted people specific to the contents of the research. Moreover, I selected a sample that represented the population to be studied. With this research, I did not foresee any potential threats to validity, as I did not conduct an experimental design and the measurement instrument was reliable. Moreover, the chosen research design did not require a pretest, which eliminated any threats to validity.

Reliability

Reliability refers to “the degree to which the results obtained by a measurement and procedure can be replicated” (Bolarinwa, 2015, p. 195). To ensure reliability, I used the Internal Consistency Reliability test as this test provided a measure that indicated that all items measured the same construct. This test was measured with Cronbach’s Alpha in SPSS. If the coefficient of reliability was at least .70, the instrument was believed to be reliable in SPSS (Bolarinwa, 2015). The higher the reliability value, the more reliable the measure (Bolarinwa, 2015). As Bolarinwa (2015) suggests, the Cronbach’s Alpha is the

most commonly used measure of internal consistency. This test was best suitable for this specific instrument as this test is most commonly used to see if questionnaires with Likert-type scale questions are reliable, as suggested by Bolarinwa (2015).

Ethical Procedures

I used the standard IRB protocols established by Walden University. Even though I did not have any direct contact with the participants, I obtained a certificate from the National Institute of Health, which proved I was familiar with protecting participants. Due to the choice of research design and chosen instrument, there were little to no ethical concerns. Since this research involved surveying people who were within a professional network, I had to follow steps to ensure there were no ethical violations.

I had no direct contact with participants and was not related to or affiliated with any of the participants. Since the survey did not ask for any information that could potentially identify a participant, the possibility of identity theft or a breach in data discovery and confidentiality were eliminated. The participants' economic, health, religious beliefs, and other sensitive information were excluded from this study. I did not intimidate or sway any participant to take part in the study. Therefore, it was highly unlikely that a participant suffered from stress or emotional distress by participating in the survey. Before collecting any data, I gained IRB approval. As it pertains to accessing the data collected from this study, I used the data only for the purposes of this study, which minimized any ethical concerns. All data was stored on a secure, password protected computer.

Summary

In summary, Chapter 3 provided detailed information on the chosen methodology, research design, sampling strategy, validity, and reliability. This chapter discussed the details that are necessary to conduct this research. This chapter provided a description of how I conducted the study. In this chapter, I identified the research design, research approach, data collection method, and sampling strategy. In addition, this chapter provided information regarding threats to validity, ethical concerns, and the data analysis plan. This chapter also described the instrument for the research. Moreover, this chapter concluded with a synopsis of how I used the chosen instrument to collect data and how I eliminated any ethical concerns.

Chapter 4: Results

Chapter 4 includes the results of the data analysis and the characteristics of the demographic data collected. The purpose of the data analysis was to (a) provide insight about hiring managers' negative or positive feelings about hiring people with felony convictions and (b) determine if demographics played a role in employers' perception of people with felony records. To gather the required data to make these determinations, I created a survey that asked demographic and closed-ended questions.

I collected quantitative data to gain a better understanding of respondents' opinions. I also wanted to see if there was a correlation between demographics and the inclination to extend an employment offer to people with felony backgrounds. To make the necessary determinations, I applied crosstabs to questions to identify any correlations. To analyze the data, I used Survey Monkey, Microsoft Excel, and SPSS. I exported the survey data from Survey Monkey into Microsoft Excel to produce and manipulate the charts and graphs (see the output in Appendix B). I used SPSS to run statistical tests and to identify correlations among the data. In addition, I performed a crosstabulation analysis to determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the independent variables.

Data Collection

The survey was open for roughly seven months. There was a total of 25 survey questions dispersed across seven pages. The survey was made available to 376 people. I used one source to gather the sample, LinkedIn. A web link was posted on my personal LinkedIn profile page that directed participants to Survey Monkey. One hundred fifteen

people responded to the survey, which represented 60% of the targeted population of 376. With 60% of the targeted population responding to the survey, I determined that the survey results were statistically meaningful. According to Finchman (2008), if the survey responses are at least at 60%, the results are perceived as meaningful. The response rates were calculated by dividing the number of completed surveys by the number of participants invited to take the survey. One hundred fifteen people attempted to take the survey. However, only 89 participants completed the survey in its entirety. This number provided a survey completion rate of 78%. Most of the responses were collected during the fifth month of the survey opening. The typical time spent completing the survey was 6 minutes.

All questions had a requirement that the respondents answer each question before moving to the next question. However, the survey did allow participants to stop the survey at any time, then later go back and finish. Approximately 14% of the participants failed to answer Questions 8 through 12, which resulted in them not completing the survey and these data not being included in the overall data analysis. Analyzing the data allowed me to realize that because of the low response rate, Question 8 (How likely are you to conduct a background check for a job applicant?) should have been a *yes* or *no* question to ask if the respondent was likely to conduct a background check. I believe that making the question a *yes* or *no* question would have yielded more responses. I recognize that the inclusion of the demographic questions may have reduced the willingness of some potential respondents to participate in the survey.

Questions 2 through 7 were questions regarding demographics (age, race/ethnicity, education, job industry and size, and gender). These questions were presented in multiple choice formats with the ability to only select one choice. Question 4, race/ethnicity, was given an *Other* response option where respondents could enter a race that was included in the initial answer selection. I designed Questions 8 through 14 to capture participants' opinion about background checking. These questions were provided in a ranking format.

Questions 11 through 17 were the main questions to identify the factors that contribute to the extension of a hiring decision. Question 18 was a Likert scale question that provided a rating scale where survey respondents were asked to rate each selection on a scale of 1-5. Questions 15 through 25 were provided in a Likert type scale. Question 23 asked respondents about allowing felons to explain their conviction. Question 21 (Table 1) includes a summary of participants' responses about allowing ex-offender applicants to explain their convictions/charges.

Table 1

Responses on Allowing Felons to Explain Convictions/Charges

Response	Mean	Standard deviation	Median	Weighted average
Highly agree	4.29	0.96	5.00	4.29
Agree	4.19	0.77	4.00	4.19
Neutral	3.90	0.83	4.00	3.90
Disagree	3.81	0.73	4.00	3.81
Highly disagree	4.67	0.47	5.00	4.67

Question 25 asked participants about revising policies to benefit convicted felons to prevent discrimination. Based on the data results, the standard deviation was 1.05.

Therefore, the data are reliable. A low standard deviation means that most of the numbers are close to the average – meaning the data is more reliable (Statistical Analysis of Data, 2019).

Figure 1 includes participants' responses for race/ethnicity.

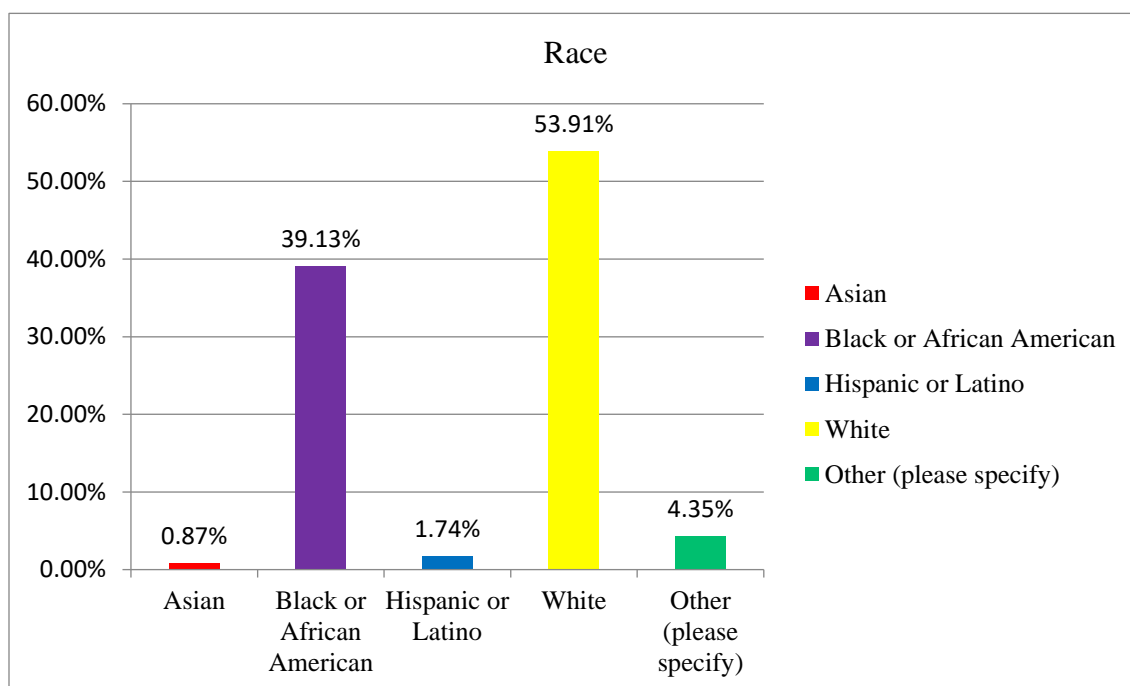


Figure 1. Demographic statistics for race/ethnicity.

Only one of the respondents indicated being Asian, which accounted for .87% of the population. Forty-five respondents (39.13%) specified they were Black or African American. Sixty-two respondents (53.91%) reported that they were White while two respondents (1.74%) said that they were Hispanic or Latino. Four respondents selected *Other*, which was 4.35% of the population, and indicated that they were Native American (three respondents) or a combination of Native American and Black (one respondent). From these data, I concluded that the population was slightly diverse and most of the

population consisted of Whites. The mean was 3.22, and the standard deviation was 1.04.

To determine any statistical significances between race and likeliness to conduct a background check, I performed a Chi Square analysis that determined that whites were likely to perform a background check than any other race. Below is a visual of the data.

Crosstab

		Likeness to conduct a criminal background check for a job applicant					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
Race/Ethnicity?	Asian	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Black or African American	4	1	2	7	23	37
	Hispanic or Latino	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Other (please specify)	0	0	0	1	4	5
	White	3	1	1	12	38	55
Total		7	2	3	20	67	99

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.944 ^a	16	.999
Likelihood Ratio	4.974	16	.996
N of Valid Cases	99		

a. 21 cells (84.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .02.

Table 2

Demographic Statistics for Gender

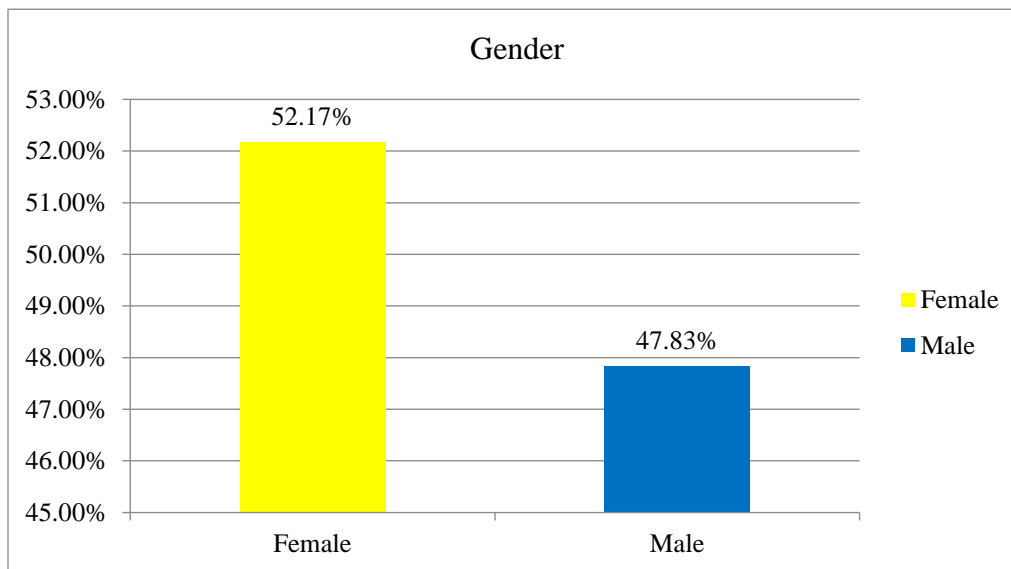


Figure 2. Demographic statistics for gender.

The population was a mixture of men and women with 60 respondents (52.17%) being female and 55 respondents (47.83%) being male. It was determined that the bulk of the survey participants were female. Because the majority of the participants were women, this could have affected the survey responses as men and women may have different views on hiring people with criminal backgrounds. Thus, it may not be a true representation of the population. The mean for this question was 1.48, and the standard deviation was 0.50. From this data, it appeared that the female respondents had a stronger interest in hiring people with criminal records.

To determine if there were any statistical significances among males and females, I conducted a Chi Square test that revealed with a P value of 0.170, there were no statistical differences between gender and the likeliness to hire a person with a felony conviction. Below is a visual of the data.

How likely are you to hire a person with a felony conviction? * Gender Crosstabulation

		Gender		Total
		Female	Male	
How likely are you to hire a person with a felony conviction?	1	13	7	20
	2	12	18	30
	3	17	17	34
	4	3	8	11
Total		45	50	95

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.023 ^a	3	.170
Likelihood Ratio	5.131	3	.162
N of Valid Cases	95		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.21.

Table 3

Demographic Statistics for Age

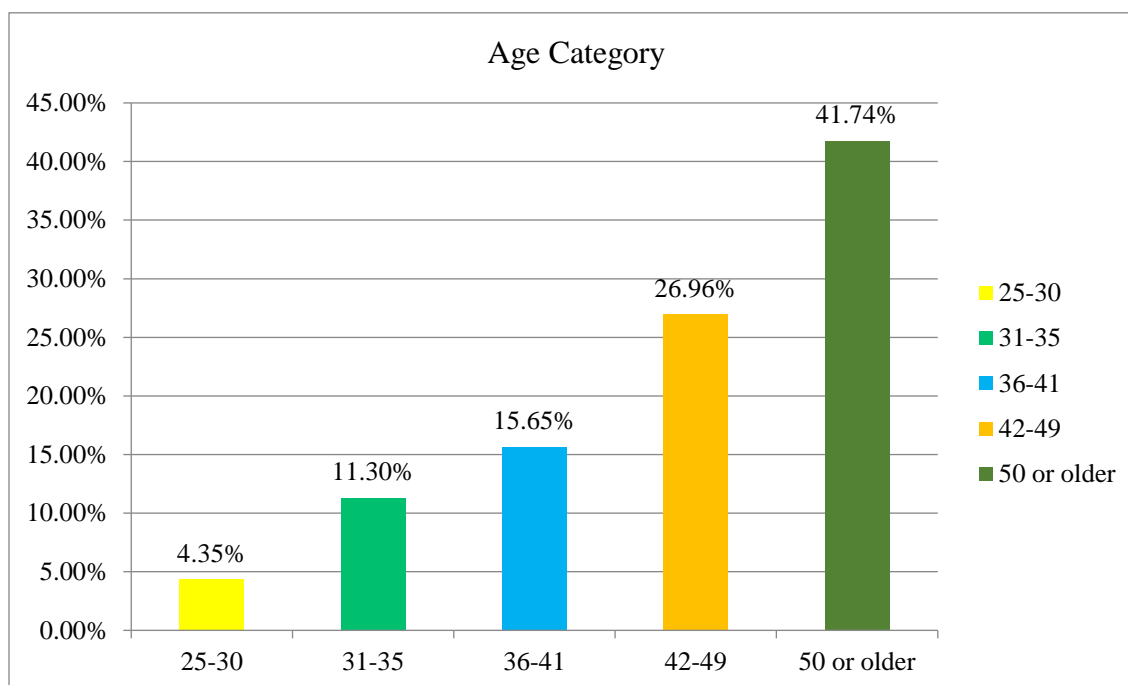


Figure 3. Demographic statistics for age.

The results from the survey revealed that the participants were all at a minimum of 25 years of age. Five participants (4.35%) were between the ages of 25 and 30. Thirteen respondents (11.30%) were between the ages of 31 and 35 years of age. Eighteen participants (15.65%) were between the ages of 36 and 41. 31 respondents were between the ages of 42 and 49 (26.96%). Forty-eight respondents (41.74%) were 50 years of age or older. This data concluded that most of the respondents were 50 years of age or older. The age of these participants could have been a factor in the way the respondents answered the survey questions. Moreover, because a participant had to be at least 25 years of age to participate in the study, there is a good chance that a respondent did not meet the age requirement. This could have been a factor as to why some participants did not complete the survey. Therefore, this could have impacted the survey

completion rate. The statistics for the question were as follows: The Mean was 3.90, and the Standard Deviation was 1.09.

Demographic Statistics for Education

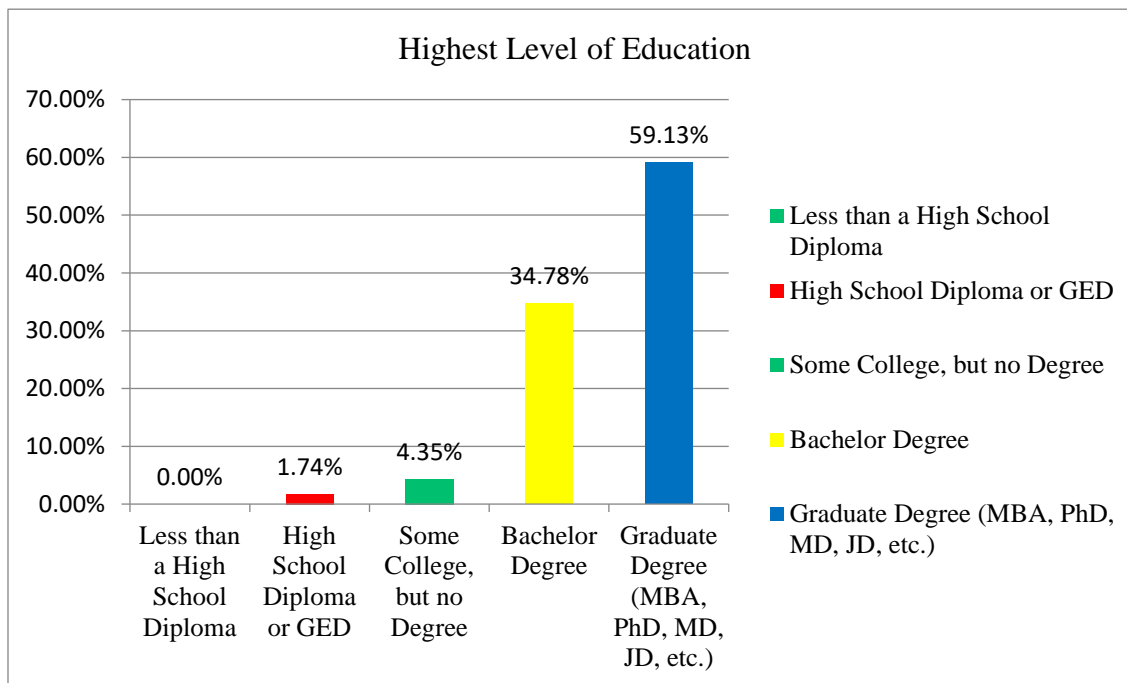


Figure 4. Demographic statistics for education.

