

**EFFECTS OF INMATE CHARACTERISTICS AND INSTITUTIONAL
CAPACITY ON PRISON REHABILITATION OUTCOMES IN SELECTED
PRISONS IN NAIROBI CITY COUNTY, KENYA**

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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university or any other award.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this research thesis to my family members for their love, support, patience, encouragement and understanding. They gave me the will and determination to complete my studies.

I also dedicate this research thesis to all the inmates who are in incarceration at various stages of serving their prison sentences in the country as a whole and, those all over the world.

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ABSTRACT

Various studies continue to report minimal or negligible impact of rehabilitation on reoffending and reintegration to community environment. More specifically, the proportion of sustained prison releases reduces rapidly within the first three years largely because of re-arrests, re-convictions and return to prison and the rate is even more acute in developing nations and Sub-Saharan Africa. In view of this persistent challenge, this study examined rehabilitation outcomes of inmates particularly in respect to their prerelease readiness to return to lawful livelihoods and community environment. Life course perspective and socio-economic vulnerability theory were used to identify phases of life associated with socio-economic vulnerabilities leading to increased crime risks, rehabilitation challenges and reoffending tendencies. Specific objectives of the study were; to identify characteristics of the prison inmates and related risks, to examine rehabilitation outcomes and readiness towards prison release, to identify types of rehabilitation practices and usefulness, to examine the institutional capacity and sustainability, to examine the influence of inmate characteristics on the rehabilitation outcomes, and to identify key challenges affecting prison rehabilitation programmes and necessary interventions. The study applied cross-sectional survey design. The target population for the study were 800 inmates serving their sentences in Nairobi Industrial Area Medium Prison, Nairobi West Prison and Langata Women Prison all based in Nairobi County. The three institutions were better placed to provide the inmate with extensive rehabilitation including industrial attachment and experience because of their proximity to the largest industrial area. Sample size of 286 was determined using Krejcie and Morgan, (1970). Both qualitative and quantitative data were obtained through key informants, FGDs and survey questionnaire. Analyses of data with the use of SPSS included descriptive statistics, cross-tabulations and regression analyses. Results indicated that majority of the inmates were young, with limited education, vulnerable occupations and lived within extreme poverty. Considerable proportion of the inmates were women and had limited family support and social capital. Rehabilitation outcomes were substantially limited or inadequate in all indicators including compliance to institutional rules, participation of inmates in the design of their respective rehabilitation plans, access to apprenticeship, engagement on productive activities among others. The study concluded that rehabilitation practices should be guided by life course perspective, socio-economic vulnerability and desistance theory. The study recommends review and expansion of prison rehabilitation to; strengthen rehabilitation along the UN guidelines including 2015 minimum rules and the various roadmaps, ensure provision of adequate resources particularly in terms of personnel, facilities, equipment and budgetary allocations, incorporate and expand prison industries in order to expand apprenticeship, work experience and to generate revenue and adopt a rehabilitation plan for each inmate incorporating post-release support follow up.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BCJ	Brennan Centre for Justice
CAT	The Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
CJS	Criminal Justice System
CMS	Case Management Systems
CPC	Criminal Procedure Code
CRH	Children Remand Homes
CSO	Community Service Order
CSPRI	Civil Society Prison Reforms Initiative
DCT	Data Collection Tools
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
HRC	Human Rights Council
ICPS	International Centre for Prison Studies
IDPs	Internally Displaced Persons
IPMAS	Integrated Performance and Accountability System
IPOA	Independent Police Oversight Authority
JTF	Judicial Transformation Framework
KNCHR	Kenya National Commission on Human Rights
KPS	Kenya Prisons Service
LSK	Law Society of Kenya
MHA	Mental Health Act

NCAJ	National Council on the Administration of Justice
NPS	National Police Service
NPSC	National Police Service Commission
PRI	Penal Reform International
PRT	Prison Reform Trust
OB	Occurrence Book
OCS	Officer Commanding Station
ODPP	Office of the Department of Public Prosecution
RODI	Resources Oriented Development Initiatives
SRIC	Security Research and Information Centre
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Human Rights
UNHR	United Nations Human Rights
UNSMR	United Nations Standard Minimum Rules (Mandela Rules)
WPB	World Prison Brief

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1: Introduction

In view of continued minimal impact, this study examined rehabilitation outcomes of inmates particularly in respect to their prerelease readiness to return to lawful livelihoods and community environment. Rehabilitation of inmates, sustainable release, lawful livelihoods and reintegration to the community environment have become part of the key objectives in the criminal justice systems. Indeed, a number of authorities have emphasized a prison system that encompasses reforms and rehabilitation of all sentenced inmates (Rubin & Deflem 2019, Pollock 2010, UNHRC 1966, 1976, Conley 1992, Schneider 1979, Kraiem 1978, Lewis 1973). In addition, in the inevitability of rehabilitation, Rubin (2001) argued that rehabilitation of prisoners was part of the conceptualization and design of the prison system, Further, United Nations has emphasized rehabilitation in prison which would promote ability of the prisoners to lead productive, law-abiding and self-supporting lives upon release (UNSMRs 2015, UNODC 2015, 2010, 2007). Accordingly, expected rehabilitation outcomes include prerelease relevance of the interventions, adequacy, response to those interventions and post-release indicators; cessation, or reduction, of crime tendencies (recidivism) as well as sustained participation in lawful social and economic wellbeing (UNODC 2018, PRI 2018, Ganapathy 2018, NIJ 2017, Griffiths et al 2007).

However, various studies continue to report minimal or negligible impact of rehabilitation on reoffending tendencies and reintegration to community environment, particularly in developing countries. In respect to prerelease responses, some studies have indicated that up to 72% of the inmates have reported that rehabilitation has not been adequate to enable them to overcome crime tendencies; 67.2% have reported that they were not adequately equipped to lead law-abiding lives while 61.4% maintained a view that they were not encouraged to plan for their release (HOC 2004, SEU 2002). In terms of the post-release indicators, based on two (2) years of release, the global recidivism ranged from 82% to 20% reflecting a substantial... (Yukhnenko et al 2019, Yukhnenko and Sridhar 2019, Deady 2017). In Sub Sahara Africa (SSA) relapse stood at an average of 55% in the first year and 77% in the second year of release (Murhula & Singh 2019, Bello 2017, Schoema 2010).

In view of these shortcomings, a number of approaches have been used to identify ways to improve the process of rehabilitation: relevance, adequacy and effectiveness of the interventions. The most common approaches include; risk and need perspective which emphasizes the need to address the greatest risk and reversing criminogenic needs in delivery of rehabilitation (UNODC 2018, Laws & Ward, 2011, Ward & Maruna 2007, Ward 2002); socio-economic vulnerability which emphasizes reduction of extreme and chronic poverty, enhancing development of relevant skills and employment capability among others (Ashish

2014, Phillips 1991, Howsen and Jarrell 1987, Sjoquist 1973); and desistance perspective which emphasizes taking into cumulative life course disadvantages (risks) as well as challenges related to limited human and social capital (UNODC 2018, 2014, PRI 2018, Ganapathy 2018, Blakey 2017, Duwe 2017, Day et al 2017, Graham 2016). In this study, we have combined socio-economic vulnerability and desistance theory to analyze, rehabilitation outcomes in the context of the developing nations where socio-economic capacities including human and social capital remain severely limited.

1.2: Background of the Study

Prisons are institutions with a mandate to maintain custody of inmates and to carryout correctional services including rehabilitation of inmates with a view to ensure sustainable release, integration to the work and the community environment. By 2018, the global prison population stood at 10.7 million and at the global rate of 146 per 100,000 citizens. This represented an increase of 20% from the year 2000 above an estimated 18% of the global general population growth over the same period. (Walmsley 2018; Jacobson Heard & Fair, 2017; UNODC 2015; Schmitt Warner & Gupta, 2010; Walmsley, 2005). In principle, the trend reflected growth in use and importance of the prisons in the contemporary management of crime and social control.

Although there was an overall decrease or stability in the rate of crime, the prison population increased worldwide by 82% from 1986 to 2018, characterized by

varied trends in various regions and countries (PRT, 2018). By 2013 the prison population had increased by 30% in Africa, America, Asia and Europe (Walmsley 2013); necessitating the need for reforms and rehabilitation (Austin, Wendy & Tony, 2007). The rate of overcrowding defined as prison occupancy above 100% continued to be a chronic challenge in many countries. By 2013, prison occupancy exceeded 150% in 21% of the 191 UN member countries; reflecting overcrowding by 50% (WPB 2018, Walmsley, 2013, UNODC 2013). During the same period, prison occupancy exceeded 200% in 8% of the 191 UN member states. In respect to regional perspective, prisons in 41% of the countries in Africa exceeded over 150% occupancy. Similarly, 19% of the countries in Oceania, 28% of the countries in Asia, Americas and 2% of the countries in Europe also exceeded over 150% occupancy (PRI 2018, WPB 2018, Walmsley, 2013, Allen, 2010, Schmitt et al., 2010).

In view of the increased and persistent overcrowding, the UNODC (2013) reported that despite regional differences, prison overcrowding had developed into an acute global challenge; and posed a major barrier towards implementation of the UNSMR and effective rehabilitation. In this respect, Mendez of the United Nations observed that, “imprisonment has become an almost automatic response rather than a last resort. Furthermore, the penitentiary system in most countries is no longer aimed at the reformation and social

rehabilitation of convicts, but simply aims to punish offenders by locking them in prisons” (Mendez 2013).