Participants were asked their level of education. The responses indicated that all respondents had at minimum of a high school diploma or General Education Diploma (GED), which meant that all participants at least finished grade school or were educated enough to participate in the survey. Sixty-eight respondents had a Graduate degree (59.13% of the study population). Forty respondents had a Bachelor's degree (34.78%). 5 respondents had attended but did not complete college (4.35 %). Two respondents had only a high school diploma or GED (1.74%). This data allowed me to determine that most of the respondents held a Graduate degree and that the study population was

statistically strong. The statistics for the question were as follows: The Mean was 4.51, and the Standard Deviation was 0.66.

Demographic Statistics for Job Industry

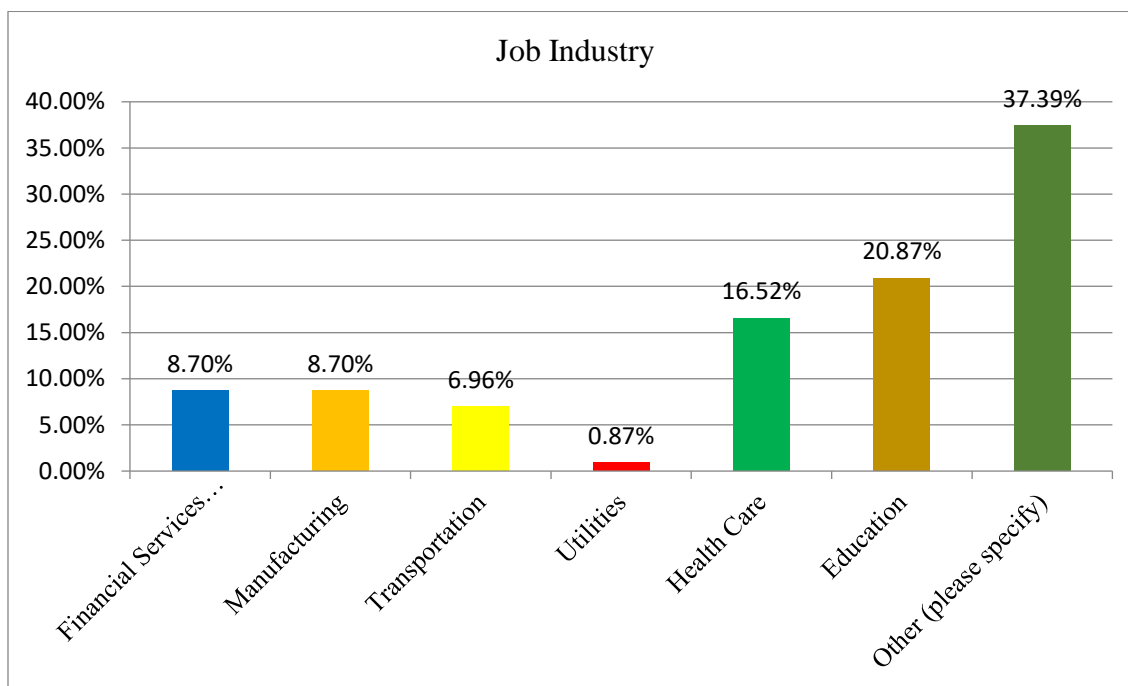


Figure 5. Demographic statistics for job industry.

This data showed that the majority of the population (37.39%) worked in other fields outside of the top 6 industries. Those industries included Law, Criminal Justice, and Human Resources. Some respondents may not have been fully aware of their industry. Also, the question may have been misleading. One reason why the “Other” category was selected more is because some respondents may have listed their current industry versus the industry they worked in when they were involved in a hiring decision. The statistics for the question were as follows: The Mean was 5.20, and the Standard Deviation was 2.03.

Demographic Statistics for Organization Size

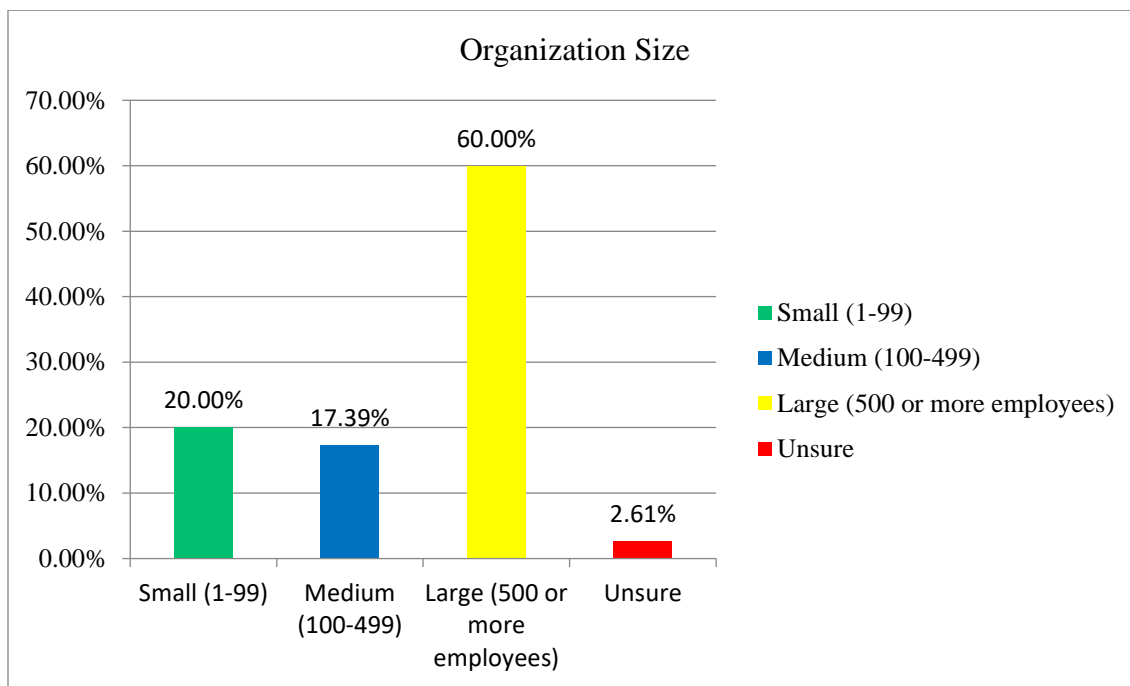


Figure 6. Demographic statistics for organizational size.

Most of the respondents worked for large organizations. This data could potentially indicate that the population was more aware of hiring practices than respondents who worked in smaller organizations. To determine if there were any statistical significances between organization size and the likeliness to hire a person with a felony charge and not a felony conviction, with a P value of 0.234, I found there were no statistical significance among the variables. The table below provides a visual of the data.

**Likeness to hire a person with a felony charge (not a conviction)? * Org Size
Crosstabulation**

		Org Size				Total
		Large	Medium	Small	Unsure	
Likeness to hire a person with a	1	5	2	1	0	8
felony charge (not a conviction)?	2	10	5	2	0	17
	3	27	8	13	2	50
	4	14	3	3	0	20
	5	1	0	2	1	4
Total		57	18	21	3	99

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.135 ^a	12	.234
Likelihood Ratio	13.031	12	.367
N of Valid Cases	99		

a. 15 cells (75.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .12.

Table 4

Results

Statistics – Cross Tabulation

To determine if there were any statistical correlations among the variables, I performed crosstabulations in Survey Monkey. The expected outcome was to compare demographic data to the questions that asked participants' opinions about hiring people with a criminal background – particularly a felony background.

Based on the survey results, employers were highly likely to conduct a criminal background check for a job applicant. The below chart revealed that roughly 68% of respondents would conduct a background check while roughly 7% of respondents would

not conduct a background check. For the respondents that worked in the Financial Services industry, nearly 86% of respondents said they were highly likely to conduct a criminal background check while roughly 14% said they were likely to conduct a criminal background check. Therefore, all respondents who worked in Financial Services would conduct a background check. For the respondents who worked in the Manufacturing industry, nearly 78% of respondents said they were highly likely to conduct a background check. Roughly 11% said they were likely and roughly 11% said they were highly unlikely to conduct a background check. For the respondents who worked in the Transportation industry, roughly 71% of respondents said they were highly likely to conduct a background check. Roughly 14% said they were likely and roughly 14% said they were highly unlikely to conduct a background check.

For the respondents who worked in the Health Care industry, roughly 69% of respondents said they were highly likely to conduct a background check. Roughly 8% said they were likely, and roughly 23% said they were highly unlikely to conduct a background check. All respondents who worked in the Utilities industry said they were highly likely to conduct background check. This data meant that the respondents who worked for Manufacturing, Transportation, and Healthcare industries were more lenient when it came to conducting background checks.

When respondents were asked about conducting a background check, 68% said that they were highly likely to conduct a criminal background check and 20% said they were likely. Therefore, roughly 88% said they would conduct a background check while 9% said they were unlikely to conduct a criminal background check.

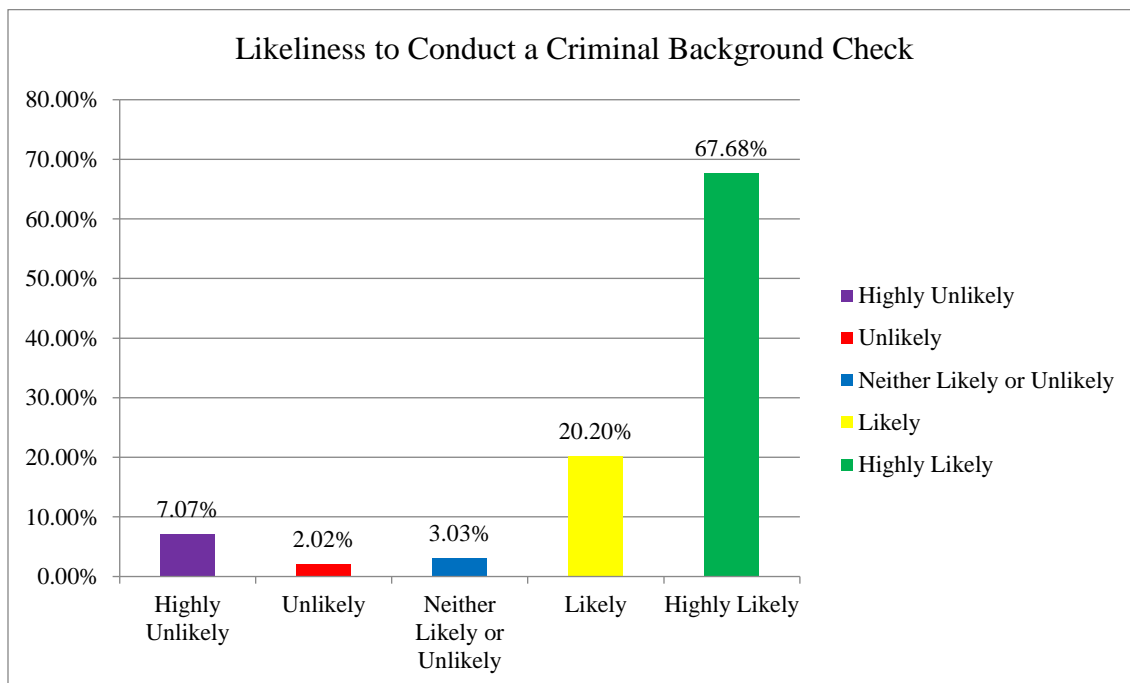


Figure 7. Likelihood to conduct a criminal background check.

When asking respondents about the significance of checking one's criminal background even when they met all the qualifications for employment, 54% said it was highly significant while 36% said it was significant. Therefore, roughly 90% felt that the significance of checking one's background even though they met all the employment qualifications was highly significant. While roughly 4% were unsure, 6% of the population did not feel checking the criminal background of a qualified person was of significance.

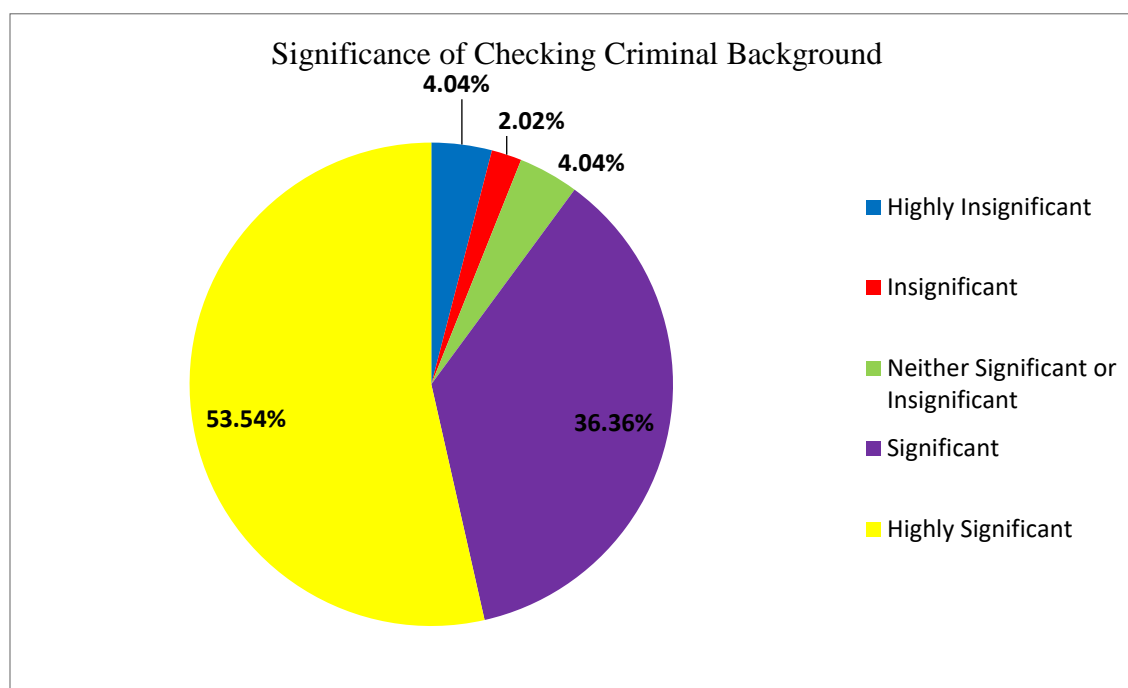


Figure 8. Significance of checking criminal background.

When asked about hiring people with a felony charge, and not a felony conviction, 51% were unsure if they would do so. However, 24% said they would hire a person with a felony charge that was not a conviction. The other 25% were unlikely to hire a person with a felony charge. This could potentially lead to disparate impact or

disparate treatment because a person will not be hired solely because of a charge, not an admission of guilt or a conviction by the courts that said a person was guilty.

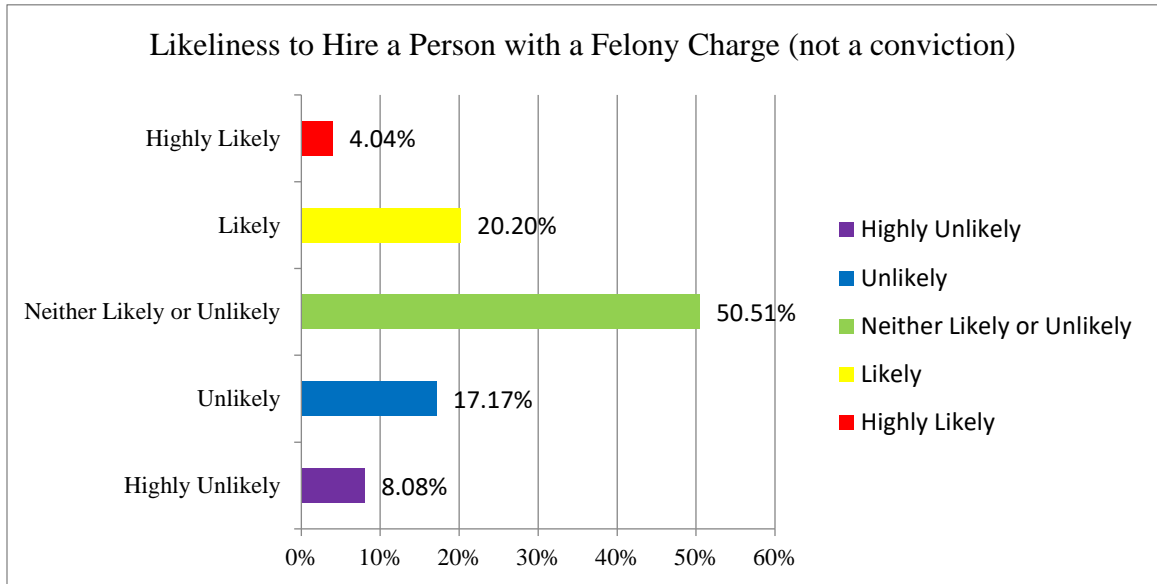


Figure 9. Likelihood to hire a person with a felony charge (not a conviction).

When asked about hiring a person with a felony conviction, the responses were impressive. Nearly 53% said they would not hire a person with a felony conviction while roughly 12% said they would hire a person with a felony conviction. The other 36% were unsure. This could mean that a person may base their decision on an applicant's explanation, qualifications, length of time since the conviction, or other underlying factors. Based on a scale of 1-5 where 1 is highly unlikely and 5 is highly likely, there was a mean of 2.39, and a standard deviation of 0.95.

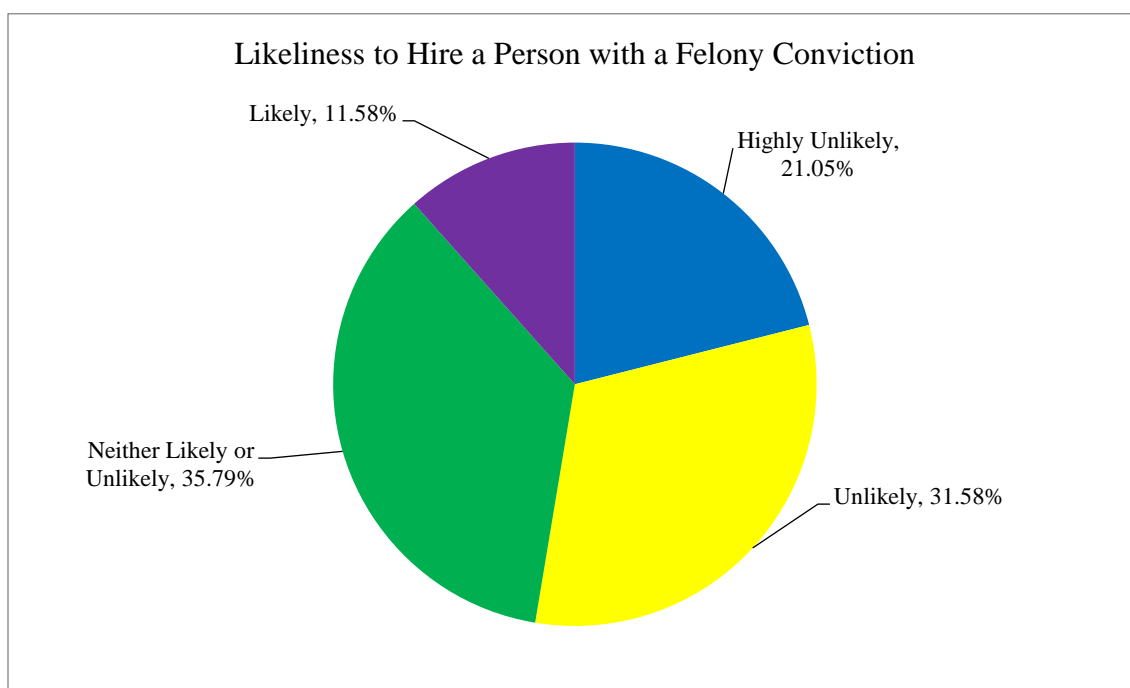


Figure 10. Likeliness to hire a person with a felony conviction.

When it related to hiring an applicant with a felony drug charge, people seemed to be neutral with their opinions. While roughly 28% of respondents were highly unlikely and unlikely to hire a person convicted of a drug conviction, roughly 11% would consider hiring a person convicted of a drug charge.

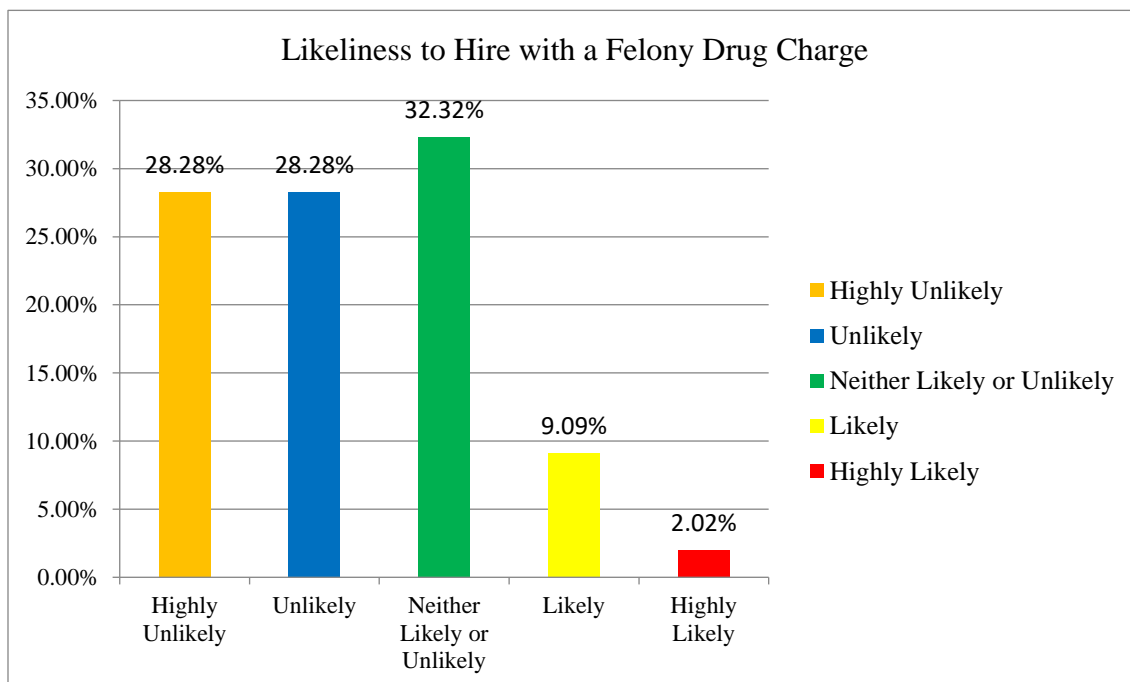


Figure 11. Likeliness to hire with a felony drug charge.

Regarding hiring a person convicted of a non-violent felony such as bribery, theft, or fraud, most of the population was unsure of whether they would hire such people (31%). This was a lower percentage than a person who had a drug conviction. This indicated that people were more willing to hire a person convicted of a non-violent or white-collar crime before they would consider hiring a person with a drug charge. This evidence could lead to disparate impact. Prior studies revealed that Blacks were incarcerated at a dramatically higher rate (5-7 times) than Whites and accounted for almost half of all prisoners incarcerated with a sentence of more than one year for a drug-related offense (Rosenberg, Groves, & Blankenship, 2017). Statistics showed that roughly 76% of drug offenses are committed by African Americans and Latinos (Taxy, Samuels, & Adams, 2015). Which in turn means that African Americans and Latino felons will have a lessor chance of obtaining employment in the Atlanta Metro area.

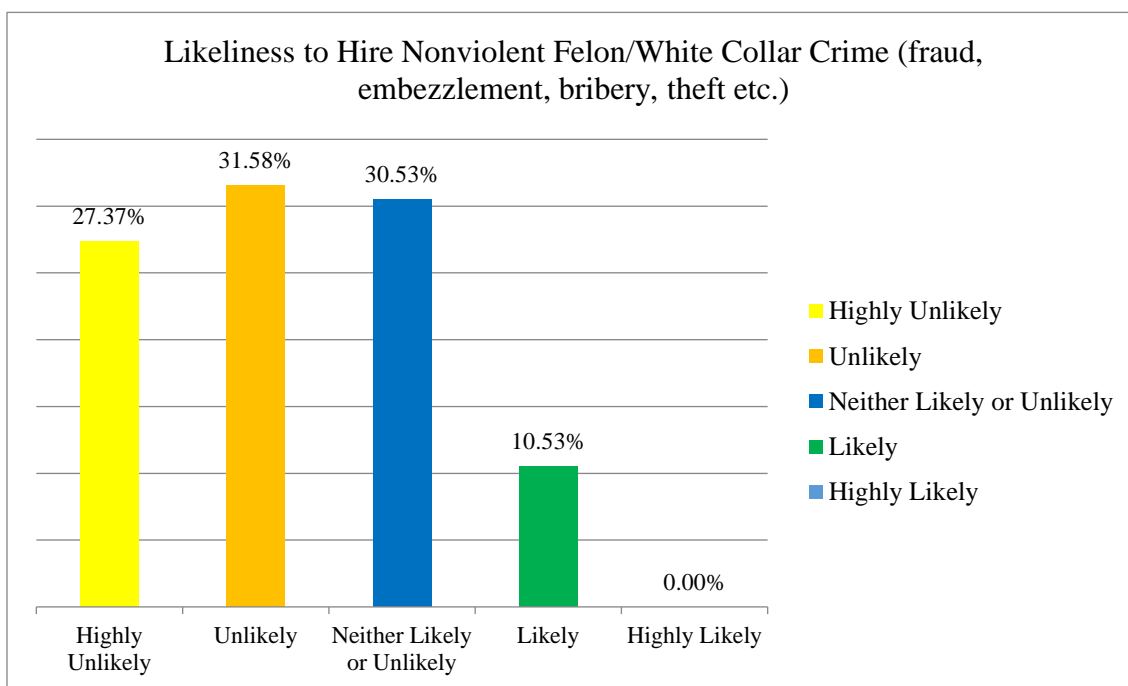


Figure 12. Likeliness to hire nonviolent felon/white collar crime.

When respondents were asked about hiring a person convicted of a violent crime such as battery, robbery, or rape, 61% agreed that they were highly unlikely to hire such individuals. However, roughly 2% would consider hiring a person convicted of a violent crime.

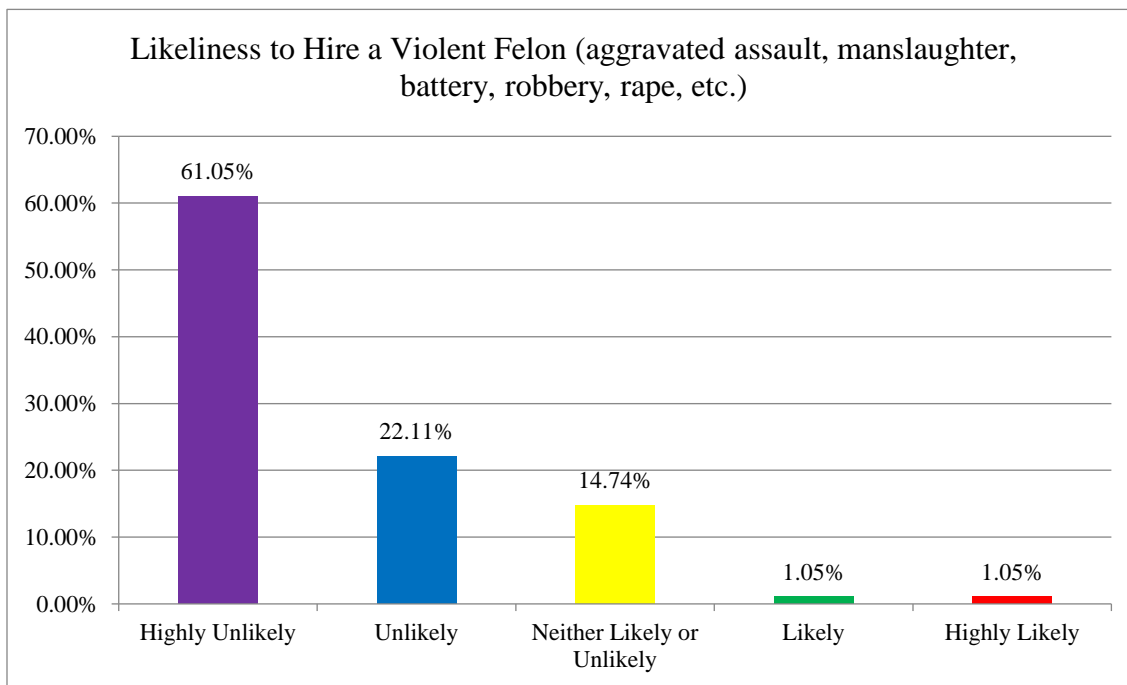


Figure 13. Likeliness to hire a violent felon.

Based on the survey responses, people were more likely to consider a felony applicant's social status or ties to the community before they would consider the length of time since the criminal charge occurred. See the chart below for a visual of the data.

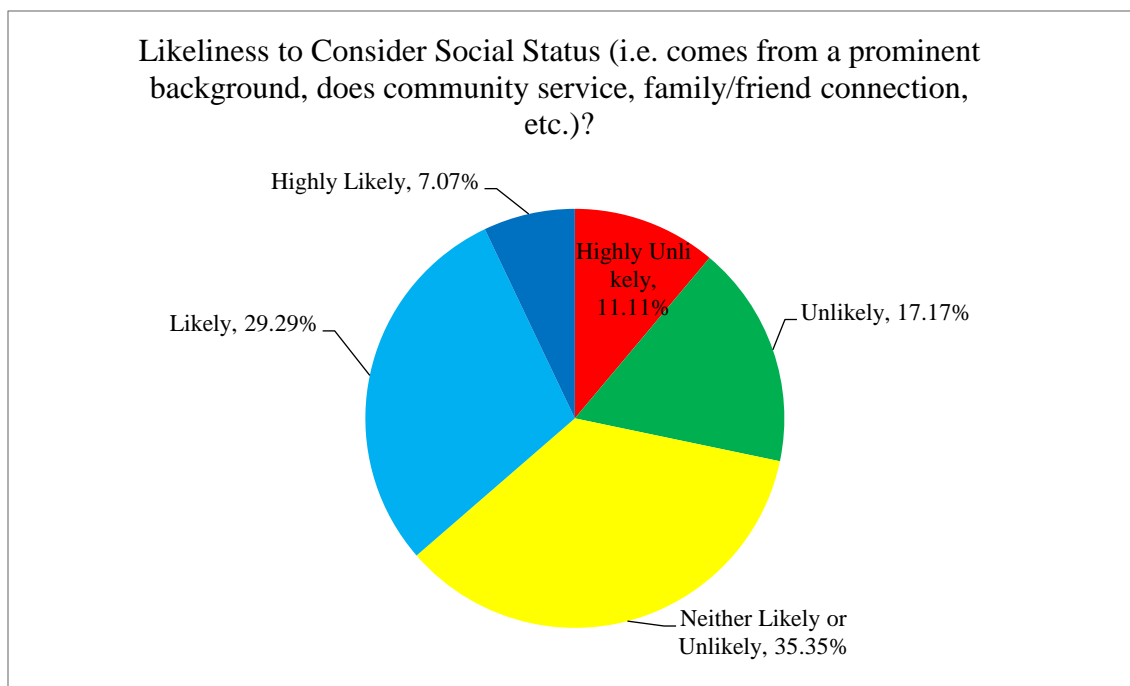


Figure 14. Likelihood to consider social status.

When asked about reconsidering a person's explanation, survey results revealed that nearly 48% of people were likely to reconsider their hiring decision while nearly 8% of people said they were highly likely to reconsider their hiring decision. On the other hand, 4% of people were unlikely with the other 40% were unsure.

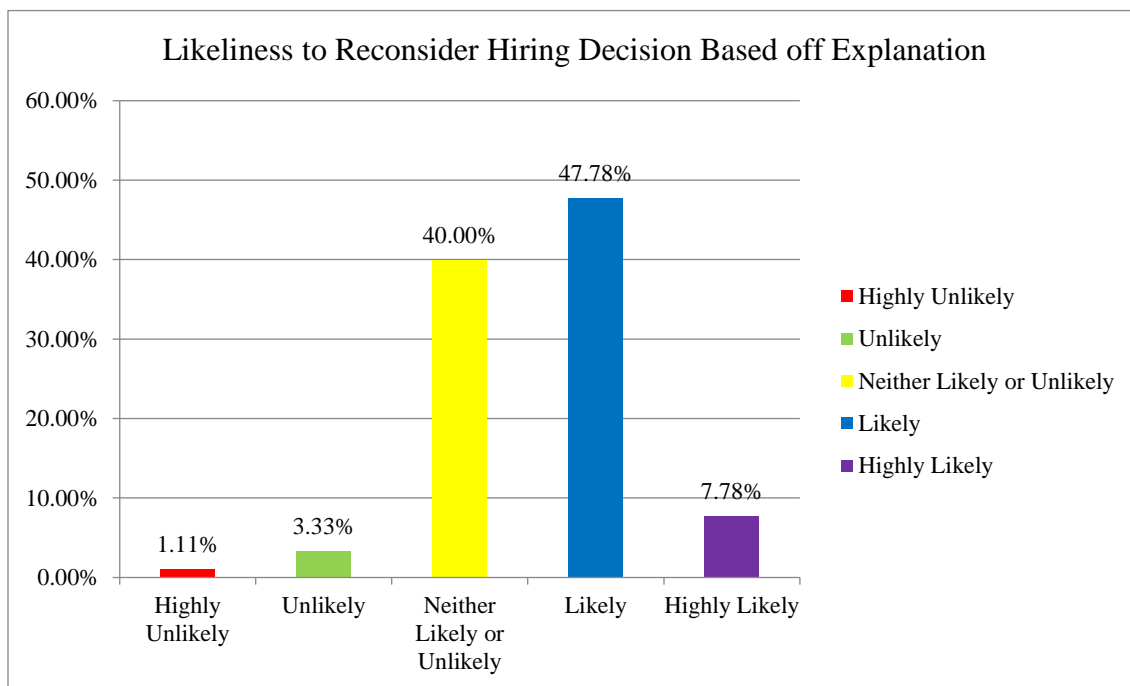


Figure 15. Likeliness to reconsider hiring decision based off explanation.

Survey results indicated that people were more open to hiring a person convicted of felony drug charges than murder. This indicated that the type of crime committed influences a person's decision to extend or refuse a job offer.