The concept of the rehabilitation of offenders emerged in the first half of 1800s based on the conviction that offenders could be changed to become better people (Pollock 2010, 2003, Rubin, 2001, Conley 1992, Hirsch 1987, Schneider 1979, Kraiem 1978). By the 2nd half of 1800s reforms initiated in America, Britain and the International Prison Commission (IPC) called for humane treatment and rehabilitation of offenders. Some authorities have also maintained a view that rehabilitation was the essential purpose, the goal, and the basis for the prison (Pollock 2010, Rubin, 2001).

Whereas the process oscillated at various times between strict punishment and rehabilitation, early 1900s was marked by considerable progress towards prison reforms and rehabilitation of offenders. Further, the period between 1930 and 1960 witnessed medical based offender rehabilitation model in which qualified personnel carried-out diagnosis of key causes of criminal behavior and prescribed intervention measures. Although there has been persistent pessimism on the effectiveness of rehabilitation, particularly from the 2nd half of 1900s (Farabee 2005, Martinson 1974), a number of studies have reported potential for effective offender rehabilitation; i.e. ability to change inmates and to reduce recidivism (Cullen 2013, Gendreau and Ross 1987, Cullen and Gilbert 1982).

More specifically, studies have reported that 30% to 40% of rehabilitation have been effective in some areas (or regions) and others have maintained that offender rehabilitation has been effective subject to the nature of the interventions and the cooperation of the inmates (PRI 2018, Duwe 2017, Day et al 2017, Griffiths 2007). Indeed, a number of studies have reported that rehabilitation would be effective subject to appropriate approach, assessment of risks and needs, relevant and adequate interventions and the capacity of the prison administration (Blakey 2017, Duwe 2017, Day et al 2017, Graham 2016, Laws & Ward, 2011, Ward & Maruna 2007, Ward 2002, Lin 2002). Furthermore, it has been argued that the Nordic Rehabilitation Model has demonstrated that rehabilitation works and even more promising with prison population rate standing at 57 per 100,000 citizens (in Sweden and Denmark) and recidivism ranging from 10% to 30% the lowest in all the regions of the world.

In spite of growing conviction that rehabilitation can work (or would be effective), there are still persistent challenges including substantial rates of recidivism and limited integration of offenders to community environment (Conti-Brown, 2017, Aghan, 2016, Papa, 2015, Deady, 2014, Omboto, 2013, Whitten, 2012, Kowalski & Bellai, 2011, Walmsley, 2003). In turn these challenges have continued to contribute to overcrowding of prison institutions, health and safety (Macdonald 2018, McLaughlin et al 2018) and increased cost

of imprisonment; which also remain acute in various regions; particularly Sub Sahara Africa (SSA).

More importantly, limited attention has been given to prerelease assessment of the rehabilitation outcomes; which would have indicated in advance necessary interventions to reduce post release relapses (recidivism) and to enhance sustained integration to lawful livelihoods and community environment. In addition, limited attention has also been given to the effects of the inmate characteristics on rehabilitation outcomes, an aspect that this research sought to address. These two important aspects were addressed in this study.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Although it has been intended to support majority of the inmates to return to lawful livelihoods and community environment, except for the Nordic countries, rehabilitation outcomes continue to be minimal and even negligible in some of the regions. The proportion of sustained prison releases reduces rapidly within the first three years largely because of re-arrests, re-convictions and return to prison and the rate is even more acute in some of the regions, particularly in developing nations and Sub-Sahara Africa.

More specifically, an average of 45% would remain pursuing lawful livelihoods within one year of their release from prison; the proportion reduces to less than 35% by the 2nd year and the proportion diminishes further to less than 25% by

the 3rd year (Yukhnenko et al 2019, Fazel and Wolf 2015, Monnery & St-Etienne 2013). In view of such less promising outcomes, this study was intended to examine the outcomes of rehabilitation, the contribution of the institutional capacity and characteristics of the inmates to the rehabilitation outcomes. The Nairobi Industrial Area Medium, Nairobi West GK and Langata Women Prisons located in Nairobi County and closer to the largest industrial area provided opportunity for the study particularly because of the on-going reforms and proximity to the largest industrial zone in the republic.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

Accordingly, the purpose of the study was to examine rehabilitation outcomes in terms of the prerelease readiness of the inmates towards sustained lawful livelihoods and integration to the community, the effects of institutional capacity and characteristics of inmates on the prison rehabilitation outcomes.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study was to examine the effects of inmate characteristics and institutional capacity on prison rehabilitation programmes in Nairobi Industrial Area Medium, Nairobi West GK and the Langata Women Prisons, all based in Nairobi County, Kenya.

In particular, the study addressed the following specific objectives:

1. To examine the characteristics of prison inmates and related risks
2. To examine rehabilitation outcomes and readiness towards prison release.
3. To identify types, practices and usefulness of prison rehabilitation programmes.
4. To identify the institutional capacity of the prisons and their influence to rehabilitation outcomes.
5. To examine the influence of inmate characteristics on the rehabilitation outcomes.
6. To identify key challenges affecting prison rehabilitation programmes and necessary interventions.

1.6 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the typical characteristics of prison inmates and related risks?
2. What outcomes of rehabilitation and plans do inmates have after release?
3. What are the types, practices and usefulness of prison rehabilitation programmes?
4. How has institutional capacity of the prison influence prevailing rehabilitation outcomes?

5. How does inmate characteristics influence prison rehabilitation outcomes?
6. What are the key challenges affecting prison rehabilitation programmes and necessary interventions?

1.7 Justification and Significance of the Study

Ultimately, the process of rehabilitation is considerably a practice aimed at changing the habits of inmates so that they play roles that depict more responsibility of citizens in the society. Also targeting to reduce recidivism, the rate of prison population and overcrowding, rehabilitation prepares individuals reintegrating them into the working community environment towards a sustainable economy. However, the level of recidivism among convicted offenders released after imprisonment is of utmost concern to the public and Governments. This study was important because it uncovered the underlying factors that undermine prison rehabilitation programmes' outcomes. It has also examined the effects of inmate characteristics and institutional capacity on prison rehabilitation outcomes.

The study sought to fill the gaps in literature adding knowledge to the field of Sociology especially as concerns inmate rehabilitation. A review of literature revealed limited information on the impact of inmate characteristics and institutional capacity on prison rehabilitation outcomes. Most of the reviewed

studies that have been carried out focus mainly on the effectiveness of prison rehabilitation programmes. For instance, in Kenya, Sikasa (2015) and Awily (2015) carried out a study on the factors influencing recidivism in Kingongo main prison, Nyeri County and Langatta Women Prison, Nairobi County respectively. They both concluded that despite the reforms being undertaken upon inmates, there is need to improve the rehabilitation programmes being offered to avoid recidivism.

After establishing the extent to which inmate characteristics and institutional capacity affect prison rehabilitation programmes and outcomes, findings of this study are aimed at assisting to shape the reforms to be undertaken by the prison's department which will eventually lead to the improvement of prison rehabilitation programmes.

In addition, the study informs policy formulation and help in providing information on the effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes. The study is useful to penal institution managers and the Government of Kenya as the findings unearth the challenges and possible interventions to make rehabilitation work hence reduce recidivism.

1.8 Assumptions of the Study

This study was based on the following assumptions:

1. Most of the inmates will have limited education and vulnerable occupations
2. Rehabilitation outcomes will be limited because of a number of circumstances
3. Institutional capacity will be associated with limited rehabilitation outcomes
4. Characteristics of inmates will be associated with different rehabilitation outcomes

1.9 Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study was carried out to examine the effects of inmate characteristics and institutional capacity on prison rehabilitation outcomes, drawing possible outcomes of rehabilitation and necessary interventions. The research was conducted in Nairobi Industrial Area (Medium) Prison, Nairobi West Prison and Langata Women Prison, all of which are based in Nairobi County. A sample of 286 was included in the study with 67 respondents being drawn from the Nairobi Industrial Area (Medium), 109 from Nairobi West and 110 from Langata Women Prison. This research reflected the proportion of the population serving their sentences and expected to participate in the rehabilitation programmes.

Consequently, the results of the study were not generalized to a whole range of criminal offenders.

1.10 Operational Definition of Terms

Appropriation in Aid: Refers to the revenue that the prison department would collect and then allowed to use to support the facility, inmates and rehabilitation; usually regularized in the budget estimates.

Ex-offender: Refers to an individual who has been convicted of a crime and has been discharged after serving a prison sentence.

High Risk Offender: This refers to inmates with high probability of reoffending or recidivating

Incapacitation: It is a process and/or set of procedures in the criminal justice (particularly in the incarceration institutions) intended to prevent individuals from engaging on further offenses; at least for a period considered to be necessary. It does not necessarily imply punishment or pain and therefore preferred in some quarters of the criminal justice.

Incarceration: Refers to confinement of a convicted person who is serving a specified prison term.

Inmate: Refers to a person who has been convicted and serving a prison term.

Inmate Characteristics: Refers to attributes and features of inmates such as age, gender, religion, marital status, occupation, education level among others.

Institutional Capacity: Refers to availability of financial resources, adequacy of personnel and facilities to support inmates, their well – being and rehabilitation.

Institutional Characteristics: Refers to attributes or features of the prison facility.

Offender: a person convicted of a crime and serving sentence in prison custody.

Prison: Refers to a facility used to detain/hold in custody persons serving conviction sentence.

Prison population: Refers to a number of people sentenced to imprisonment for specified period, and in some cases include people in remand.

Prison population rate: Refers to an expression of sentenced inmates (or pretrial detainees) per 100,000 citizens with a view to facilitate comparison across different geographical areas, regions or countries.

Punishment: Denotes infliction of pain administered for a given offence committed and authorized agents or institutions.

Recidivism: It is the reversion of an individual to criminal behavior, after he or she has been convicted of a prior offense, sentenced and presumably corrected on release.

Rehabilitation: of the prison inmates usually refers adjustment of values and capabilities to support re-integration to community and work environment with a view to reduce repeated offending or recidivism.