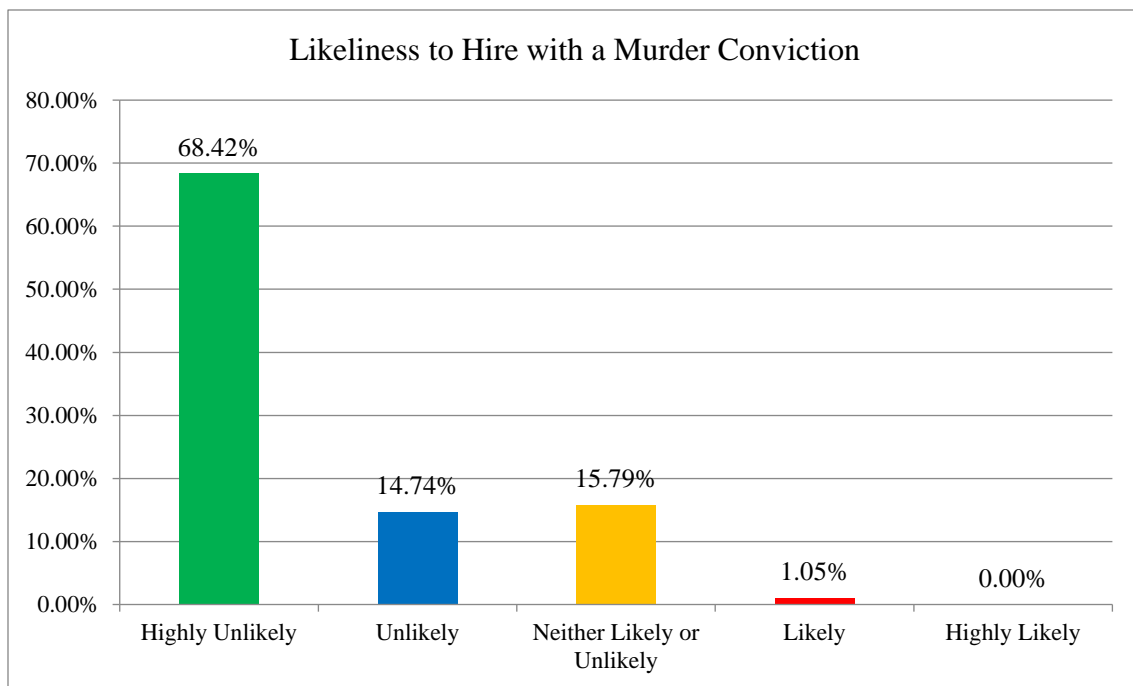


Figure 16. Likeliness to hire with a murder conviction.

When asked about allowing a person to explain their criminal history, a total of 80% of people were willing to allow an applicant to explain his or her criminal history (49% likely and 31% highly likely). In contrast, 4% were unlikely to let an applicant explain his or her criminal conviction while 16% were unsure.

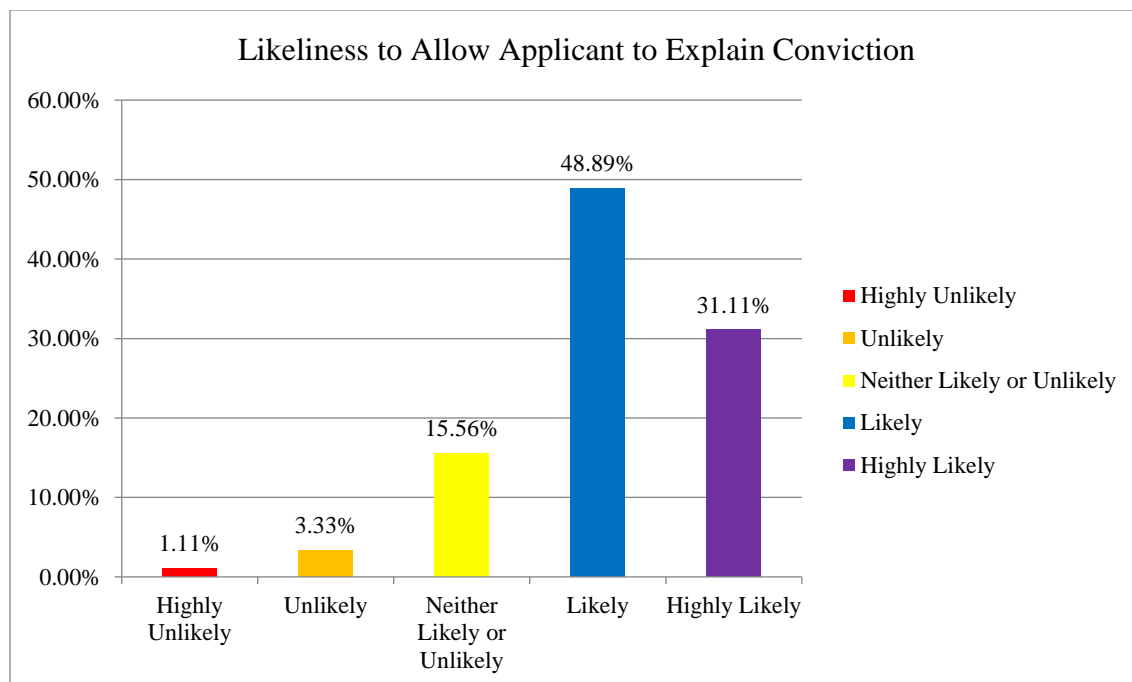


Figure 17. Likeliness to allow applicant to explain conviction.

When participants were asked about rejecting an applicant because of his or her criminal record, the majority of the population (49%) said they never automatically rejected an applicant based on their criminal history. However, 24% said they had automatically rejected an applicant because of their criminal history. These actions could lead to disparate treatment or disparate impact because the same opportunity would not be given to those automatically rejected applicants. The remaining 27% said they were unsure. This could mean that they did not recall if they had automatically rejected an applicant.

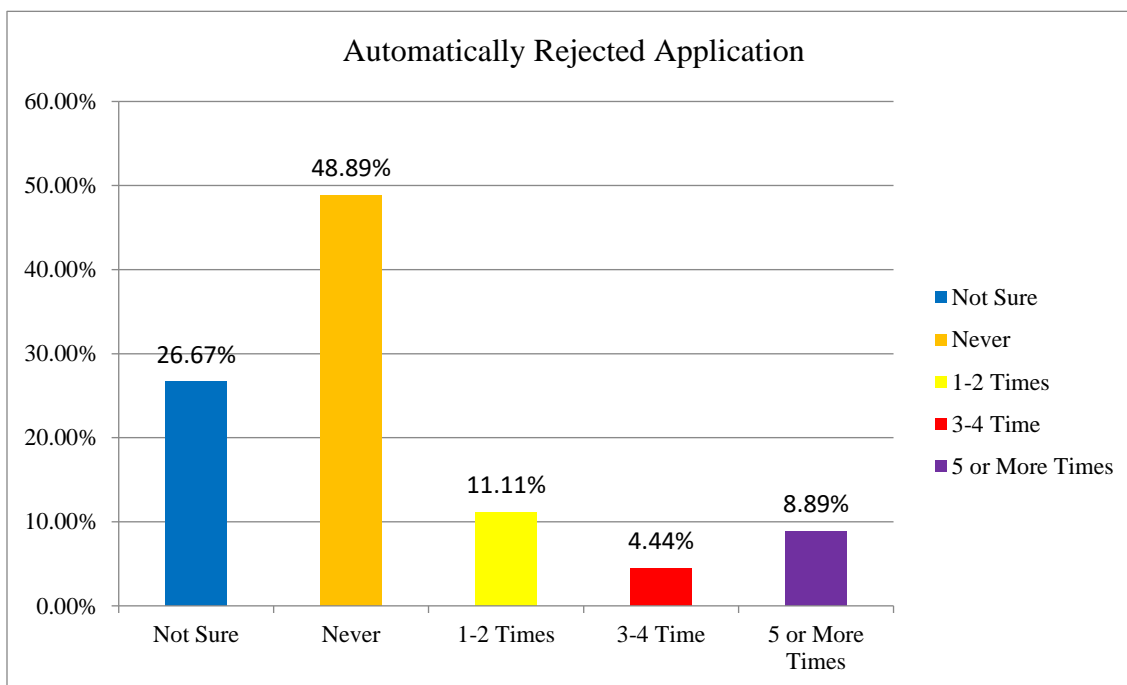


Figure 18. Automatically rejected application.

Respondents were given five factors to consider when deciding to extend or refuse an employment offer to a person convicted of a crime. Respondents were asked to rank their answers on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the lowest factor and 5 being the most influential. On a scale of 1-5, with a mean score of 3.22, respondents felt that the

relevance of the criminal activity related to the position was a bigger factor than the age of an applicant at the time of their conviction. However, with a mean score of 3.09, respondents felt that the severity of the crime was a bigger factor than the number of convictions. With a mean score of 2.69, respondents felt as if the time elapsed since the time of conviction was not as significant.

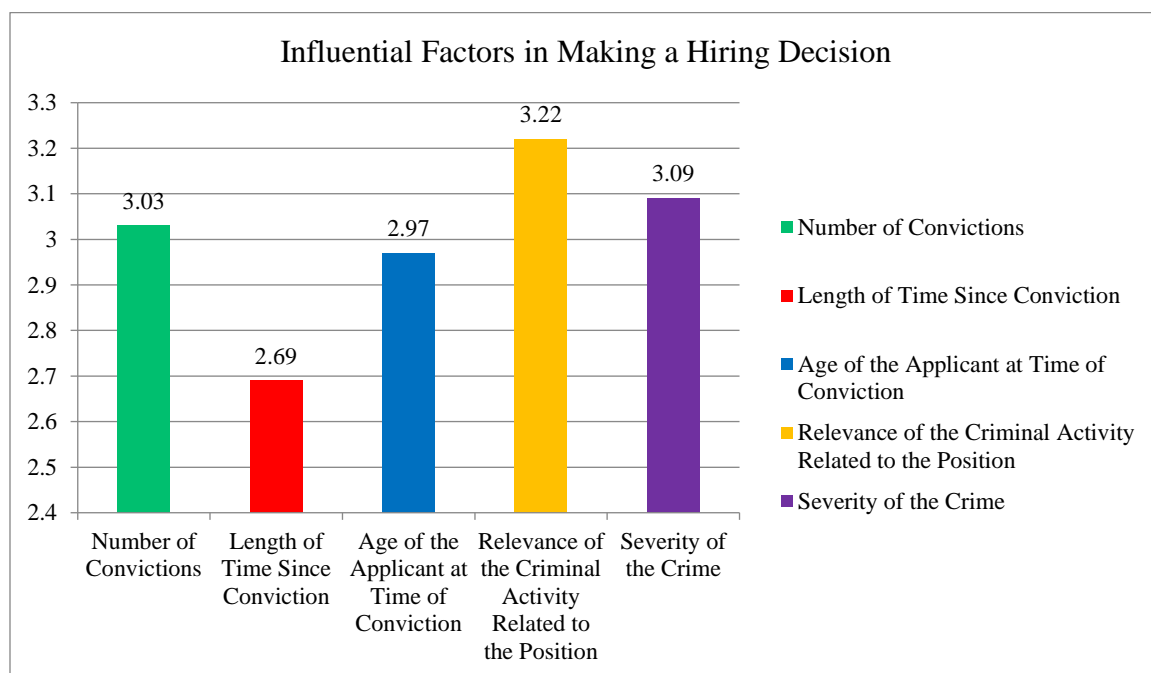


Figure 19. Influential factors in making a hiring decision.

To determine if people involved in hiring decisions felt it was necessary to check an applicant's criminal background, respondents were asked about the significance of background checking. Almost 54% said that checking an applicant's criminal background was highly significant. With only 4% of respondents saying checking an applicant's background was not significant, this could mean that people in some industries may not need to check one's background or the type of positions available do not require a background check. See Figure 20 for the data results.

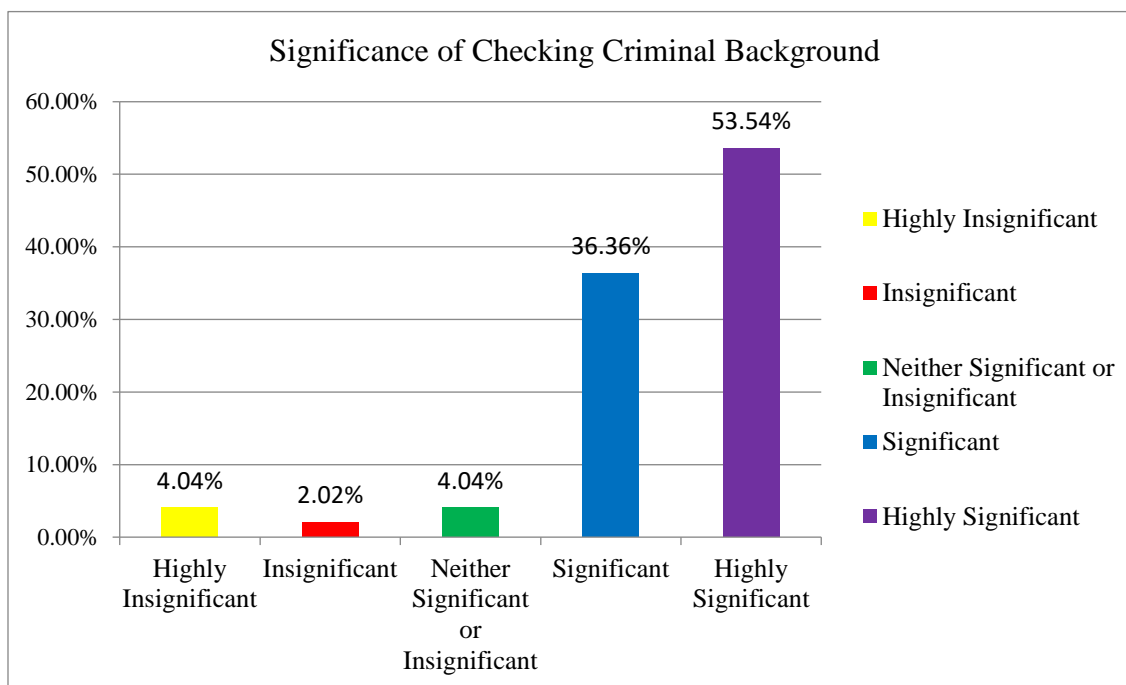


Figure 20. Significance of checking criminal background.

When people were asked their opinion on giving a convicted person a second chance at employment, more than 76% people agreed that convicted persons should be given a second chance at employment. On the other hand, roughly 23% of respondents were unsure. None of the respondents felt for certain that a convicted person should not be given a second chance at employment. See Figure 21 for a visual of the data.

Although more than 76% of respondents believed that criminals should be given a second chance at obtaining employment, a portion of the population (23%) were unsure. This could potentially be a positive thing because people did not select a definite no answer. Although most of the population felt as if people convicted of a crime deserved a second chance, some believed that employing a person with a felony background was too much risk. For this question, the scale was based on 1-5 where 1 was highly unlikely and 5 was highly likely. There was a mean of 4.33 and a standard deviation of 0.96.

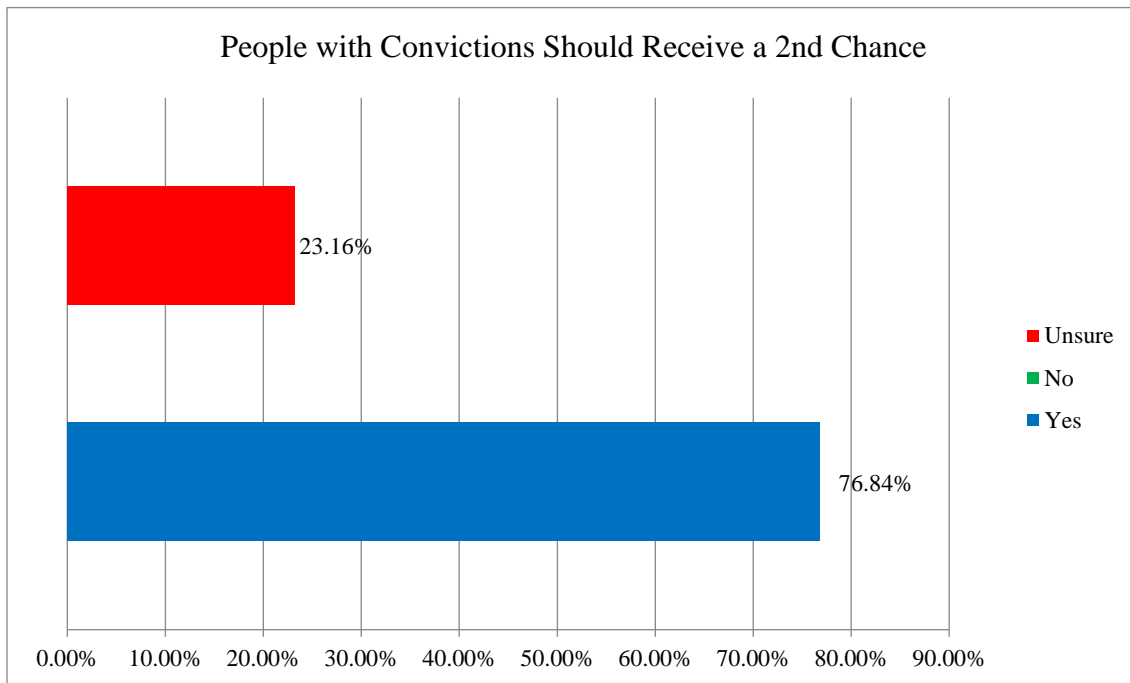


Figure 21. People with convictions should receive a 2nd chance.