Rehabilitation Outcomes: Refers to developed values, competencies, behavioral practices, after release plans by inmates and related scale (indexes).

Reintegration: Used in this research to refer to a process resulting in outcome that includes participation in social institutions such as community and work environments.

Retribution: is a term in penal system that refers balancing a wrong through punishment administered by specified authority.

Utilitarian approach: in the criminal justice is a view that punishment (or incapacitation) will need to be justified for the benefits of the greatest number in the community or society and adequate to prevent repeat of the similar crime.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights what has been researched by other scholars concerning prison rehabilitation programmes elsewhere and in Kenya. It highlights the gaps that the researcher covered during the process of the study. The chapter also presents the theoretical framework of the study and the conceptual framework.

2.2 Functions of Prison

Part of the functions of the prison system in virtually all countries is to provide custody, carry out correction and rehabilitation of the inmates with a view to equip them new values, knowledge, skills, competencies to support livelihood and social integration; and generally to be better than before they were imprisoned. In Kenya, for instance, the Kenya Prison Service is charged with the mandate of rehabilitating all inmates serving short and long-term sentences with an aim of ensuring that they are fully rehabilitated and successfully reintegrated back to their families and society.

Accordingly, UNODC (2017) concurs that imprisonment should not be limited to punishment alone rather; it should include the opportunities for inmates to obtain knowledge and skills that can assist in their successful reintegration to the society upon release with a view to avoid future reoffending. Mushanga (1976)

observed that the aim of imprisonment is to protect the society, deterrence of potential offenders from committing crimes, punishment and reformation of offenders.

The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 2015-2030 emphasized the importance of 'leaving no one behind' by formulating policies which will help in eradicating poverty, improve healthcare, education, social and economic empowerment, and to build peaceful and all-inclusive societies. This framework maintained a view that prison inmates were essentially part of the marginalized, deprived and poverty-stricken segments of the populations and subsequently outlined the importance of prison reforms in achieving a number of the goals towards SDGs (Penal Reform International, 2017).

Many countries of the world, including Kenya, are facing the problem of increased crime. Crime has many effects on society including the economy, the social fabric, social order and even politics. In sum, crime negatively affects social, political and economic development. One of the ways of reducing crime, and of separating offenders from members of society, has been imprisonment, and this falls under the aegis of the Kenya Prisons Service.

The Doha Declaration (2015) emphasized the need for states to formulate, implement and enhance policies that put more emphasis on the education of the inmates, their medical care, work and rehabilitation, social reintegration and the

prevention of recidivism. They should formulate policies that strengthen support to families of prisoners, encourage, and promote the use of alternatives to imprisonment. They should reform (or review) restorative justice as well as other processes with a view of supporting successful reintegration.

UN Crime Congress (2015) recommended an expanded and individualized approach to support rehabilitation and reintegration of the inmates upon release; and these programmes should be able to address reintegration barriers by providing vocational training, education, and healthcare, as well as psychological and social services.

2.3 Global Prison Population

Prison population has increased globally by approximately 20%; from the year 2000 to 2016 estimated to be 18% increase of the global population over the same period. More than half (55%) of the UN member countries maintained a prison population rate below 150 per 100,000 citizens (Jacobson et al., 2017; Walmsley, 2016; UNODC, 2015). The same sources indicate that the prison population varied substantially in various regions and countries. For example it increased in the United States from about 500,000 in 1980s to its peak of over 2.3 million in 2008, in Brazil from 30,000 in 1973 to over 600,000 in 2015, in England and Wales from 40,000 in 1975 to 87,000 by 2012 (Jacobson et al., 2012). Further, from the year 2000 to 2015, the prison population increased in

Oceania by 59%, in Americas by 41%; in Asia by 29%; and in Africa by 15%. In contrast, countries in Europe witnessed a decrease by 21% in the overall prison population (Jacobson et al., 2017). In principle, countries worldwide have embraced prison as the primary institution and mechanism to address punishment, correction and rehabilitation of offenders, reduction of crime and social disorder.

The countries that had the highest rates of the prison population by 2016 included Seychelles (799), the United States (698), St. Kitts & Nevis (607), Turkmenistan (583), U.S. Virgin Islands (542), Cuba (510), El Salvador (492), Guam – U.S.A. (469), Thailand (461), Belize (449), Russian Federation (445), Rwanda (434) and British Virgin Islands (425) (Walmsley, 2016, 2005, 2003; Schmitt et al., 2010). The median rate for western African countries stood at 52 and South African countries at 324. In East Africa, Kenya ranked number 3 with (169) after Mauritius (214) and Seychelles (186).

One of the important observations in the early 21st century is a trend in which while the rate of crime decreased or stabilized, particularly in developed countries, the rate of imprisonment continued to increase. In general, the rate of crime decreased or stabilized from 1990s to 2016 (UNODC, 2015, 2016; PRI, 2017). For example, in USA, the crime rate declined from 5,856 to 2,857 offenses per 100,000 citizens. Similarly, the rate of violent crimes reduced from

716 to 366 per 100,000 citizens by 2016 (BCJ, 2017). Further, between 2003 and 2013 global crimes of homicide, robbery and rape witnessed a decrease or notable stability per 100,000 populations (UNODC, 2015). The decline was also notable for property crimes; in which theft of motor vehicles reduced by 50% and burglary by 25%. Based on data for 219 UN member countries, UNODC estimated that in 2012 approximately 437,000 persons worldwide were victims of intentional homicide, corresponding to a global homicide rate of 6.2 per 100,000 citizens.

Although the general population in Africa increased by 44%, the prison population has increased by 15% since 2000. This increase was characterized by a wide variation across Africa and Rwanda genocide prosecutions that pushed the number of prisoners to 145, 000 in 1998 (Coyle et al., 2014). In South Africa, for instance, in 2016 the prison population stood at 161, 984 in its 234 prison facilities (South Africa Department of Correctional Services, 2017).

In 2015, the prison population in Kenya stood at 57,000, out of this, 40% were pre-trial detainees of which majority are petty offenders, whose offence should have attracted sentences of less than six months. Further, other reports (Jacobson et al., 2017) indicated that over one-third of prisoners were unnecessarily in incarceration or should have been subjected either to probation or to Community Service Order. Other reports indicate that probation or

community services have not been viable options in part because of severe shortage of probation officers, and lack of trained magistrates on community sentences (Kiplangat et al., 2015; Bernault, 2003).

According to World Prison Brief (2017 and 2016), the present prison population in Kenya stood at 54,000 in 2016 of which 52% were sentenced inmates and 48% were pretrial detainees; a number that doubled the official capacity of 26,757. More than 75 per cent of inmates are between 18 and 35 years, with a majority of them being petty offenders. One of the key challenges include overcrowding that has been precipitated by a number of factors including minor offenses, a large number of pre-trial detainees, delays in the clearance of cases during prosecution, trials and appeals, and accumulated inmates sentenced to death and have not been executed. Inmates sentenced to death have not been executed since 1985 and have accumulated considerably contributing to overcrowding. In 2008, the death row inmates were 3481 with 360 awaiting execution and 3121 having pending appeals (Omboto, 2013; Madoka, 2008).

It is important to note that the number of female inmates have increased considerably in the past few years. According to The World Prison Brief, the female prison population total has increased by 50% since about 2000, while the equivalent figure for the male prison population is 18%. They note that the female incarceration rate has increased proportionately more than the male rate

in every continent. Consequently, the proportion of women and girls in the total world prison population has risen from 5.4% in about 2000 to 6.8% as at research conducted in February 2015 (Walmsey, 2015). Within Australia, the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) reported in 2016 that women were more likely to have fraud, deception and related offences as their most serious offence, followed by acts intended to cause injury, drug offences and public order offences (ABS, 2016a).

2.4: Concepts and Principles of Rehabilitation

Rehabilitation is a central goal of correctional systems. The term rehabilitation was derived from the Latin word *rehabilitare*, which means re-enabling or making fit again. Contextually, the term ‘rehabilitation’ implies the process of helping an offender or a prisoner to readjust to his former roles and responsibilities and readapt to the society.

Murhula & Singh (2019) defines rehabilitation as the process of helping and allowing offenders to separate themselves from the factors that made them to offend in the first place. The idea of rehabilitation is to treat each of the major contributing factors in order to give offenders the ability to live a crime-free life after they are released from prison. Sechrest, White and Brown (1979) defined rehabilitation as any planned intervention that reduces an offender’s criminal activity, whether that reduction is informed by personality, behavior, abilities,

attitudes, values or other factors. Rehabilitation aims at ensuring that offenders stop their offending behavior. Rehabilitation involves preparing inmates to return to the society and equipping them with the necessary skills, competencies, support and networks that will help them to better adjust and reintegrate to work and community environments upon release.

The earliest proponents of Rehabilitations' School included John Howard (1726-1790) and Samuel Romilly (1757-1818). Alexander Maconochie an Australian and John Augustus an American, all, in their writings, made a penological history by developing parole and probation as a reformative treatment device which emphasized reform and correction of the prison inmates rather than punishment (Iginovia et al., 2002). They believed that rehabilitation is a noble goal of punishment by the state that seeks to help the offender become a productive, noncriminal member of society.

The concept of prison (institutional) rehabilitation followed emergence of the modern prison (Pollock 2010, Rubin 2001, Schneider 1979, Rothman 1971), which in turn can be traced to the Penitentiary Act (1779) in Britain. This notable Act introduced a policy of state prisons in Britain for the first time and recommended imprisonment as an alternative sentence to death or transportation to Australia or various geographical regions. During the same decade, prototype of modern prison was being built in Philadelphia, America (1790) by Pennsylvania Prison Society (or more specifically Philadelphia Society for Alleviating the

Miseries of Public Prisons,) who wanted a humane treatment of offenders; and who believed that labor, reading scriptures and repenting would enhance redemption of prisoners. The Pennsylvania initiative was followed year later by Auburn System in New York around 1830s in which prisoners worked during the day in groups and returned to solitary confinement at night, and silence was enforced at all times; a system which was widely adopted in America.

The philosophy underlying imprisonment in Britain and USA underwent through a transformation in the first half of 1800s to incorporate redemption and changing inmates to become better people (Pollock 2010, Conley 1992). The key driving force was the conviction that offenders can be changed to become better people (Hirsch 1987). By the mid. 1800s a number of countries in Europe had initiated experiments to allow prisoners to choose trades in which they could undertake training while in prison. Among the Congresses that enhanced the debate on crime, punishment and rehabilitation included USA Prison Congress of 1870 in Cincinnati (USA), and the International Prison Commission in 1872 in London, Britain.

The USA Prison Congress of 1870 in Cincinnati (USA) laid out the principles of correction that encompassed the ideals and expectations of the present prison rehabilitation. During this Congress, the USA National Prison Association (NPA) was established to address issues of penal reforms. The principles adopted included recommendations that, 1) the penal system should be based on

reformation, not suffering, and prisoners should be educated to be free, industrious citizens able to function in society, 2) good conduct should be rewarded, 3) sentencing should include the ability of the prisoners to earn their freedom early through hard work and good behavior, 4) prisoners should recognize that they can change their lives, and 5) citizens should understand that society is responsible for the conditions that lead to crime. By 1876 under the guidance of Zebulon Brockway, Elmira Reformatory in New York adopted education, vocational training and reduced imprisonment to promote rehabilitation. Inmates who performed well in academics and moral subjects accumulated points, which were used to reward them with early release.

Running parallel to penal reforms in Britain and America were reforms initiated in 1872 by the International Prison Commission (IPC), which emphasized better management of the prisons, treatment and rehabilitation of offenders. IPC was transformed later to International Penal and Penitentiary Commission (IPPC), which was subsequently absorbed by the United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime (UNODC) in 1955, which continued to the present with five (5) year conferences and development of standards for treatment of offenders, rehabilitation practices and management of the correction institutions. The first conference in 1872 addressed the development of progressive methods of preventing crime and treating offenders, appropriate administration of prisons, mechanisms to reduce cruel treatment of offenders, rehabilitation of offenders,

treatment of juvenile offenders, and extradition treaties among others. This notable conference also became the beginning of a long series of conferences on crime, punishment and rehabilitation. Between 1920 and 1945 was affiliated with the League of Nations. Part of the progress include drafting of the Standard Minimum Rules for Treatment of Prisoners in 1929 and adopted in 1934 by the Assembly of the League of Nations. The standards were originally intended to define minimum rights of a person deprived liberty by judicial authorities (UNODC 2020, Kraiem 1978).

Although the process oscillated between strict punishment and rehabilitation at various times, early 1900s represented considerable progress towards prison reforms and rehabilitation of offenders. It included introduction of the Probation of Offenders Act (1907) in Britain to address in part increasing prison population, and in part to provide a mechanism for transition back to community life. In addition, Borstal system was also introduced in Britain in 1902, and formalized in the Prevention of Crime Act, (1908) to separate youths from older offenders in adult prisons. The period between 1930 and 1960 witnessed what came to be called offender rehabilitation model; which proceeded with diagnosing the cause of criminal behavior by offenders carried-out by qualified personnel. After the diagnosis a treatment (rehabilitation plan) was prescribed to change the individual, and subsequently to determine the response of the offender; responsive offender was considered rehabilitated and would be recommended for release. The process

was based on “rehabilitative ideal,” a correctional philosophy deeply rooted in the idea that prison inmates could be reformed and returned to the free world as law-abiding citizens. Group therapy, counseling, and behavior modification were part of the approaches to rehabilitation.

However, between 1970s and 1990s, pessimism surrounded rehabilitation, particularly in USA with studies appearing to report that nothing worked. In an incisive study that became influential, Martinson (1974) appeared to report that nothing worked in offender rehabilitation or no evidence of impact to recidivism. Skepticism of the ability of prisons to rehabilitate offenders by Martinson was based on evaluation of 231 studies carried-out in USA between 1945 to 1967. The conclusion by Martinson appeared to undermine the conviction that rehabilitation would lead to cessation of crime tendencies and reduce recidivism. In a subsequent study, but which was less influential, Martinson was more optimistic that some aspects of offender rehabilitation worked. However, it subsequently became clear that large part of acceptance of nothing worked included discontent on sentencing of offenders, other aspects of treatment of offenders in prison and ideological inclinations (Cullen 2013, Sarre 2001).

Although a number of other studies appeared to report the similar observations to nothing worked (Farabee 2005), part of the literature came to conclude that Martinson largely misinterpreted that there was need to de-emphasize rehabilitation of offenders (Sarre 2001). Furthermore, subsequent studies provided

evidence demonstrating that offender rehabilitation worked, changed offenders and reduced recidivism, depending on the methods and procedures used; a shift from nothing works to what works; optimism on effectiveness of offender (Cullen and Gilbert 1982). Indeed, a survey of over 200 studies on rehabilitation conducted from 1981-1987, many of which used data that were more reliable than those of 1970s concluded that offender rehabilitation worked (Gendreau and Ross 1987). More specifically, studies have reported that 30% to 40% of rehabilitation have been effective in some areas (or regions) and others have maintained that offender rehabilitation has been effective subject to the nature of the interventions and the cooperation of the inmates (PRI 2018, Duwe 2017, Day et al 2017, Cullen 2013, Craig et al 2013, Griffiths 2007, Sarre 2001, Rubin 2001).

From the year 2000, UN has developed a number of conventions (or protocols) in relation to treatment of offenders, rehabilitation and management of prison. Key initiatives include: 1) the UN Introductory Handbook on the Prevention of Recidivism and the Social Reintegration of Offenders (2018), 2) The United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners (UNSMRs 2015, the Nelson Mandela Rules); An updated blueprint for prison management in the 21st century, 3) the Roadmap for the Development of Prison-based Rehabilitation Programmes (2007), and 4) the Compendium of United Nations standards and norms in crime prevention and criminal justice (2006). The UNSMRs protocol has

influenced development of laws, policies and practices related to the treatment of prisoners and management of prison facilities (UNODC 2020, 2015, 2010).

2.5 Rehabilitation Outcomes and Reintegration

2.5.1 Definition and Assessment Procedures

Inmate rehabilitation outcomes refer to changes of inmates toward desistance, crime free livelihoods and reintegration to the community environment. Indicators of positive rehabilitation outcomes include one or combination of the following; compliance to institutional rules (or infractions); compliance to rehabilitation plan, exposure and response to rehabilitation interventions, engagement on productive activities; vocation skills acquired, career or occupational development; access to apprenticeship opportunities, sanctions and rewards, employment experience (employability) including ability, access and confidence to secure employment, and after release plans, early release as a result of outstanding performance (good conduct credit for accelerated release, GCCAR), and the rate of recidivism (Clarke 2019, Yukhnenko et al 2019 UNODC 2018, UNODC 2017, Duwe 2017, Durose et al 2014, Farabee et al 2007, Hayes & Blunt 2011, Mellow in & Dickinson 2006). The outcome in each of these components may be negative, severely inadequate, inadequate, adequate, improved readiness, and post-release plans including sustained lawful livelihoods. It is expected as maintained by Tumin (1996) that rehabilitation of inmates will have a positive outcome of enabling them to desist crime and to be productive citizens. Tumin observed that majority of prisoners

were young, uneducated and in most cases had committed minor offences; and therefore institutional rehabilitation can prepare them for release and ensure that they would avoid relapses and/or reconvictions.

In the practice of the correction institutions, three (3) procedures have been used to assess rehabilitation outcomes; namely 1) inmate classification and assessment, 2) inmate prerelease rehabilitation assessment, which was adopted in this study, and 3) post-release rehabilitation assessment, which include sustained lawful livelihoods, reintegration to the community or rate of recidivism.

2.1.2. Inmate Classification and Assessment

Rehabilitation outcomes has been addressed through classification and assessment of offenders (inmates); one of the oldest and long standing procedures. It has developed into a mandatory process of collecting information about inmates and analyzing to determine appropriate (relevant or suitable) custody, treatment, and even occupational assignment, as well as needs and risks that should be addressed (Fox 1992, Gendreau and Ross 1987, Brennan 1987). Indeed, classification of inmates has evolved from a simple process of categorization of (distinguishing and separating) offenders based on the type of offences, severity, length of sentence and basic characteristics (i.e. gender, age and occupation) to complex indicators directed to a range of issues.

Although there were prior practices of categorizations, Howard in Britain called in 1777 for official categorization and separation of offenders by gender, age and severity of their offence (Stinchcomb & Fox 1999). By mid 1800s, separation of young and older offenders became a common norm and widely adopted (Alarid & Reichel 2008). By the last quarter of 1800s, in addition to basic categorization,

Elmira Reformatory in USA maintained a three-grade system where reoffenders were placed in grade three (3), new arrivals in grade two (2) and after which they would graduate to grade one (1) based on performance (Roth 2006, Johnson 1996). Inmate needed to be responsive, most compliant to the rules and productive to earn grade one (1) and they would also earn reduced sentence towards early release or parole based on accumulated points. Subsequently, inmates that were less responsive, less compliant to the rules and less productive would remain in or relegated back to grade three (3).