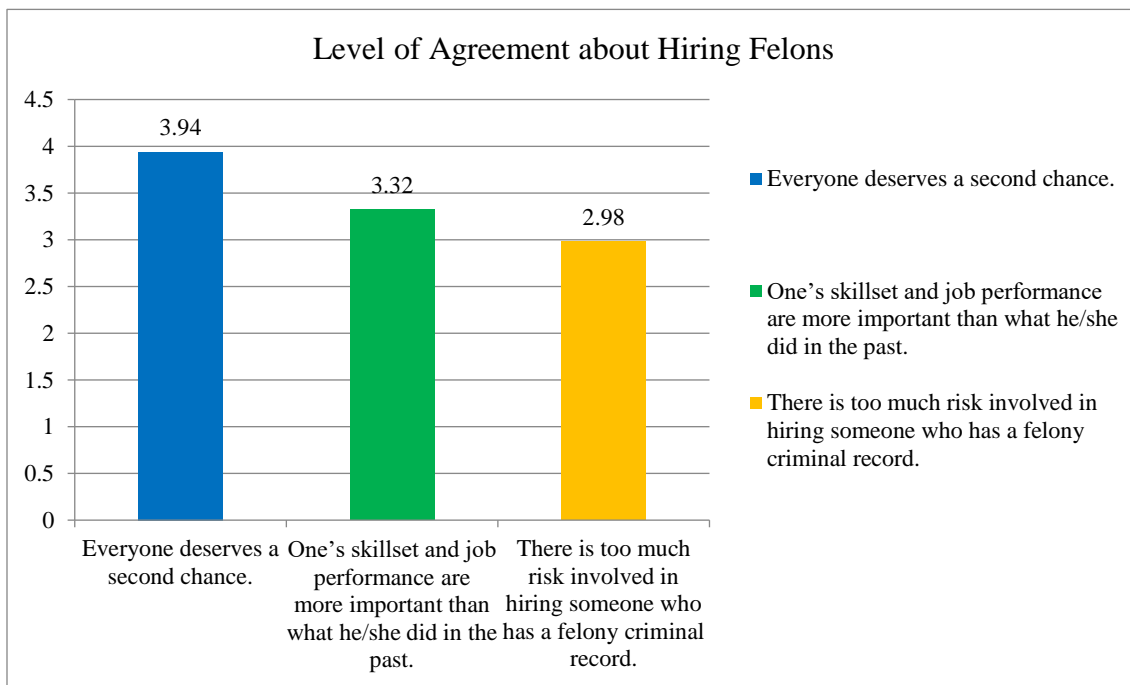


Figure 22. Level of agreement about hiring felons.

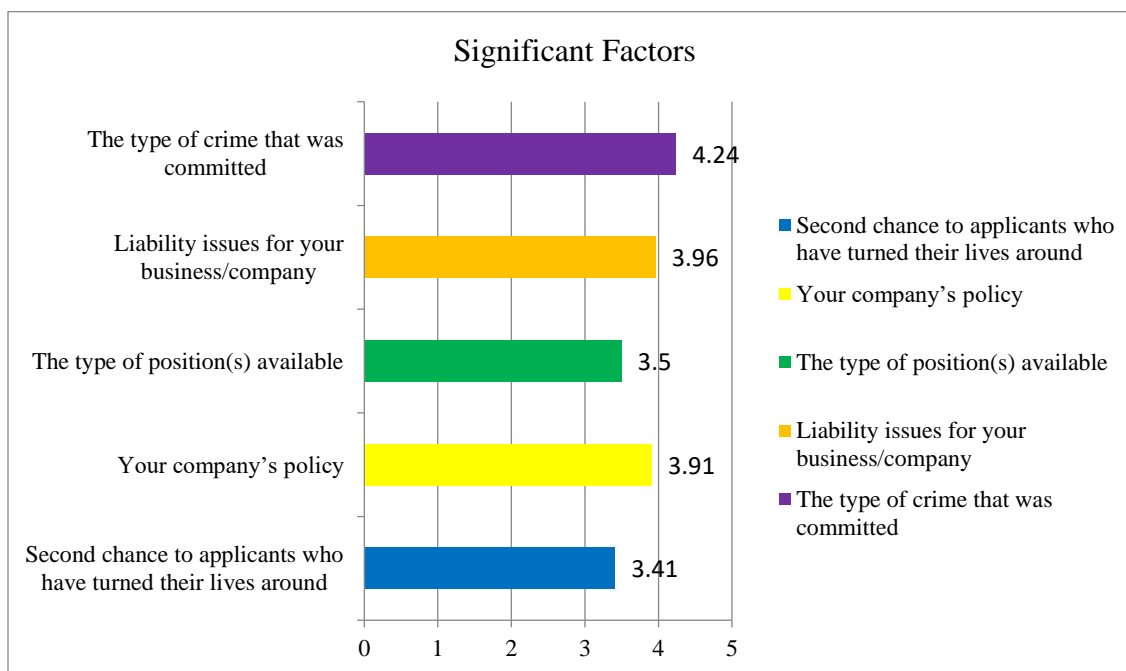


Figure 23. Significant factors.

Participants were asked how likely they were to allow an applicant to explain their criminal history if a conviction was noted on the job application. More than 56% of women said they were likely while 41% of males said they were likely. However, more than 44% of males said they were highly likely versus 18% of women said they were highly likely. I concluded this to mean that men were more in favor of allowing a person with a conviction to explain his or her conviction. To determine any statistical significances, I performed a Chi Square analysis that revealed that males are more likely to allow a person to explain their conviction.

Below is a visual of the data.

Crosstab

		Likeness to allow an applicant to explain their criminal history if a conviction was noted on the job application?					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
Gender	Female	1	3	7	25	8	44
	Male	0	0	7	19	20	46
Total		1	3	14	44	28	90

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.921 ^a	4	.042
Likelihood Ratio	11.635	4	.020
N of Valid Cases	90		

a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .49.

Table 5

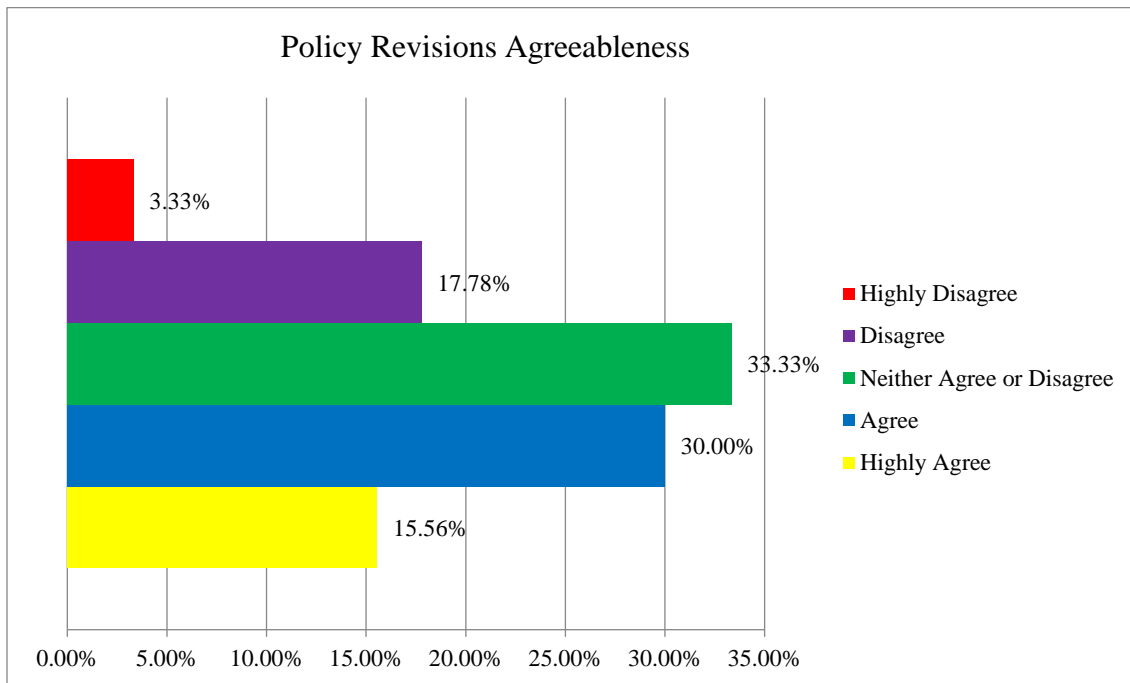


Figure 24. Policy revisions agreeableness.

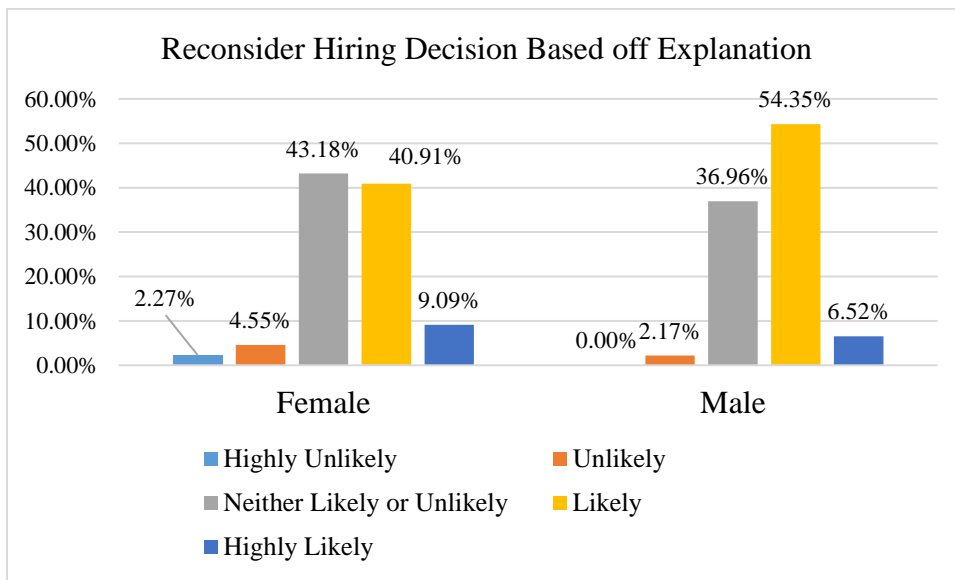


Figure 25. Reconsider hiring decision based off explanation

When asked if lawmakers should revise policies that will benefit felons so they may not be discriminated against when seeking employment, many of the participants agreed that policies should be revised. The responses were broken down by gender. Roughly 5% of females highly disagreed while on 2% males highly disagreed. On the other hand, roughly 39% of females agreed while almost 22% males agreed. In summary, more women felt that policies should be revised than men felt policies should be revised. I came to this conclusion by adding the percentages for highly agree and agree (50% for females and 41.28% for males). Figure 26 provides a visual of the data.

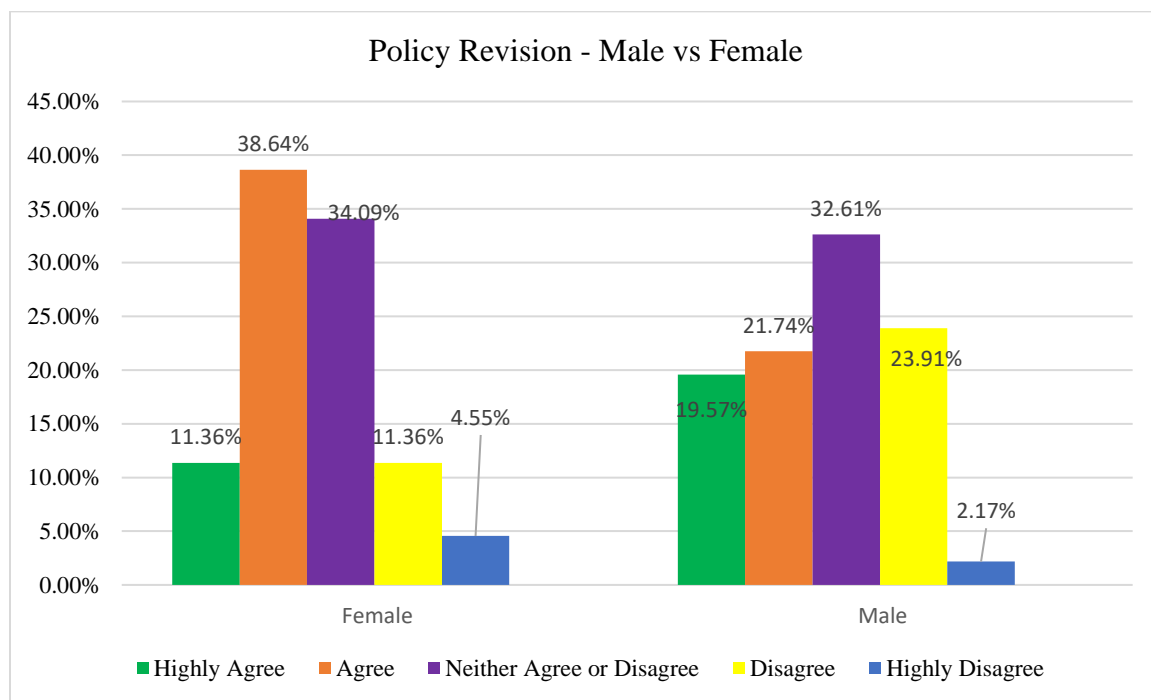


Figure 26. Policy revision – male vs female.

When comparing responses between men and women, I determined that more females agreed that lawmakers should revise policies to benefit convicted felons to prevent discrimination.

Do you agree that law makers should revise polices to benefit convicted felons so they may not be discriminated against when seeking employment?

Answered: 90 Skipped: 25

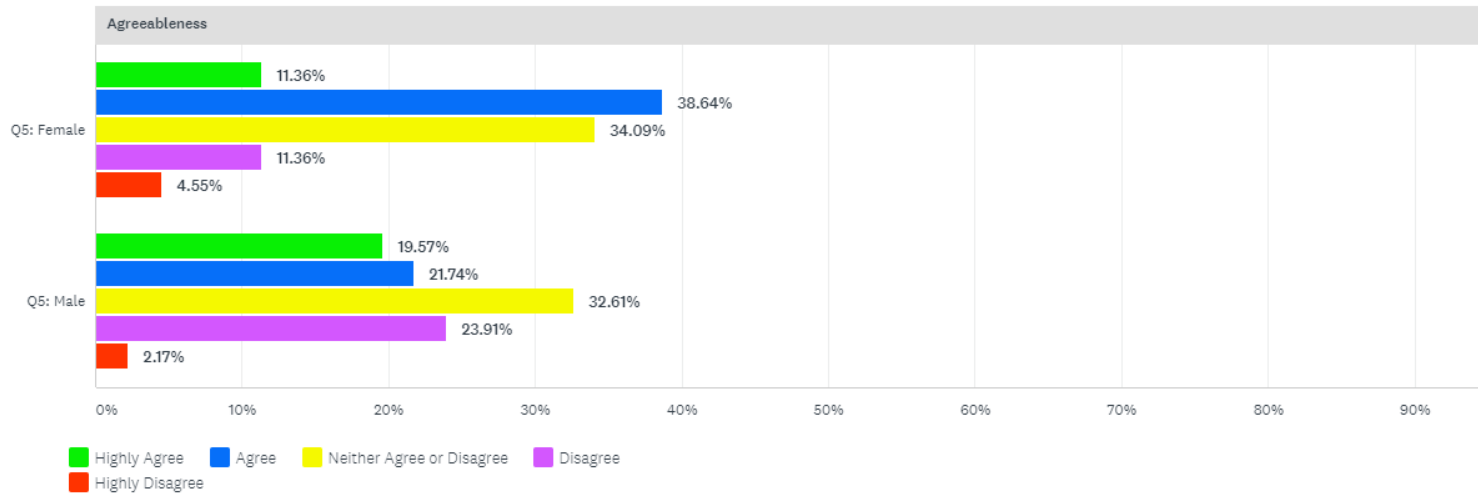


Figure 27. Agreeableness about law makers revising policies.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

In Chapter 5, I review the study findings, discuss the limitations of the study, offer recommendations for future research, and consider the implications of the research for positive social change. I end the chapter by offering a conclusion to the study. I prepared the data for analysis by exporting the survey responses from Survey Monkey into an Excel worksheet, and then into SPSS. Because of the large sample size, it was meaningful to use SPSS because SPSS is a useful tool for analyzing large datasets for statistical analysis. Last, I used descriptive analysis to assess whether participants were likely or not likely to determine certain factors when deciding to extend or refuse an employment offer to a felon. The following research question and hypotheses were used to guide this investigation: “Does the type of criminal offense, length of crime, or race of offender affect a hiring manager’s decision to hire an ex-felon?” and H_0 1: the type of criminal offense may influence a hiring manager’s attitude or perception of a person with a felony conviction during the selection process, which may in turn affect the hiring decision, H_1 1: the seriousness of the offense will negatively impact a hiring managers’ perceptions of a person with a felony conviction, H_1 2: the recency of the offense will be negatively related to a hiring managers’ perception of a person with a felony conviction, and H_1 3: African American and Latino ex-offenders will be perceived negatively by hiring managers as less qualified during the selection process.

Interpretation of the Findings

Although many of the respondents said they were hesitant about hiring a person with a felony background, some employers in the study were willing to give felons a second chance at employment, as indicated by analysis of the data. As some respondents indicated that they would definitely refuse to hire a candidate with a felony background, this willingness could potentially result in a disparate impact. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the disparate impact theory of discrimination proposes that “practices and procedures that are facially neutral in their handling of dissimilar groups, but fall more severely on one group, such as Blacks or women, than any other group, such as Whites” (Belton, 2005, p. 434). Disparate impact can occur when policies, procedures, rules, or any systems that appear to be unbiased result in an unequal impact on a protected group.

In addition, disparate treatment may be reflected in participants’ responses could occur. Disparate treatment is intentional employment discrimination (SHRM, 2016). Although race was not the most dominant factor, it was a factor in participants’ responses that they would not recommend or extend a job offer to a person with a criminal history. The data findings from this research answered the research question, Does the type of criminal offense, length of crime, or race of offender affect a hiring manager’s decision to hire an ex-felon? The hypothesis was met because the data revealed that people who are involved in hiring decisions do consider the type of crime committed when deciding to extend or deny an employment offer. Most of the participants agreed that the severity of the crime committed is a more important factor than race. The findings indicated,

however, that some employers do consider race when deciding to extend a felon an employment offer, which can result in disparate impact and or disparate treatment.