During the first quarter of 1900s, the prison inquiry commission (1917) in New Jersey (USA) recommended a more formal categorization of inmates. The recommendations of the commission marked a more formal adoption of inmate classification system. Adopted system was subsequently upgraded by the Wickersham Commission (1930/31) also, in USA; this was the most comprehensive assessment of criminal justice in USA at that time. The objective was to develop a classification system that would support administration of inmates and to support rehabilitation; particularly progressive treatment of

offenders. In 1938, a handbook on categorization of inmates was developed by a classification committee of the American Prison Association (Stinchcomb & Fox 1999), which was published in 1947 and widely used to improve administration and rehabilitation of inmates. After World War II most institutions adopted categorization system of inmates published by classification committee (Roth 2006, Fox 1992). During the same period, Britain adopted the Prison Act of 1952, which incorporated substantial procedures and rules for the classification of inmates.

The age of the medical model of the offender rehabilitation (1930s to 1960s) witnessed emergence of two broad approaches; one based on administration of inmates and the other based on rehabilitation (Austin & Hardyman 2004, MacKenzie 1984, Fox 1999). The administration model emphasized the type of offences, severity, sentences, basic characteristics and aspects related to consistency, equitability, distribution of resources, and fairness in the treatment of inmates. On the other hand, the classification based on rehabilitation emphasized intervention outcomes, placement of inmates on treatment, background characteristics, needs and risks that would need to be taken into account during treatment (Brennan 1987, MacKenzie 1984). The medical model of the offender rehabilitation necessitated diagnostic approach with a view to identify problems of offenders and to prescribe appropriate treatment to address their individual needs.

However, both approaches were characterized by lack of reliability, i.e. lack of ability to reproduce the same categorization and by extension lack of ability to standardize categorization of the inmates and resulting responses. By 1970s, initiatives were undertaken to enhance reliability and categorization of the inmates, delivery of services, responses and outcomes. A number of risk assessment and prisoner treatment systems were initiated between 1980s and 1990s largely because of concerns on public safety and the need to improve targeting of the rehabilitation services.

Based on these developments, ideally classification and assessment of offenders are supposed to be carried-out routinely at various stages of criminal justice process with a view to support administrative and rehabilitation functions including custody classifications, delivery of administration services, development and delivery of rehabilitation services, levels of supervision, early release, pre-trial release, revocation of probation or parole, and so on. Indeed, Risk and Need Assessment (RNA) has been considered a necessary process in the journey of the inmates from admission to the correction institutions, to classification; design, development and implementation of rehabilitation plans; through to pre- and post-release assessments (Andrews and Bonta 1998, Gendreau 1996, Champion 1994, Feldman & Huber 1975).

In addition to claims of inadequate rehabilitation, there have been issues related to inability to assess accurately risks and needs of the inmates, inability to match

those risks and needs with the rehabilitation plan, inadequate implementation of the rehabilitation plan, limited (minimal) preparation, inadequate assistance and limited resources (Farabee et al 2007, Andrews and Bonta 1998, Gendreau 1996). Based on a review of large number of studies in USA, it was concluded that inadequate completion of intervention measures that included life skills, vocation skills, occupation skills and employability, community resources, housing, and education among others, was associated with increased risks towards reoffending, inadequate reintegration to the community, as well as limited engagement in lawful social and economic endeavors (Mellow & Dickinson, 2006).

2.5.3 Prerelease Rehabilitation Assessment

Pre-release response of the inmates to rehabilitation and assessment have been considered to be important; particularly in terms of the capability to predict post-release participation in social and economic endeavors, reintegration to the community and the rate of re-offending (UNODC 2018, PRI 2018, UNODC 2017, Duwe 2017, Farabee et al 2007, Bales et al 2014, Smith and Hopkins 2013). A number of studies have reported a relation between in-prison infractions, post-release reoffending and limited reintegration to the community (Duwe 2017, Clark et al 2018, Bales et al 2014, Smith and Hopkins 2013). In this respect, Inmate Prerelease Assessment (IPASS) was developed specifically as a post-release risk measure for the institutional inmates (Farabee et al 2007) in which the objective

has been to predict post-release risks towards reoffending, reintegration to the community and lawful social-economic participation.

A longitudinal study covering four (4) life course phases reported that, inmates that had limited socio-economic background, low education and low response to rehabilitation were susceptible to reoffending risks and limited reintegration to the community (Smith and Hopkins 2013). In addition, studies have emphasized that prerelease preparedness (or experience) has been a consistent indicator of post-release rate of re-offending (recidivism), sustained reintegration to the community and lawful social-economic engagement (Doekhie, et al 2017, James 2015, Finn 1998, Feldman & Huber 1975). British reports for example indicated that certainty of employment upon release from prison reduced the risk of re-offending by 50% and failure to secure employment increased risk of re-offending by similar proportion (HOC 2004, SEU 2002).

These studies also emphasized the importance of early assessment of needs and risks including pre-release response of the inmates to rehabilitation with a view that such measures would predict post-release challenges including reoffending (recidivism), reintegration to the community and lawful participation in social-economic engagement. In other provisions there has been even a phase of Inmate Prerelease Centre, IPC (Botello 2017, Mellow & Dickinson 2006) designed to support preparation towards release and assessment of the readiness.

Reports have maintained a view that prison-based rehabilitations based on adequate diagnosis, relevant characteristics and situation of the inmates have tended to be most effective. Accordingly, it has been recommended that in order to achieve required effectiveness, assessment would need to be carried-out at the admission to serve as the basis for a comprehensive rehabilitation intervention plan (UNODC 2017, Duwe 2017, Doekhie, et al 2017, Farabee et al 2007, HOC 2004). The revised UN minimum rules (2015), emphasizes that prison administrations need to classify prisoners as soon as possible upon admission and subsequently prepare sentence (rehabilitation) plan for each inmate matching their backgrounds and circumstances (UNSMRs 2015) for the purposes of sustainable interventions, delivery of services to prisoners and to take into account diversity of risks and needs among the prison population (UNODC 2018, PRI 2018, Duwe 2017, Doekhie, et al 2017)

According to UNODC (2018) assessment may be conducted at various stages of imprisonment and rehabilitation including: a) at the time of sentencing; (b) at the beginning of the supervision (c) at the time of significant changes in the rehabilitation, and (d) at key phases of the rehabilitation process including preparation for release or early release (UNODC 2018). Available evidence indicates that accumulated or overlapping risk factors increase the likelihood of crime tendencies. Accordingly, among the aspects that will need to be assessed at various stages of imprisonment and rehabilitation include basic skills, education,

work experience and risk factors; defined as prior factors that increase the probability (risk) of reoffending (UNODC 2018).

A study of the offender journey from admission to the institution and to reintegration to the community in Britain indicated that by 2004 one in every four prisoners had prospect of immediate employment upon release (HOC 2004). More specifically, 24% were assured of employment upon release and 6% were returning to education institutions. The study also indicated that, 72% of the inmates maintained a view that rehabilitation measures were not adequate to enhance their ability to stop committing a crime, particularly after release, 67.2% did not consider that they were assisted to lead a law-abiding life after their release to the community while 61.4% maintained a view that they were not encouraged during their imprisonment to think or to plan for their release. However, a considerable proportion (52.7%) reported that the institutional rehabilitation provided them with a “chance to change” (HOC 2004).

Based on these and similar observations, Britain developed and maintained an instrument (System) for assessment of offenders used to identify their characteristics i.e. age, family background, education, vocational skills and occupation as well as risks towards reoffending including poverty, lack of accommodation, substance misuse and attitudinal difficulties. The objective has been to develop rehabilitation plans for the inmates based on appropriate intervention, and to reduce relapse risks. Further, in 2004 Britain established an

integrated National Offender Management Service (NOMS) with a mandate to put in place measures to reduce re-offending and to provide end-to-end, i.e. from admission to reintegration, management of offenders (HOC 2004).

According to Gideon & Sung (2011), a rehabilitative approach should be implemented in corrections with a strong focus on the point of an inmate's entry and exit from rehabilitation programs. As observed in a juvenile inmates study by Altschuler and Bilchik (2014), there are three overlapping stages to a successful reintegration and reentry: the immediate point of admission into the facility; the transitioning from prison settings and reintegration into community and remaining in the community. These three phases represents the most effective rehabilitative plan for all inmates in that rehabilitation should begin once the inmate enters prisons and should continue until the successful reintegration of the inmate within the community (Altschuler & Bilchik, 2014). The rehabilitation aspect of sentencing is based on being able to predict future needs of the offender, not on the gravity of the current offense. For example, if a judge sentences a person convicted of a felony to a community-based program, the judge's actions reflect his or her belief that, the offender can be treated successfully and presents no future threat to society (Siegel & Bartollas, 2011).

2.5.4 Post-Release Rehabilitation Assessment

In conventional practice, post-release assessment involves a review and addressing of issues that include the nature of the rehabilitation plan, reentry to the community, ability to secure and to maintain employment, career /occupational development, engagement on productive activities, sustainability of the release and the nature of reoffending (recidivism). In principle, recidivism is one of the key aspects of rehabilitation and the key indicator of effective rehabilitation. Recidivism has been defined as a tendency of an offender to relapse into an unlawful activity thereby resulting to re-arrest, re-conviction and return to institutional custody. Others have emphasized the tendency of an offender to be re-arrested, re-convicted and returned to institutional custody (Duwe 2017, Bello 2017, Graham 2016, Smith 2015, Monnery & St-Etienne 2013, Schoema 2010).

Recidivism usually referred to as repeated offences after conviction, imprisonment or rehabilitation continues to be a major challenge in the prison systems; repeated offences, re-arrests and re-convictions contribute to increased prison population, overcrowding, depletion of resources and inadequacy of the infrastructure. More importantly, repeated re-arrests and re-convictions have continued to contribute to increased inability to address rehabilitation of inmates (NIJ, 2005; Urban Institute, 2003; Langan & Levin, 2002). Recidivism has been used as an indicator to measure rehabilitation outcomes. The level to which released inmates have been

rehabilitated and the role correctional programmes have played to reintegrate inmates to work and society.