Limitations of the Study

I restricted this study to people who worked in the private sector. Because of this limitation, fewer hiring managers were qualified to participate in the study because of their working industry. Some questions asked respondents to rate their likeliness to extend an offer to an applicant where a lot of the respondents were unsure. These questions should have been worded to include a *yes* or *no* answer only. Giving a respondent the choice to answer if they were neither likely or unlikely allowed a respondent to avoid the questions. An additional limitation was the number of survey questions. I believe that if fewer questions were used, there would have been a better response rate. In addition, the requirement that respondents answer each question before going to the next page could have resulted in the participants closing the survey without completing it.

One strength of the survey was that the survey was well designed. The survey was written clearly in a way that respondents could understand because I used terminology that was suitable to the population. Moreover, I used a similar survey that was validated. The instrument was reliable as it was able to answer the research question. There were minor weaknesses in the survey. The survey was too long, which could have contributed to lesser responses. According to Survey Monkey, a survey should have around 10 survey questions. I felt as if 10 questions would not be enough to

answer the research question. Perhaps if the survey was shorter, there would have been more responses. Moreover, question one of the survey could have been worded better.

Most of the population did qualify to take the survey. However, the participants may not have known that the Metro Atlanta area included surrounding cities of Atlanta, Georgia, to include Alpharetta, Smyrna, Vinings, Austell, Peachtree City, Newnan, Mableton, etc. Therefore, most participants selected no. On the other hand, some of the participants may not have been in a manager/supervisor role. Finally, factors such as age, race, and sex may have played a part in how the participants responded to the survey because people of different age groups and backgrounds may have different views on hiring people with criminal backgrounds.

Recommendations

There is an opportunity for future research. This future research should include recoding of the data, performing a regression analysis, and expanding the sample size. I recommend that the study be repeated and extended to nonprofit, government, and public employers. The study should include people who work in various industries and environments and who do not have supervisory experience. Moreover, the study should be repeated to include millennials since most of the respondents who responded to the survey were at least 50 years of age. It would be plausible to see if millennials have a different perspective on employing felons than older individuals.

Implications for Social Change

The study findings provided evidence showing that factors such as race and type of crime do play a role in the hiring decision. The current study results corroborated

findings in the literature that hiring managers are skeptical to hire people with criminal convictions (see Figure 10). Because of the implications of this reluctance, legislators can collaborate with employers to create or revise laws that forbid employers from refusing a job applicant simply because an applicant has a felony charge or conviction. This research may positively affect social change by increasing awareness of disparate impact and disparate treatment among hiring managers, allowing more people with a criminal background to secure gainful and meaningful employment.

Conclusion

In this study, I examined the impact of felony criminal history on the perceptions of hiring managers in the Metro Atlanta area. This research addressed the factors that managers considered when deciding to extend or deny an employment offer. The findings showed that participants were hesitant to hire a person convicted of a felony as well as a person who was charged but not convicted of a felony. The findings also revealed that participants were more or less likely to hire people convicted of certain crimes. For instance, participants were more likely to hire a person convicted of a drug charge than they were likely to hire a person convicted of murder. In addition, the results revealed that men and women felt differently about hiring people with felonies.

When applying for employment, having to disclose a felony criminal history may be an irritant for some people who have a criminal history. Because employers may be biased in their hiring practices, some states have removed the conviction question from their employment applications (Solinas-Saunders & Stacer, 2015). Although race was not a highly significant factor in this study, a small portion of the sample did feel that

race would be something they would consider when deciding to extend or deny an employment offer. These results proved that having a criminal history does interfere with an ex-offender's ability to obtain employment. Because of such results, this may have an impact on the recidivism rate. While this research entailed information regarding the perceptions of Human Resources professionals and hiring managers, this research also provided us with valuable information regarding the factors that employers consider when deciding to extend an employment offer to a person with a criminal history.

References

- A. Cerda, Jessica & M. Stenstrom, Douglas & Curtis, Mathew. (2014). The Role of Type of Offense and Work Qualifications on Perceived Employability of Former Offenders. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*. 40. 10.1007/s12103-014-9244-8
- Adams, E. B., Chen, E. Y., & Chapman, R. (2016). Erasing the mark of a criminal past: Ex-offenders' expectations and experiences with record clearance. *Punishment & Society*, 0, 1-30. doi:10.1177/1462474516645688
- Arnulf, J. K., & Gottschalk, P. (2012). Heroic leaders as white-collar criminals: An empirical study. *Journal of Investigative Psychology & Offender Profiling*, 10, 96-113. doi:10.1002/jip.1376
- Belton, R. (2005). Title VII at forty: A brief look at the birth, death, and resurrection of the disparate impact theory of discrimination. *Hofstra Labor and Employment Law Journal*, 22(2), 431-472. Retrieved from <http://scholarlycommons.law.hofstra.edu/hlelj/vol22/iss2/4>
- 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), 382-410. doi:10.1080/07418825.2010.49838
- Bichler, S., & Nitzan, J. (2014). No way out: Crime, punishment, and the capitalization of power. *Crime, Law, & Social Change*, 61, 252-271. doi:10.1007/s10611-013-9505-3
- Bluestein, G. (2016, April 27). Georgia to embark on new phase of criminal justice reform. *Atlanta Journal-Constitution*. Retrieved from

<http://politics.blog.ajc.com/2016/04/27/georgia-to-embark-on-new-phase-of-criminal-justice-reform/>

- Boggs, M. P. & Worthy, T. W. (2015, February). *Report of the Georgia Council on Criminal Justice Reform*. Retrieved from <http://www.gjp.org/wp-content/uploads/2014-2015-CJRC-Report.pdf>
- Bolarinwa, O. A. (2015). Principles and methods of validity and reliability testing of questionnaires used in social and health science research. *Nigerian Postgraduate Medical Journal*, 22, 195-201. doi:10.4103/1117-1936.173959
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Curry, L. A., Nembhard, I. M., & Bradley, E. H. (2009). Qualitative and mixed methods provide unique contributions to outcomes research. *Circulation*, 119(10), 1-11. doi:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.107.742775
- Custer, B. D. (2013). Admission denied: A case study of an ex-offender. *Journal of College Admission*, n219, 16-19. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1011759>
- Davies, S., & Tanner, J. (2003). The long arm of the law: Effects of labeling on employment. *Sociological Quarterly*, 44(3), 385-404. doi:10.1111/j.1533-8525.2003.tb00538.x
- Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. (2015). *Guidance*. Retrieved from http://www.eeoc.gov/laws/guidance/arrest_conviction.cfm
- Finchman, J. E. (2008). Response rates and responsiveness for surveys, standards, and the

- journal. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 72(2), 1-3. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2384218/>
- Fliegel, R., & Hartstein, B. (2011). The EEOC's priorities still include regulating the use of criminal records by employers. *ASAP*, 1-3.
- Gauvey, S. K., & Webb, T. (2013). A new look at job applicants with criminal records. *Human Resource Management*, 1-10. Retrieved from <http://www.shrm.org/legalissues/federalresources/pages/applicantscriminalrecords>
- Georgia Bureau of Investigation. (2019). 42-1-12 State Sexual Offender Registry. Retrieved from <https://gbi.georgia.gov/42-1-12-state-sexual-offender-registry>
- Georgia Department of Corrections. (2016). Inmate Statistical Profile: Inmates Admitted During CY2015. Atlanta: Georgia Department of Corrections. Retrieved from http://www.dcor.state.ga.us/sites/all/files/pdf/Research/Annual/Profile_inmate_admissions_CY2015.pdf
- Georgia Department of Corrections. (2016). Inmate Statistical Profile: Inmates Released During CY2015. Atlanta: Georgia Department of Corrections. Retrieved from http://www.dcor.state.ga.us/Research/Annual_CY_profile_inmate_releases
- Georgia Justice Project. (2015). *Finding Employment with a Criminal History: Do Applicants Have Any Rights?* Atlanta: Georgia Justice Project. Retrieved from <http://www.gjp.org/wp-content/uploads/Final-Report-Final4.pdf>
- Hansen, M. (2013). Black prisoners are given longer sentences than whites, study says. *ABA Journal*. Retrieved from http://www.abajournal.com/news/article/black_prisoners_tend_to_serve_longer_s

entences_than_whites

- Harley, D. A., & Feist-Price, S. (2014). Introduction to special issue: Ex-offender population and employment. *Journal of Applied Rehabilitation Counseling*, 45(4).
- Harding, D. J., Wise, J. J., Dobson, C., & Morenoff, J. D. (2011). *Making Ends Meet After Prison: How Former Prisoners Use Employment, Social Support, Public Benefits, and Crime to Meet Their Basic Material Needs*. Ann Arbor: Population Studies Center.
- James, N. (2015). *Offender Reentry: Correctional Statistics, Reintegration into the Community*. Washington: Congressional Research Service.
- Lawrence, A., & Lyons, D. (2011). *Principles of Effective State Sentencing and Corrections Policy: A Report of the NCSL Sentencing Work Group*. Washington: National Conference of State Legislatures.
- Marcum, C. D., Higgins, G. E., & Tewksbury, R. (2011). Doing time for cyber crime: An examination of the correlates of sentence length in the united states. *International Journal of Cyber Criminology*, 5(2), 825-835.
- McDaniel, M. A., Kepes, S., & Banks, G. C. (2011). Encouraging debate on the uniform guidelines and the disparate impact theory of discrimination. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 566-570.
- McGinley, A. C. (2011). Ricci v. DeStefano: Diluting disparate impact and redefining disparate treatment. Scholarly Works, n.p. Retrieved from http://scholars.law.unlv.edu/facpub/646?utm_source=scholars.law.unlv.edu%2Ffacpub%2F646&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages

- Pettinato, T. R. (2014). Employment discrimination against ex-offenders: The promise and limits of Title VII disparate impact theory. *Marquette Law Review*, 98(2), 831-879.
- Podgor, E. S. (2011). 100 years of white-collar crime in "twitter." *The Review of Litigation*, 30(3), 535-558. Retrieved from <http://ezp.waldenulibrary.org/login?url=https://search.proquest.com/docview/876966228?accountid=14872>
- Ragatz, L. L., Fremouw, W., & Baker, E. (2012). The psychological profile of white-collar offenders: Demographics, criminal thinking, psychopathic traits, and psychopathology. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 39(7), 978-997. doi:10.1177/0093854812437846
- Richardson, R. L., & Flower, S. M. (2014). How gender of ex-offenders influences access to employment opportunities. *Journal of Applied Rehabilitation Counseling*, 45(4), 35-43. Retrieved from <http://ezp.waldenulibrary.org/login?url=https://search.proquest.com/docview/1645135444?accountid=14872>
- Rodriguez, M. N., & Avery, B. (2017). *Ban the Box: U.S. Cities, Counties, and States Adopt Fair Hiring Policies*. New York: National Employment Law Project. Retrieved from National Employ: <http://www.nelp.org/content/uploads/Ban-the-Box-Fair-Chance-State-and-Local-Guide.pdf>
- Rodriquez, M. N., & Emsellem, M. (2011). *65 Million Need Not Apply: The Case for Reforming Criminal Background Checks for Employment*. New York: The

National Employment Law Project. Retrieved from https://www.nelp.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/65_Million_Need_Not_Apply.pdf

Rohloff, A., & Wright, S. (2010). Moral panic and social theory: Beyond the heuristic. *Current Sociology*, 58(3), 403-419.

Rose, L. H. (2015). Community college students with criminal justice histories and human services education: Glass ceiling, brick wall, or a pathway to success. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 39(6), 584-587.
doi:10.1080/10668926.2014.926261

Rosenberg, A., Groves, A. K., & Blankenship, K. M. (2017). Comparing black and white drug offenders: Implications for racial disparities in criminal justice and Reentry policy and programming. *Journal of Drug Issues*, 47(1), 132–142.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0022042616678614>

Schur, E. M. (1971). *Labeling deviant behavior: Its sociological implications*. New York: Harper & Row. doi.org/10.1093/sf/51.3.389

Simpson, S. H. (2015). Creating a Data Analysis Plan: What to Consider When Choosing Statistics for a Study. *The Canadian Journal of Hospital Pharmacy*, 68(4), 311–317.

Society for Human Resource Management. (2016, September 30). *EEO: General: What are disparate impact and disparate treatment?* Retrieved from Society for Human Resource Management: <https://www.shrm.org/resourcesandtools/tools-and-samples/hr-qa/pages/disparateimpactdisparatetreatment.aspx>

Society for Human Resource Management. (2014, September 15). *Avoiding Adverse*

Impact In Employment Practices. Retrieved from Society for Human Resource Management: <https://www.shrm.org/resourcesandtools/tools-and-samples/toolkits/pages/avoidingadverseimpact.aspx>

Society for Human Resource Management. (2012). *Background Checking - The Use of Criminal Background Checks in Hiring Decisions*. Society for Human Resource Management. Retrieved August 9, 2016, from <https://www.shrm.org/hr-today/trends-and-forecasting/research-and-surveys/Pages/criminalbackgroundcheck.aspx>

Solinas-Saunders, M., & Stacer, M. J. (2015). An analysis to "ban the box" policies through the prism of Merton's theory of unintended consequences of purposive social action. *Critical Sociology*, 41(7-8), 1187-1198.

Solomon, A. L. (2012). In search of a job: Criminal records as barriers to employment. *NIJ Journal*, 42-51. Retrieved from <http://www.nij.gov/journals/270/pages/criminal-records.aspx>

Song, L., & Lieb, R. (1993). *Recidivism: The Effect of Incarceration and Length of Time Served*. Olympia: Washington State Institute for Public Policy. Retrieved from http://wsipp.wa.gov/ReportFile/1152/Wsipp_Recidivism-The-Effect-of-Incarceration-and-Length-of-Time-Served_Full-Report.pdf

State Correctional Statistics. (2015, June 20). Retrieved from United States Department of Justice National Institute of Corrections: <http://nicic.gov/statestats/?st=GA>

Statistical Analysis of Data. (2019, April 29). Retrieved from Science Halley Hosting: <http://science.halleyhosting.com/sci/ibbio/inquiry/standdev2.htm>

- Survey Monkey. (2018, November 5). Help Center. Retrieved from Survey Monkey:
https://help.surveymonkey.com/articles/en_US/kb/What-is-the-enhanced-security-option-SSL-encryption
- The Council of State Governments (CSG) Justice Center. (2015). In Brief: Examining the Changing Racial Composition of Three States' Prison Populations. Lexington: The Council of State Governments (CSG) Justice Center. Retrieved August 2, 2016, from <https://csgjusticecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/ExaminingtheChangingRacialCompositionofThreeStatesPrisonPopulations.pdf>
- The Pew Center on the States. (2011). State of Recidivism: The Revolving Door of America's Prisons. Washington: The Pew Charitable Trusts.
- The Pew Center on the States. (2014). One in 31 U.S. Adults are Behind Bars, on Parole or Probation. Washington: The Pew Charitable Trusts. Retrieved from <http://www.pewtrusts.org/en/about/news-room/press-releases/0001/01/01/one-in-31-us-adults-are-behind-bars-on-parole-or-probation>
- United States Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics*. (2016). Retrieved from <http://data.bls.gov/pdq/SurveyOutputServlet>
- Williams, K. A. (2007). Employing ex-offenders: Shifting the evaluation of workplace risks and opportunities from employers to corrections. *UCLA Law Review*, 521-558. Retrieved from <http://www.uclalawreview.org/employing-ex-offenders-shifting-the-evaluation-of-workplace-risks-and-opportunities-from-employers-to-corrections/>

- Wilson, R. (2015, February 24). Georgia the latest state to 'ban the box' in hiring practices. *Washington Post*. Retrieved from https://www.washingtonpost.com/blogs/govbeat/wp/2015/02/24/georgia-the-latest-state-to-ban-the-box-in-hiring-practices/?utm_term=.b94b35d5588f
- Wright, K. B. (2017). Researching Internet-based populations: Advantages and disadvantages of online survey research, online questionnaire authoring software packages, and web survey services. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 10(3). Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2005.tb00259.x>
- Young, N. C., & Powell, G. N. (2014). Hiring ex-offenders: A theoretical model. *Human Resource Management Review*, 298-312. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2014.11.001

Appendix A: Invitation to Participate in Survey

Dear Survey Participant:

My name is Larrica Mosley and I am currently working on a PhD in Public Policy with a concentration in Management and Leadership at Walden University. In order to successfully fulfill the degree requirements, I must complete a dissertation that includes research. The purpose of my research is to examine the attitudes of hiring managers towards ex-offenders in the Metro Atlanta area and to identify the factors that influence the hiring decision of ex-offenders – particularly felons.

You have been invited to participate in this survey because you are part of my professional network. You are being provided with a questionnaire that asks you to rate your level of agreement regarding hiring ex-offenders in the Metro Atlanta area. There are no written responses as all questions contain predetermined answers. This questionnaire is **strictly confidential and voluntary**. There are no potential conflicts of interest associated with participating in this survey as your identity will not be known or collected. If you are interested in participating, please visit <https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/YT5D5CQ> to be directed to the survey. **By clicking the link, you consent to participate in the survey.** In addition, there are no risks associated with its completion. **Please do not provide a name or any specific information that may cause your identity to become exposed.**

This study is important because it is needed to identify factors hiring personnel consider when deciding to offer or deny employment to felons. The results of this research may provide valuable information for hiring managers, legislators, and the

general public. This survey will not affect your employment in any way and will not be shared with your current or previous employer, as employer information will not be collected. Please complete each question honestly and to the best of your ability. The questionnaire contains 25 questions and should take no more than 5-10 minutes to complete. The survey can be returned anonymously via the Internet through Survey Monkey. I will share the survey results on my professional LinkedIn page for the public to view.

I greatly appreciate your time and efforts in assisting me with completing my research and being part of me completing my dissertation. If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact me anytime via email at larrica.mosley@waldenu.edu. In addition, please feel free to contact my chair, Dr. Diane Williams, at diane.williams2@waldenu.edu. Please note that if you are not satisfied with the manner in which this study is being conducted, you may report (anonymously if you so choose) any complaints to my chair. Again, thank you for your support!

Regards,

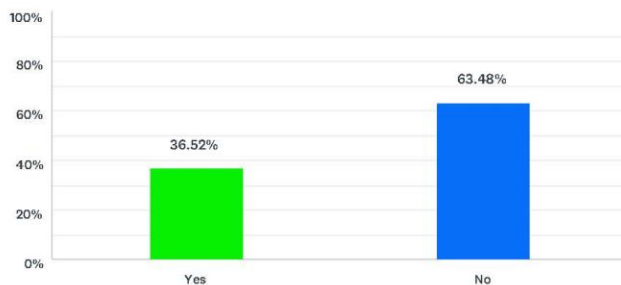
Larrica Mosley

Appendix B: Descriptive Statistics

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

Q1 Are you currently or have previously been a hiring manager/supervisor, been on a hiring/interview panel, or played a role in the hiring process/decision in the Metro Atlanta area private sector?

Answered: 115 Skipped: 0

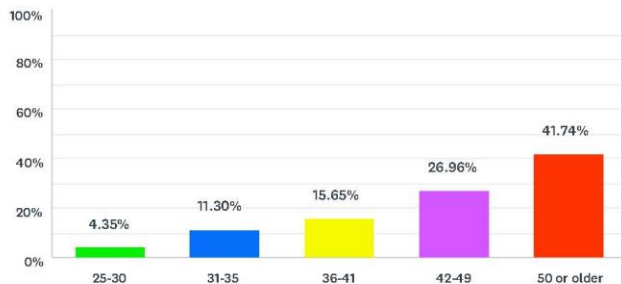


ANSWER CHOICES		RESPONSES	
Yes (1)		36.52%	42
No (2)		63.48%	73
TOTAL			115

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	2.00	2.00	1.63	0.48

Q2 Which category below includes your age?

Answered: 115 Skipped: 0



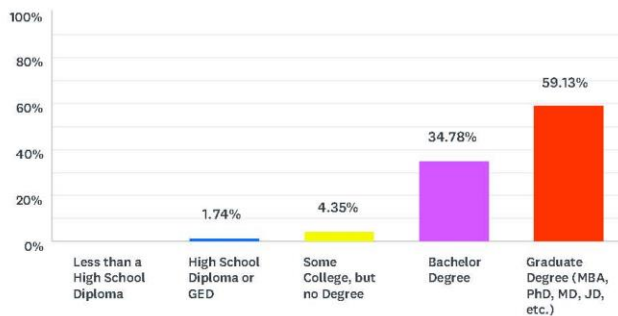
ANSWER CHOICES		RESPONSES	
25-30 (1)		4.35%	5
31-35 (2)		11.30%	13
36-41 (3)		15.65%	18
42-49 (4)		26.96%	31
50 or older (5)		41.74%	48

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

TOTAL					115
BASIC STATISTICS					
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation	
1.00	5.00	4.00	3.90	1.19	

Q3 What is the highest level of education you have completed or the highest degree you have obtained?

Answered: 115 Skipped: 0

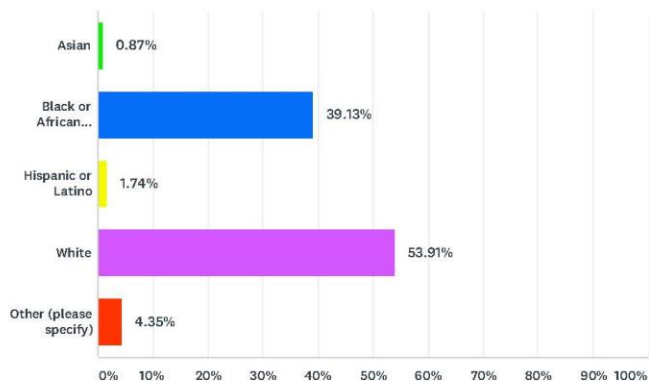


ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES
Less than a High School Diploma (1)	0.00% 0
High School Diploma or GED (2)	1.74% 2
Some College, but no Degree (3)	4.35% 5
Bachelor Degree (4)	34.78% 40
Graduate Degree (MBA, PhD, MD, JD, etc.) (5)	59.13% 68
TOTAL	115
BASIC STATISTICS	
Minimum	Maximum
2.00	5.00
Median	Mean
5.00	4.51
Standard Deviation	
0.66	

Q4 Which category best describes your race/ethnicity?

Answered: 115 Skipped: 0

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

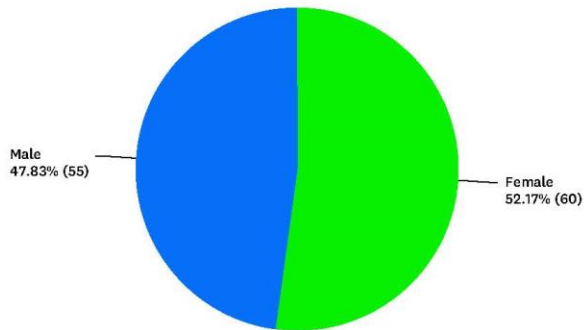


ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Asian (1)	0.87%	1
Black or African American (2)	39.13%	45
Hispanic or Latino (3)	1.74%	2
White (4)	53.91%	62
Other (please specify) (5)	4.35%	5
TOTAL		115

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	5.00	4.00	3.22	1.04

Q5 What is your gender?

Answered: 115 Skipped: 0



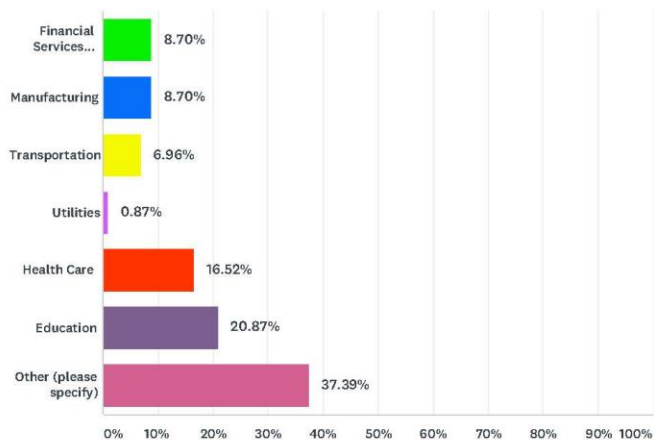
ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Female (1)	52.17%	60
Male (2)	47.83%	55

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

TOTAL					115
BASIC STATISTICS					
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation	
1.00	2.00	1.00	1.48	0.50	

Q6 What is your job industry?

Answered: 115 Skipped: 0

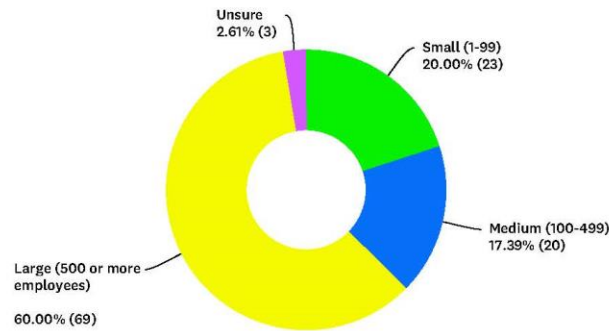


ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES			
Financial Services (Accounting, Finance, Banking, etc.) (1)	8.70%	10		
Manufacturing (2)	8.70%	10		
Transportation (3)	6.96%	8		
Utilities (4)	0.87%	1		
Health Care (5)	16.52%	19		
Education (6)	20.87%	24		
Other (please specify) (7)	37.39%	43		
TOTAL		115		
BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	7.00	6.00	5.20	2.03

Q7 What is your organization size?

Answered: 115 Skipped: 0

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

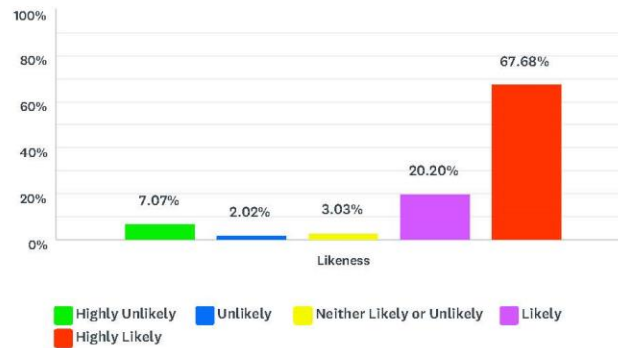


ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Small (1-99) (1)	20.00%	23
Medium (100-499) (2)	17.39%	20
Large (500 or more employees) (3)	60.00%	69
Unsure (4)	2.61%	3
TOTAL		115

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	4.00	3.00	2.45	0.84

Q8 How likely are you to conduct a criminal background check for a job applicant?

Answered: 99 Skipped: 16



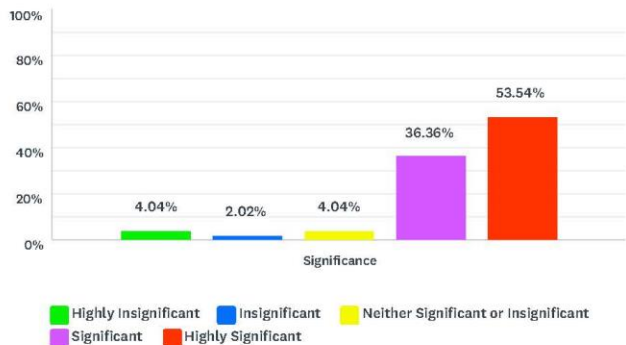
	HIGHLY UNLIKELY (1)	UNLIKELY (2)	NEITHER LIKELY OR UNLIKELY (3)	LIKELY (4)	HIGHLY LIKELY (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Likeness	7.07%	2.02%	3.03%	20.20%	67.68%	99	4.39
	7	2	3	20	67		

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	5.00	5.00	4.39	1.13

Q9 How significant is checking the criminal background of a person who meets or surpasses all the qualifications for a position?

Answered: 99 Skipped: 16



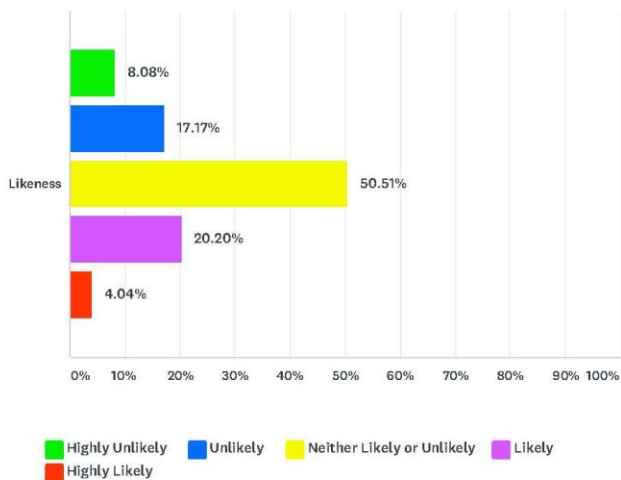
	HIGHLY INSIGNIFICANT (1)	INSIGNIFICANT (2)	NEITHER SIGNIFICANT OR INSIGNIFICANT (3)	SIGNIFICANT (4)	HIGHLY SIGNIFICANT (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Significance	4.04%	2.02%	4.04%	36.36%	53.54%	99	4.33
	4	2	4	36	53		

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	5.00	5.00	4.33	0.95

Q10 How likely are you to hire a person with a felony charge (not a conviction)?

Answered: 99 Skipped: 16

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

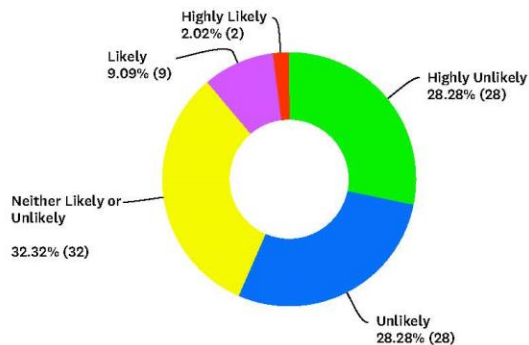


	HIGHLY UNLIKELY (1)	UNLIKELY (2)	NEITHER LIKELY OR UNLIKELY (3)	LIKELY (4)	HIGHLY LIKELY (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Likeness	8.08%	17.17%	50.51%	20.20%	4.04%	99	2.95
	8	17	50	20	4		

BASIC STATISTICS					
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation	
1.00	5.00	3.00	2.95	0.93	

Q11 How likely are you to hire an applicant convicted of a felony drug charge?

Answered: 99 Skipped: 16



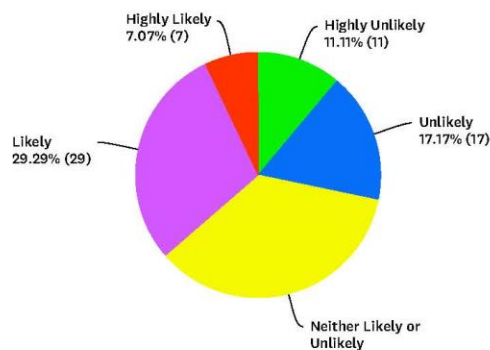
	HIGHLY UNLIKELY (1)	UNLIKELY (2)	NEITHER LIKELY OR UNLIKELY (3)	LIKELY (4)	HIGHLY LIKELY (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
(no label)	28.28%	28.28%	32.32%	9.09%	2.02%	99	2.28
	28	28	32	9	2		

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	5.00	2.00	2.28	1.04

Q12 How likely are you to consider a felony applicant's social status or ties to the community when making a hiring decision (i.e. comes from a prominent background, does community service, family/friend connection, etc.)?

Answered: 99 Skipped: 16



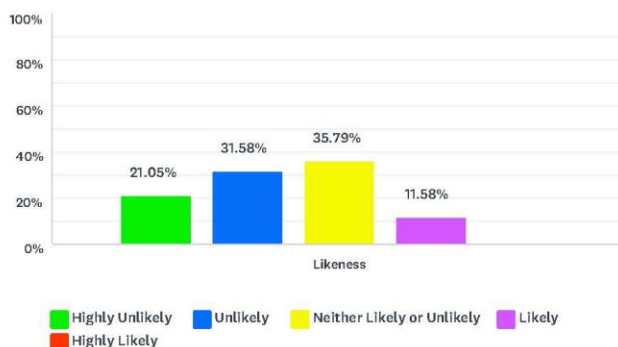
	HIGHLY UNLIKELY (1)	UNLIKELY (2)	NEITHER LIKELY OR UNLIKELY (3)	LIKELY (4)	HIGHLY LIKELY (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
(no label)	11.11% 11	17.17% 17	35.35% 35	29.29% 29	7.07% 7	99	3.04

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	5.00	3.00	3.04	1.09

Q13 How likely are you to hire a person with a felony conviction?

Answered: 95 Skipped: 20

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

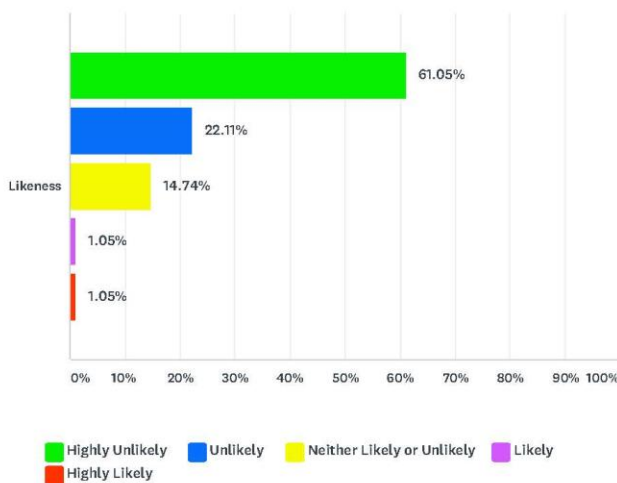


	HIGHLY UNLIKELY (1)	UNLIKELY (2)	NEITHER LIKELY OR UNLIKELY (3)	LIKELY (4)	HIGHLY LIKELY (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Likeness	21.05%	31.58%	35.79%	11.58%	0.00%	95	2.38
	20	30	34	11	0		

BASIC STATISTICS					
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation	
1.00	4.00	2.00	2.38	0.94	

Q14 How likely are you to hire an applicant convicted of a violent felony (aggravated assault, manslaughter, battery, robbery, rape, etc.)?

Answered: 95 Skipped: 20



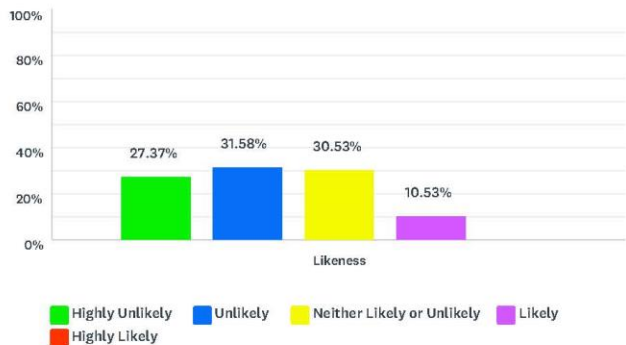
	HIGHLY UNLIKELY (1)	UNLIKELY (2)	NEITHER LIKELY OR UNLIKELY (3)	LIKELY (4)	HIGHLY LIKELY (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Likeness	61.05%	22.11%	14.74%	1.05%	1.05%	95	1.59
	58	21	14	1	1		

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	5.00	1.00	1.59	0.85

Q15 How likely are you to hire an applicant convicted of a non-violent felony/white collar crime (fraud, embezzlement, bribery, theft etc.)?