Studies of recidivism in USA indicates that, 55% of those released from prison will either have been re-arrested or re-convicted within the first year of their release; 68% will have either been re-arrested or re-convicted within three years of their release; and over 77% will either have been re-arrested or re-convicted within five (5) years of their release (Clarke 2019, Alper et al 2018, Durose et al 2014, NIJ 2005, Urban Institute 2003, Langan and Levin, 2002). This regularity of post release relapse has remained consistent since early 1990s. Available data indicate that among 300,000 prisoners that were released in 1993, 67.5% were rearrested within three years (Langan and Levin, 2002). Among those rearrested in 1993, 46.9% were reconvicted for a new crime, and 51.8% were back to prison with a new sentence or for violation of their release.

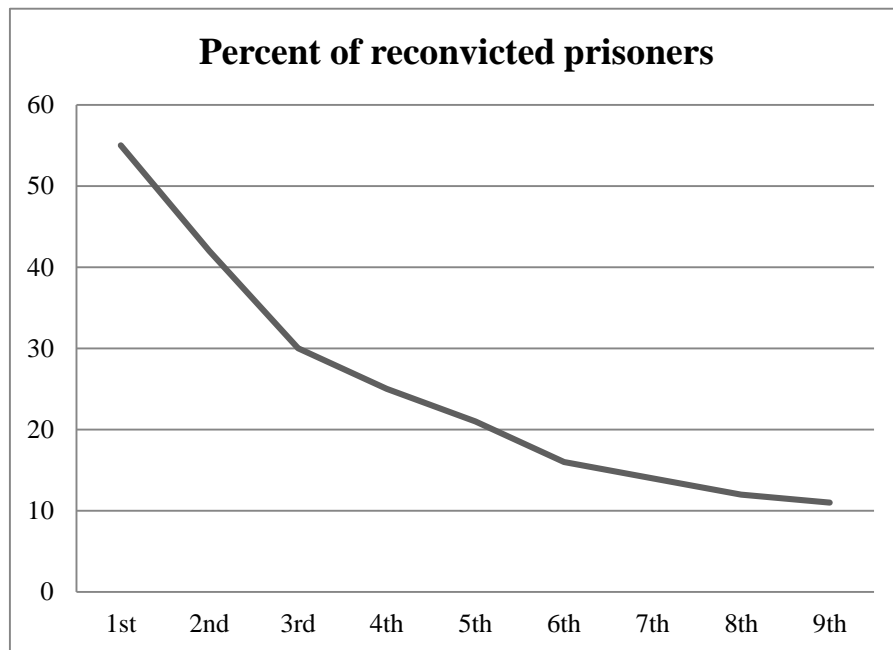


Figure 2. 1: Percentage of reconvicted prisoners

Source: (Mariel Alper, 2018)

Based on two (2) years reconviction, the rate of recidivism, globally by 2019, ranged from 20% in Norway, the lowest recidivism rates in the world, to 82% in some of the developing countries. While USA remained at 67.5%, Ireland stood at 62%, New Zealand 60%, France 55%, Chile 50%, Japan 43%, Australia 39%, Netherlands 38%, Germany 35%, Denmark 29%, and Norway 20% (Yukhnenko et al 2019, Yukhnenko and Sridhar 2019, Deady 2017, Fazel & Wolf 2015). It has been estimated the rate of recidivism in South Africa start from 55% in the 1st year of release to 77% in the 2nd year of release to 97% by the 5th year of release (Murhula & Singh 2019, Bello 2017, Schoema 2010). In principle, the regularity

of rehabilitation relapse in South Africa reflects regularity in most of the developing countries; particularly those in Sub Sahara Africa.

Recidivism continues to be a major problem in a number of ways including: 1) reflecting inadequacy (ineffectiveness) of institutional rehabilitation, 2) increasing crime, 3) increasing prison population, 4) exacerbating prison overcrowding, 5) increasing cost of prison maintenance, and 5) exacerbating instability in the families among others (Clarke 2019, Otu 2015, Lattimore & Baker1992). More importantly, repeated re-arrests and re-convictions have continued to contribute to increased inability to address rehabilitation of inmates (NIJ, 2005; Urban Institute, 2003; Langan & Levin, 2002). Accordingly, recidivism has been used as an indicator of the level to which inmates have been enabled to cope with lawful social and economic endeavors and to overcome crime risks. In view of the three procedures of assessment on the rehabilitation outcomes, we assessed in this study the prerelease rehabilitation responses which have also been demonstrated to predict post-release rehabilitation outcomes; including extent of reintegration and rate of reoffending (recidivism).

2.5.5 Rehabilitation Outcomes and Reintegration

Rehabilitation has been considered the world over as the ultimate goal of incarceration. Its main aim is to transform the offender from a criminal life to a law-abiding citizen through equipping them with the skills and competencies to enable them lead a sustainable livelihood upon release. The Kampala Declaration on prison conditions in Africa (1996), states that rehabilitation facilitates social reintegration, through allowing inmates access to education and skills training which in the end equip them for employment opportunities upon release. Prisons should be considered in the context of economic development, social and cultural values and social change. Emphasis should be placed on providing education; skills based training and a work programme that is in the interests of the rehabilitation of the offender while incorporating elements of self-sufficiency and sustainability of both the prison institutions and the detainees as a community.

Various reports have indicated the outcomes of rehabilitation falls in three categories namely, behavioural changes within the prison including reduced violence, protest and strikes, transformation of values to embrace rehabilitation programmes and development of competencies towards productive engagements in prison and post release engagement in productive and lawful activities as well as delayed or reduced recidivism (Mutui, 2017). Vigne *et al* (2009) reported that inmates who participated in programmes related to job training and education

were less likely to recidivate. Furthermore, Hall, (2015) & Hall *et al* (2000) indicated that offenders who participated in programmes that enhanced their level of education and vocational skills fared better in meeting their conditions of release and completing parole supervision than the offenders who never participated in these programmes.

Staurer, Smith and Tracy (2008) carried a study on the effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes in Ontario correctional facility in Canada, and found that rehabilitation helps inmates in avoiding committing crimes, thus, lowering recidivism. The study showed that there is a reduction of 13% in rearrests 21% reduction in reconvictions and 29% reduction in re-incarcerations among trained ex-inmates. However, they recommended that in order to achieve significant level of effectiveness then the training and rehabilitation programmes should be tailor-made to suit the needs of an individual inmate. For these outcomes to be achieved, rehabilitation staff needs to be properly selected, trained, supervised and resourced to deliver the highest-quality rehabilitation services to the most complex and challenging people (Dey, 2015).

In conformity with the definition of rehabilitation outcomes, available evidence indicates that 70% of inmates that received adequate and accredited certification through rehabilitation were able to secure employment on release (SEU 2002, Hiser 1981). In another study, participation in education rehabilitation reduced

reoffending by an average of 28% (Bozick et al 2018), In addition, a number of studies have reported that building employment experience and securing employment on release reduces the risk of recidivism (Bhuller et al 2018, Bales, Valentine & Redcross 2015). More specifically, a study in Norway reported that previously unemployed inmates had 34% greater participation in job training (employment experience) which resulted to 40% ability for employment within five years of training. Subsequently such work competencies reduced re-offending (re-conviction) by 50% because of ability to secure employment (Bhuller et al 2016).

In addition, a 5-year follow up study on measuring recidivism observed that 60 % of the juveniles who were employed upon release remained outside of the correctional system for over five years; which was also the duration of the study (Ballied at al 2002). Further, controlled studies have reported that the counselling component of rehabilitation reduces reconviction by an average of 14 per cent; through enhanced positive thoughts and adoption of social capital measures (SEU 2002). Other studies have indicated that the lower the institutional infractions the lower the rate of reoffending –recidivism (Cochran & Mears 2016).

A number of comprehensive reviews of research on the effectiveness of correctional treatment have found that, some treatment programs do have positive outcomes in improving the attitudes of offenders and in reducing recidivism (International Journal of Management, Social Sciences, Peace and

Conflict Studies, 2019, James & Glaze, 2006; Voorhis, Braswell & Lester, 2007). The challenge is to identify which program will work with what offenders in what setting. (Robison, 2008; Ward 2007; Lipsey & Cullen, 2007).

According to Naisoli (2013), offering effective vocational training and education to offenders' plays a major role in empowering them both socially and economically. Inmates develops sense of self-worth (self-esteem) and often takes pride in their work in that they are able to use the skills acquired while in prison to engage in gainful employment. Life skills programmes are also important for developing inmates' ability to function properly in the society. Some other studies have indicated that inmates who participates in vocational training are less likely to recidivate (Wilson et al, 2008).

On the other hand, some believe that rehabilitation does not work. Sir Martin Narey the former United Kingdom's prison boss indicated that prisoner rehabilitation does not work and should be scrapped off. He said, "A research to establish a casual link between rehabilitation and reduced reoffending is lacking and short courses cannot fix the problems caused by difficult childhoods. Instead the best the prison estate can offer prisoners is an environment where they are treated with decency and dignity". He stated further that descent prisons provides a foundation for prisoner self-growth while indecent unsafe prisons allows no such growth and further damage the character of prisoner (The Guardian,

October 29th 2019). Additionally, Mark Leech, the editor of prison oracle stated that expecting prisons to reform those thrown into them from high crime inner-city, housing estates, with their school exclusions, unemployment, poor opportunities, poor parenting and where gangs, guns, drugs, alcohol, violence and crime are embedded is an impossible task (The Guardian, October, 29th 2019). From these two statements, it is imperative to note that for goals of rehabilitation to be achieved, need assessment needs to be carried out on the institutional capacity to effectively carry out prisoner reforms.

2.6 Promising Rehabilitation Model

International law stipulates that imprisonment should not be limited to the deprivation of liberty but should include opportunities for offenders to obtain values, knowledge, skills and capacities that enable them to desist from crime tendencies, avoid crime risks and to participate in productive lawful social and economic endeavors. The Doha Declaration (2015) made commitment to institutional rehabilitation with emphasis on education, work, medical care, rehabilitation, social reintegration and the prevention of recidivism. This mandate calls for a search for, adoption and enhancement of appropriate institutional rehabilitation model.

A study by Rand Corporation (2013) reported that education correctional programmes enhanced desistance by 43% thereby improving return of the inmates to productive lawful work and community environment. Similarly, the same study reported that vocational skills development enhanced desistance by 28% through ability to secure employment. As a guide, approaches that have led to recidivism rate of below 40% based on two (2) years reconviction have been considered to be relatively effective and therefore promising. Such countries include Australia 39%, Netherlands 38% and Germany 35% (Yukhnenko and Sridhar 2019, Alper et al 2018, Fazel & Wolf 2015). In Germany and the Netherlands, the principal goal of incarceration is to enable ex-inmates to be better citizens upon release and therefore emphasis is placed on rehabilitation and resocialization rather than just punishment. Incarceration is used less frequently and for shorter periods. Sanctions such as fines, probation and community-service are used as alternatives to incarceration when possible, particularly for non-violent crimes. The conditions and practices in the correctional facilities are meant to resemble life in the community (Deady 2018, 2014).

In some countries of the world, rehabilitation of offenders is a priority and the efforts and approaches being applied seems to be bearing fruits. For instance, the Nordic approach to punishment, the setup of their prisons, and the public perception of the purpose of the penal system are fundamentally different from

most countries of the world. For example, when Norway implemented the prison model used in Denmark, Finland, and Sweden, the prison population dropped from 200 per 100,000 people in 1950 to 65 per 100,000 people in 2004 (Von Hofer, 2007).

Furthermore, policies of most of the countries that have successful rehabilitation outcomes advocates for fair justice and human containment of prison inmates. In Scandinavia for example, it is believed that the prison conditions should parallel real-world conditions as closely as possible (Pratt, 2008). The Finnish Department of Prison and Probation (2004) suggested that punishment is not the elimination of basic needs; it is simply the loss of liberty, demonstrating that the Finnish believe in “gentle justice” which focuses on decreased recidivism through rehabilitation of prison inmates (Ekunwe, Jones, & Mullin, 2010). Similarly, policy statements in the Netherlands are aimed at resocialization and reintegration of inmates (Schinkel, 2003). Overall, Nordic offenders are not stripped of their basic rights; their independence is restricted while they receive rehabilitation services to deter future criminal activity (Von Hofer & Marvin, 2001).

Similarly, approaches that have resulted to recidivism rate of less than 30% based on two (2) years reconviction have been considered to be even more effective and more promising. Such countries include Denmark 29%, Iceland 27%, Austria 26%, and Norway 20%. Nordic model has been considered one of the successful

incarceration and rehabilitation practices, particularly Norway with 20% rate of recidivism.

Correction institutions in Nordic countries are largely in two categories: closed and open prisons; representing relaxed rules and stepwise rehabilitation towards integration to work and community environment. Inmates would initially be placed in closed prisons and then, halfway to their sentences and depending on their responses, they are transferred to open prisons with a view to enhance rehabilitation and integration to work and community environment (Ward et al 2012, Baer & Ravneberg 2008; Pratt, 2008). The overall goal of the open prisons is to reduce the physical and social distance of the prison and outside world and usually characterized by substantially relaxed rules and wide range of rehabilitation options.

The penal philosophy in Norway is to enable inmates to acquire capacities that would enable them reduce crime risks and to enhance re-integration to social and economic endeavors (Deady 2018, 2014, Jacobson et al. 2017; UNODC 2015; Hans-Joerg 2012; Walmsley, 2016, 2015, 2013). Norway is characterized by low rates of crime and recidivism in the world, with institutional sentence not exceeding 21 years. Norway does not have life sentence and does not have death penalty. Out of the existing prison capacity of 4,092 in Norway, the prison population stands at an average of 3,933 inmates; in which only 6% are females and the rest 94% are males.

A joint study of recidivism within the Nordic Countries reported that, Norway had the lowest overall re-offending rate, among the Nordic countries (Botello 2017, Kristofferson 2010). The report indicated that in two (2) years of release only 20% of ex-inmates had returned to a new conviction that had to be served within the correctional services. The other Nordic countries displayed relapses ranging from 24% to 31%; attributed to external and extraneous circumstances. At that time, the incarceration rate and recidivism rate in Sweden was beginning to go beyond the Nordic range.

In principle, low rates of recidivism between 20% and 40% of re-convicted inmates has been attributed to a focus on prison rehabilitation programmes; as opposed to emphasis on punishment. More specifically, most studies have reported a substantial linkage between employment and recidivism; some indicating that a larger proportion of ex-inmates that secured employment sustained release and limited proportion experienced relapse (Whitten, 2012; Kowalski & Bellai, 2011). In addition, education has been shown to reduce the rate of recidivism by 43% particularly education programmes while in prison directed to cognitive ability, work skills.

Fundamentally, the success of the Nordic model is dependent upon the country's ability to secure potential employers. The Danish welfare state for instance, has effectively embedded policies that keep their prison model functional within the

surrounding community (Lacey, 2010). This program includes helping offenders locate and secure jobs within the public sector that will sustain them upon release. Consequently, these work programs are available for individuals who have demonstrated the ability to engage in gainful employment, while maintaining socially appropriate behaviors.

Furthermore, attitudes of staff, especially prison guards in Nordic countries directly influences the success of correctional rehabilitation programs and the successful reintegration of prisoners after their release (Kjelsberg, Skoglund, & Rustad, 2007). The formation of prison guards within a prison are analyzed carefully to maximize the success of the inmates, where prisons employ guards who vary in gender, age, and level of education (Pratt, 2008). Interestingly, working as a prison guard is a desirable vocation, which is very competitive and selective in Nordic countries (Pratt, 2008). This in turn contributes to the success stories of rehabilitation outcomes, when prison staff are well trained and enumerated then they have the capacity to rehabilitate inmates into law-abiding citizens.

Nevertheless, 48 to 86% of the studies that have been carried to analyze effectiveness of rehabilitation have reported it to be effective. However, some rehabilitation treatments or programmes are more effective than others. Psychological researchers emphasize the need for these treatments to follow some basic principles. First, treatment must address characteristics that can be

changed (dynamic factors) and that are directly associated with an individual's criminal behavior (criminogenic factors) (Mackenzie, 2001).

Trotter and Flynn (2015) reviewed literature reflected the view that one of the important factors in the effectiveness of interventions with women (and with men) relates to the way the interventions are delivered. Interventions are likely to be more effective if the instructors delivering them are supported in the development of their practical skills through training, supervision, coaching, program manuals and other methods. Worker skills, such as problem-solving skills and a “strengths” focus appear to be at least as important, if not more important, than the nature of the intervention and are a vital part of effective interventions with women (and men). From Trotter and Flynn's (2015) review, it can be concluded that rehabilitation interventions do indeed work and work best when delivered by skilled practitioners and specifically focused on the individual needs of the offenders.

2.6 Types, Practices and Usefulness of Prison Rehabilitation Programmes

Prison rehabilitation is the process of instilling knowledge, skills and attitudes for the purpose of reforming, resettling and reintegrating of an offender to fit back into the society upon discharge from prison. Rehabilitation is one of the core functions of the prison system. To realize this goal, prisoners must receive counseling and guidance along with training in some skill for gainful

employment upon release. The level of rehabilitation achieved in prison determines, to large extent, how well the inmate will adjust in society (Matakayia, Onyango, & Nyagol, 2017). In principle, these programmes are directed to supporting inmates to change their attitude towards crime and to equip them with necessary vocational and livelihood skills to facilitate their re-integration into society (Kenya Prisons Service, 2015, p. 16).

Accordingly, Kusada and Guxbane (2014), reports that rehabilitation encompasses various issues such as educational programmes, vocational training, recreational activities and psychosocial services. Rehabilitation tends to equip offenders with vocational skills and educational programmes thus improving their social relationships with the significant others including facilitating their socially acceptable character. This study aimed at examining the impacts of rehabilitation programmes and how they influences the lives of inmates upon release from prison, whether the skills acquired are sufficient for lawful sustainability.

UNODC (2017) indicated that rehabilitation covers a variety of issues including medical and psychological health, counselling and cognitive-behavioural programmes, however, more emphasis was put on education, vocational training and work. Education particularly the teaching of literacy and numeracy as the foundation upon which all personal change and development depends. Vocational training and work are very straightforward ways of engaging large number of

prison inmates in constructive activities fostering their employability upon release and hence their ability to successfully integrate into society (UNODC, 2017).

Giving prisoners opportunities to learn new skills and build work experience helps them to stay away from crime when they are released from prisons, thus contributing to the overall mission of prison administration to contribute to public safety. UNODC 2017, report indicated that, majority of prisoners have low levels of education and basic skills; and that improving these skills can have a positive impact on recidivism, social reintegration and employment outcomes. Most importantly, prison-based rehabilitation programmes therefore, helps to make communities safer and reduce the levels of dependency of ex-inmates. The provision of constructive activities in prisons assists in rendering life in prison more similar to life outside.

The provision of education, vocational training and work in prisons can support order, security and safety in prison institutions. For instance, when inmates engage in constructive activities they are less likely to become disaffected and cause problems. Work in particular, can produce financial and other resources for prisoners as well as prison institutions (UNODC, 2017). Vocational training or career technical educational programmes are designed to teach inmates about general employment skills or skills needed for specific professions or industries. This aims at reducing the risks of prisoners committing further offences by

teaching them marketable skills, which they can use to find and retain employments upon release.