Answered: 95 Skipped: 20

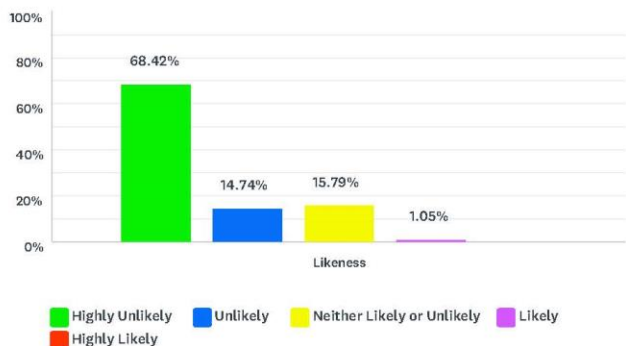


	HIGHLY UNLIKELY (1)	UNLIKELY (2)	NEITHER LIKELY OR UNLIKELY (3)	LIKELY (4)	HIGHLY LIKELY (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Likeness	27.37%	31.58%	30.53%	10.53%	0.00%	95	2.24
	26	30	29	10	0		

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	4.00	2.00	2.24	0.97

Q16 How likely are you to hire an applicant convicted of murder?

Answered: 95 Skipped: 20



	HIGHLY UNLIKELY (1)	UNLIKELY (2)	NEITHER LIKELY OR UNLIKELY (3)	LIKELY (4)	HIGHLY LIKELY (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Likeness	68.42%	14.74%	15.79%	1.05%	0.00%	95	2.24
	26	14	16	1	0		

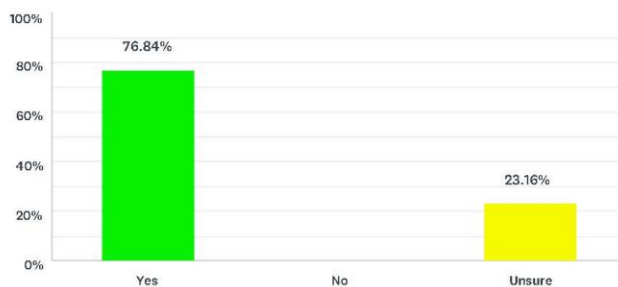
An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

Likeness	68.42%	14.74%	15.79%	1.05%	0.00%	95	1.49
	65	14	15	1	0		

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	4.00	1.00	1.49	0.79

Q17 Do you believe that a person convicted of a crime and has successfully completed his or her sentence should be granted a second chance at obtaining employment?

Answered: 95 Skipped: 20



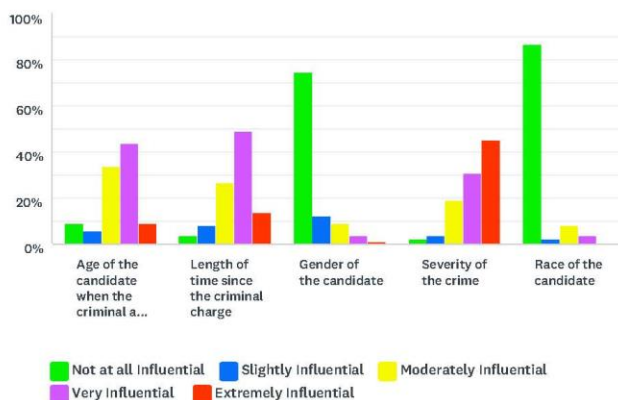
ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes (1)	76.84%	73
No (2)	0.00%	0
Unsure (3)	23.16%	22
TOTAL		95

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	3.00	1.00	1.46	0.84

Q18 How influential are the following factors in your decision to NOT extend a job offer to a felon? Answers will be ranked from 1-5 with 1 being not at all influential and 5 being extremely influential.

Answered: 90 Skipped: 25

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area



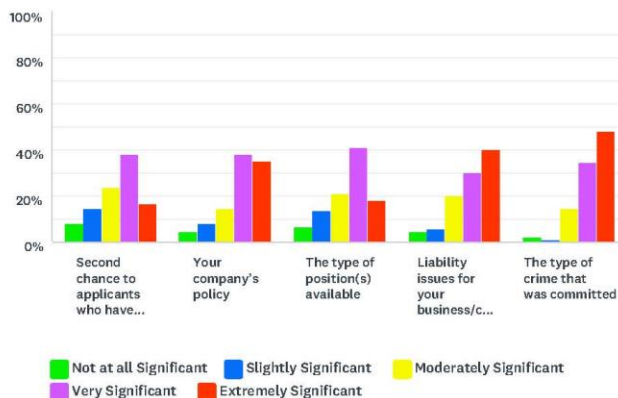
	NOT AT ALL INFLUENTIAL (1)	SLIGHTLY INFLUENTIAL (2)	MODERATELY INFLUENTIAL (3)	VERY INFLUENTIAL (4)	EXTREMELY INFLUENTIAL (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Age of the candidate when the criminal act occurred	8.89% 8	5.56% 5	33.33% 30	43.33% 39	8.89% 8	90	3.38
Length of time since the criminal charge	3.33% 3	7.78% 7	26.67% 24	48.89% 44	13.33% 12	90	3.61
Gender of the candidate	74.44% 67	12.22% 11	8.89% 8	3.33% 3	1.11% 1	90	1.44
Severity of the crime	2.25% 2	3.37% 3	19.10% 17	30.34% 27	44.94% 40	89	4.12
Race of the candidate	86.67% 78	2.22% 2	7.78% 7	3.33% 3	0.00% 0	90	1.28

BASIC STATISTICS						
	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM	MEDIAN	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	
Age of the candidate when the criminal act occurred	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.38		1.03
Length of time since the criminal charge	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.61		0.93
Gender of the candidate	1.00	5.00	1.00	1.44		0.87
Severity of the crime	1.00	5.00	4.00	4.12		0.98
Race of the candidate	1.00	4.00	1.00	1.28		0.75

Q19 How significant are the following factors in your decision to hire a person with a felony conviction? Please rate the following on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being not at all significant and 5 being extremely significant.

Answered: 90 Skipped: 25

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area



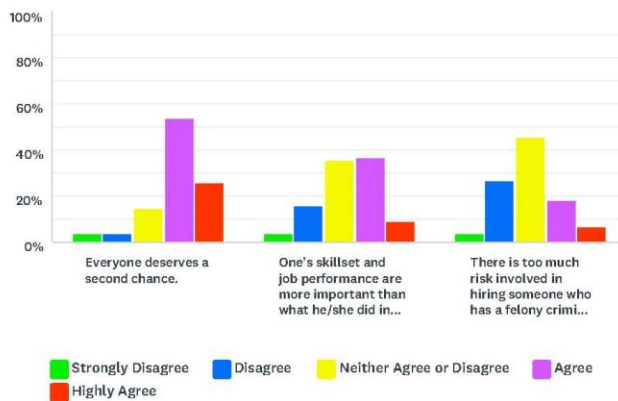
	NOT AT ALL SIGNIFICANT (1)	SLIGHTLY SIGNIFICANT (2)	MODERATELY SIGNIFICANT (3)	VERY SIGNIFICANT (4)	EXTREMELY SIGNIFICANT (5)	TOTAL	WEIG AVER
Second chance to applicants who have turned their lives around	7.78% 7	14.44% 13	23.33% 21	37.78% 34	16.67% 15	90	
Your company's policy	4.49% 4	7.87% 7	14.61% 13	38.20% 34	34.83% 31	89	
The type of position(s) available	6.67% 6	13.33% 12	21.11% 19	41.11% 37	17.78% 16	90	
Liability issues for your business/company	4.44% 4	5.56% 5	20.00% 18	30.00% 27	40.00% 36	90	
The type of crime that was committed	2.22% 2	1.11% 1	14.44% 13	34.44% 31	47.78% 43	90	

BASIC STATISTICS						
	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM	MEDIAN	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	
Second chance to applicants who have turned their lives around	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.41		1.15
Your company's policy	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.91		1.10
The type of position(s) available	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.50		1.13
Liability issues for your business/company	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.96		1.10
The type of crime that was committed	1.00	5.00	4.00	4.24		0.90

Q20 Please rate your level of agreement to the following statements about hiring felons.

Answered: 90 Skipped: 25

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

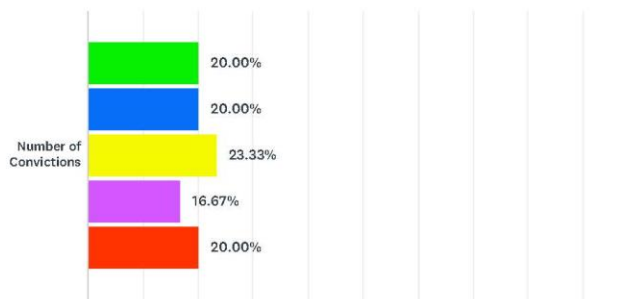


	STRONGLY DISAGREE (1)	DISAGREE (2)	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE (3)	AGREE (4)	HIGHLY AGREE (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Everyone deserves a second chance.	3.33% 3	3.33% 3	14.44% 13	53.33% 48	25.56% 23	90	3.94
One's skillset and job performance are more important than what he/she did in the past.	3.33% 3	15.56% 14	35.56% 32	36.67% 33	8.89% 8	90	3.32
There is too much risk involved in hiring someone who has a felony criminal record.	3.33% 3	26.67% 24	45.56% 41	17.78% 16	6.67% 6	90	2.98

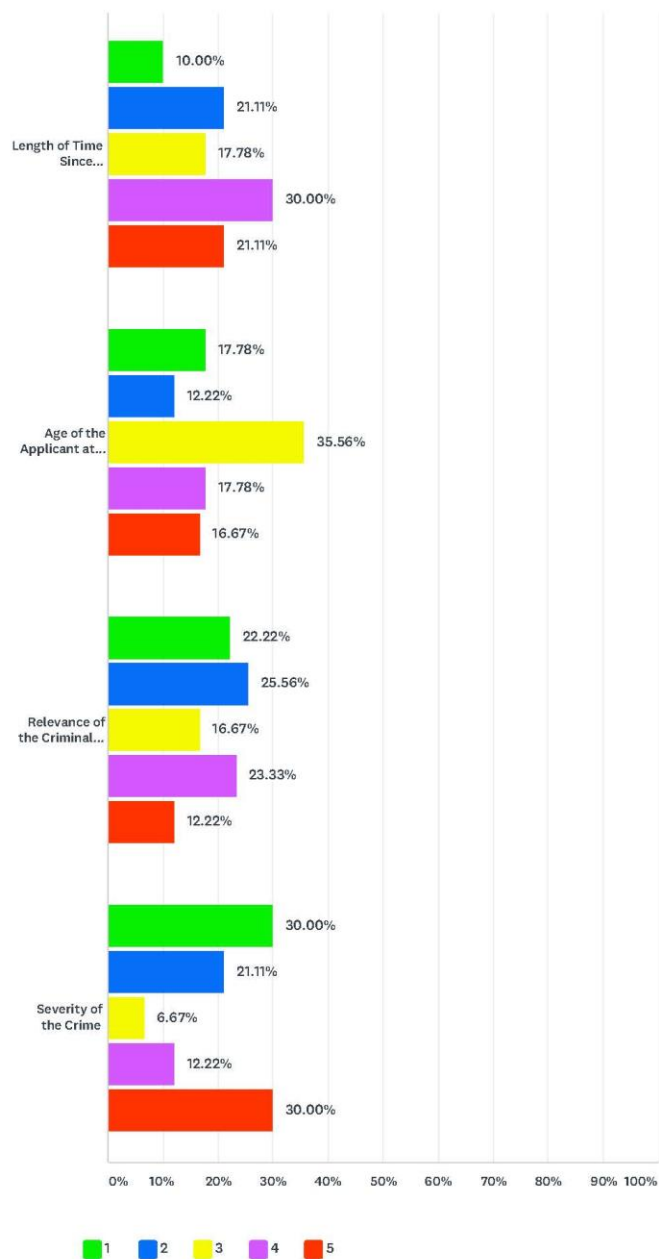
BASIC STATISTICS					
	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM	MEDIAN	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
Everyone deserves a second chance.	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.94	0.91
One's skillset and job performance are more important than what he/she did in the past.	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.32	0.95
There is too much risk involved in hiring someone who has a felony criminal record.	1.00	5.00	3.00	2.98	0.92

Q21 What factors are more influential in making a hiring decision?
Please rank your answers from 1-5.

Answered: 90 Skipped: 25



An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area



	1	2	3	4	5	TOTAL	SCORE

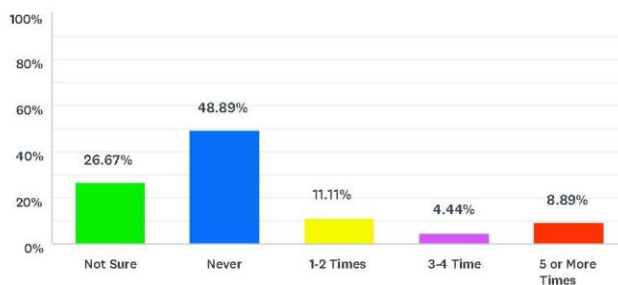
An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

Number of Convictions	20.00% 18	20.00% 18	23.33% 21	16.67% 15	20.00% 18	90	3.03
Length of Time Since Conviction	10.00% 9	21.11% 19	17.78% 16	30.00% 27	21.11% 19	90	2.69
Age of the Applicant at Time of Conviction	17.78% 16	12.22% 11	35.56% 32	17.78% 16	16.67% 15	90	2.97
Relevance of the Criminal Activity Related to the Position	22.22% 20	25.56% 23	16.67% 15	23.33% 21	12.22% 11	90	3.22
Severity of the Crime	30.00% 27	21.11% 19	6.67% 6	12.22% 11	30.00% 27	90	3.09

BASIC STATISTICS						
	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM	MEDIAN	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	
Number of Convictions	1.00	5.00	3.00	2.97		1.40
Length of Time Since Conviction	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.31		1.29
Age of the Applicant at Time of Conviction	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.03		1.29
Relevance of the Criminal Activity Related to the Position	1.00	5.00	3.00	2.78		1.35
Severity of the Crime	1.00	5.00	2.00	2.91		1.65

Q22 How many times have you automatically rejected an applicant based on their criminal record – even though the candidate was qualified?

Answered: 90 Skipped: 25



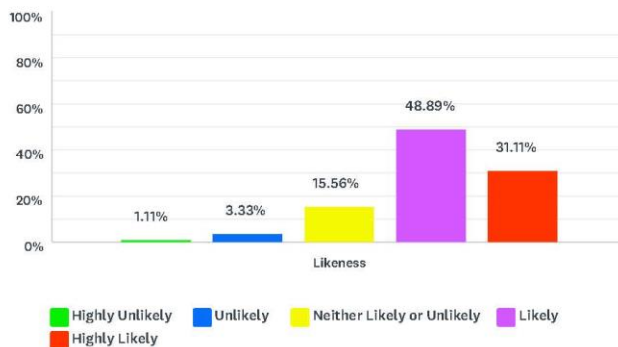
ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES
Not Sure (1)	26.67% 24
Never (2)	48.89% 44
1-2 Times (3)	11.11% 10
3-4 Time (4)	4.44% 4
5 or More Times (5)	8.89% 8
TOTAL	90

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	5.00	2.00	2.20	1.15

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

Q23 How likely are you to allow an applicant to explain their criminal history if a conviction was noted on the job application?

Answered: 90 Skipped: 25



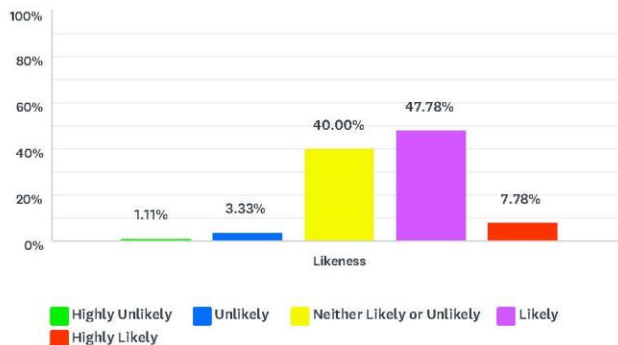
	HIGHLY UNLIKELY (1)	UNLIKELY (2)	NEITHER LIKELY OR UNLIKELY (3)	LIKELY (4)	HIGHLY LIKELY (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Likeness	1.11%	3.33%	15.56%	48.89%	31.11%	90	4.06
	1	3	14	44	28		

BASIC STATISTICS

Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	5.00	4.00	4.06	0.83

Q24 How likely are you to reconsider your hiring decision based off an applicant's explanation?

Answered: 90 Skipped: 25



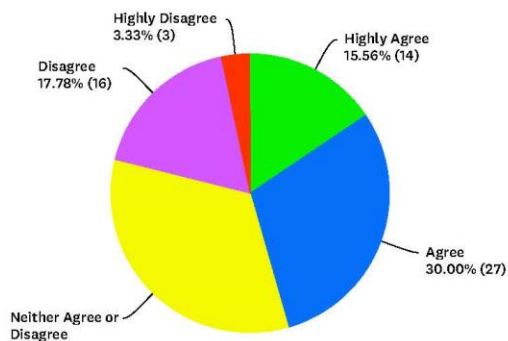
	HIGHLY UNLIKELY (1)	UNLIKELY (2)	NEITHER LIKELY OR UNLIKELY (3)	LIKELY (4)	HIGHLY LIKELY (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Likeness	1.11%	3.33%	40.00%	47.78%	7.78%	90	3.58
	1	3	36	43	7		

An Analysis of the Impact of Felony Criminal History on the Perceptions of Hiring Managers in the Atlanta, Georgia Area

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	5.00	4.00	3.58	0.73

Q25 Do you agree that law makers should revise polices to benefit convicted felons so they may not be discriminated against when seeking employment?

Answered: 90 Skipped: 25



	HIGHLY AGREE (1)	AGREE (2)	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE (3)	DISAGREE (4)	HIGHLY DISAGREE (5)	TOTAL	WEIGHTED AVERAGE
Agreeableness	15.56% 14	30.00% 27	33.33% 30	17.78% 16	3.33% 3	90	2.63

BASIC STATISTICS				
Minimum	Maximum	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.00	5.00	3.00	2.63	1.05