Recognition of the importance and the impact of education on rehabilitation of prison inmates can be traced back to 1870 when the First National Correctional Congress adopted provision of education within Prison. Further, one hundred years after this remarkable initiative, 1970, legal provisions were made in State of New York (USA) requiring the Department of Correctional Services to assess a prisoner's "educational and vocational needs" and "provide each inmate with a programme of education which seems most likely to further the process of socialization and rehabilitation" (Fine et al., 2001). The objective was primarily "...to return the inmates to society with a more wholesome attitude toward living, with a desire to conduct themselves as good citizens, and with the skills and knowledge which would give them a reasonable chance to maintain themselves and their dependents through honest labour" (Fine et al., 2001).

Human Rights (HRTS) report reveal that Kenyan prisons provide various rehabilitation programmes with the intention of reforming inmates. They include religious programmes, academic programmes, vocational training, transcendental meditation, health and fitness, and counseling. The philosophy behind these rehabilitative programmes was based on the assumption that there are certain factors that contribute to criminality, for example, mental disorders or a history

of violence psychology. Additionally, the philosophy also acknowledges that offenders make their personal choices (which are motivated by other factors) to engage in crime.

Kusada and Gxubane (2014) assert that rehabilitation of offenders encompasses various activities such as formal educational programmes, vocational skills training, recreational activities and psychosocial services. More so, rehabilitation tends to equip inmates with vocational skills and educational programmes, thus improving their social relationships with their significant others, including facilitating for their socially responsible character. Various sources have reported that education programmes in prison reduce recidivism from 75% to 25%. Accordingly, in USA, over 84% of state prisons provide high school classes and 27% of state prisons provide college courses. In addition, virtually all federal prisons provide vocational training compared to only 44% of private prisons and 7% of jails. (Conti-Brown, 2017, Stephan, 2008).

The Kampala Declaration on Prison Conditions in Africa (1996) concurs that rehabilitation facilitates social reintegration through allowing offenders access to education and skills training, which equips them for employment opportunities upon release. Dissel (2008), however, indicates that in Central African Republic, Tanzania and Zimbabwe to mention a few, rehabilitation offices have a shortage of staff while the few available staff members lack proper training regarding the

rehabilitation and reintegration roles to implement for offenders, thus failing to create a conducive environment for rehabilitation.

2.6 Institutional Capacity to support Rehabilitation and Sustainability

The challenges of overpopulation, overcrowding and congestion have been attributed in part to increasing prison population including the pre-trial detainees whose cases have not been concluded (Walmsley, 2016, 2005, 2003; Coyle et al., 2016; World Prison Brief, 2016, 2017, 2018). According to Ramagaga (2011), overcrowding in prisons, is the major factor, which impedes effective rehabilitation, since there is no space available to conduct focus groups, role-play and counselling on one-to-one with the offenders. Furthermore, Stevens (2006) documented that overcrowding in prisons, gives the inmates opportunity to discuss the best methods to assassinate and destroy their victims, as they perceive prisons as the “school of crime”.

It is also imperative to note that many prisons in the world operate above 100% designed prison capacity. This is a major challenge for these prisons, as overcrowding becomes the reality where cells designed for a single inmate accommodates more than two persons, thus affecting the effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes. The same challenges have also been attributed in part to inadequate (or limited) prison facilities, space and infrastructure for rehabilitation personnel and financial resources (Walmsley, 2016, 2005, 2003;

Coyle et al., 2016; World Prison Brief, 2016, 2017, 2018). Omboto (2013) reported that another cause of prisons failure in rehabilitation rest on the people entrusted with the responsibility to reform the prisoners. It is important to appreciate that if the officers who come in contact with prisoners on a daily basis, both junior and senior officers are not people of integrity who are well educated and specifically trained on in depth understanding of human behaviour, human motivation, human worth and human destiny then it is impossible for them to rehabilitate the offenders.

The prison system in Kenya evolved from the colonial period where 30 prisons were established by 1911 and supported a prison population of approximately 4,700 by 1938, increased to about 20,000 by 1972, increased further to 29,000 by 1992 and then increased to over 41,000 by 1996 (Jacobson et al., 2017, Bernault, 2003). By 1972, the prison population rate was at 145 per 100,000 citizens.

The Ministry of Home Affairs adopted a series of reforms in 2003, which included establishment of new prisons and release of 20,000 prisoners, which led to some improvement in living conditions, food and medical care. The reforms also opened up the prisons to the media and to human rights organizations (Miring'u, 2011). In 2008, the government established the Madoka Commission, to report on the state of the prison system; which reported that despite the 2003

reforms the prisons were still overcrowded with degrading conditions and inadequate rehabilitation programmes (Kiplangat et al., 2015).

According to the international standards of prisons, Kenyan prisons have separate institutions for male and female offenders. Collaborating with various organizations and institutions have allowed the department to provide women's facilities and materials for specific needs of hygiene, for example, regular supply of water; electricity; and sanitary towels. Old, suffering (mentally ill), and pregnant inmates have separate wards. Sanitary towels and free toiletry as well as adequate food rations are provided to offenders. Children that accompany their mothers to prison are accommodated in separate dormitories; they benefit from day care institutions; have adequate water as well as electricity supplies (KPS, 2005; Mutui, 2017).

Besides inadequate infrastructure and overcrowding, the prison system in Kenya continue to be characterized by inadequate personnel, particularly professionals with competencies to address specific criminogenic needs of prisoners, counsellors, psychiatrists, and various technical skills. In Kenya, prior to 2003, most prisons were unable to discharge the rehabilitation function owing to among other things, a chronic shortage of equipment and raw materials for industries and farms. After 2003, inmate rehabilitation through vocational training has improved courtesy of donations of industrial equipment and raw materials from well-

wishers in most prisons. This can be attributed to the introduction of open door policy which highlighted problems faced by inmates. The open door policy has also opened prisons to external scrutiny against use of force to compel prisoners to work (KNCHR, 2005).

Additionally, some problems are associated with organizational components of criminal justice system that is the police, prosecution and the courts. These problems include; delayed police investigations, weak evidence, loss of police files, denial of bonds to petty offenders where these should have been granted and prolonged or postponed court mentions. With such challenges, prisons are forced to take care of remandees for long periods at higher costs at the expense of the meagre prisons financial allocations and limited space in inmate wards which has the consequent problem of overcrowding (Ministry of Home Affairs, 1998, Omboto 2010).

Another challenge affecting rehabilitation outcomes is inherent to prison organization itself. Prisons with limited infrastructural facilities such as transport and communication facilities, inmate training facilities in the workshops and industries and limited and or overcrowded staff and inmate housing (Muteti, 2008, Ministry of Home Affairs, 1998). The problem of staff shortage, poorly or inadequate trained staff and poorly enumerated staff have negative implications on the performance of prisons. In addition, inadequate financial resources will lead to

a scrappy rehabilitation programme far from being effective in reforming offenders (Muteti, 2008).

2.7 The Influence of inmate characteristics on Prison Rehabilitation Programmes

Successful rehabilitation of offenders requires effective interventions based on an understanding of the factors that place offenders at the risk of committing crimes and subsequently hindering them from successful reintegration back to the community upon release. Inmate characteristics play a major role in rehabilitation outcomes and reintegration to the community. Some of these characteristics are either dynamic or static and these includes; gender, age at the time of arrest, criminal history, social environment, peer group, low educational attainment and low skill levels.

According to Nelson Mandela Rules, prison based rehabilitation programmes are most effective when they are based on the full diagnostic and individual assessment of the offender and his or her situation. This assessment should be done as soon as the offenders are admitted to a prison institution hence serves as a basis for a comprehensive and individualized intervention plan. It is therefore, important to assess the offender's basic skills, education, and other factors associated with involvement in criminal acts in order to plan future interventions while in custody (UNODC, 2018, 2017). This is lacking in most prison institutions, for instance, in Kenya, inmates are placed into rehabilitation

programmes without prior assessments. This in turn affect their ability to cope and acquire skills and competencies that can help them lead lawful livelihoods upon release.

Majority of offenders are confronted by a myriad of social, economic and personal challenges that tend to become obstacles to their rehabilitation and social integration. Some of them have serious skill deficits making it difficult for them to compete and succeed in the community, coupled with poor interpersonal skills, low levels of literacy or innumeracy, poor cognitive or emotional functioning, lack of planning and financial management (UNODC, 2018). There is need therefore, to tailor-made rehabilitation programmes to suit every inmate needs, this will go a long way in ensuring that the skills and competencies that they have acquired can help them get gainful employment.

Various studies have reported that, certain characteristics are instrumental in the rehabilitation of the prison inmates, this includes; education and employment. Same studies have recommended an expansion of rehabilitation programmes to include; vocational rehabilitation, formal education, individual work programme, religious rehabilitation programmes, peer counseling services and medical care in response among others to the challenges related to recidivism (Cove & Bowes, 2015; Tripodi et al., 2010; Aghan, 2016; Omboto, 2013).

Reviews of the research literature found that 48 to 86 percent of the studies analyzing rehabilitation programmes report evidence of treatment effectiveness. The available evidence reveals that some treatment approaches are better than others with Psychological researchers emphasizing that effective treatment programmes must follow some basic principles. First, treatment must directly address characteristics that can be changed (dynamic factors) and that are directly associated with an individual's criminal behavior (criminogenic factors). Numerous risk factors are associated with criminal activity, such as age, gender, and early criminal involvement. In comparison with others, males who began criminal activities at a young age are at higher risk for future criminal activities (Mackenzie, 2001).

A Study by Doob and Cesarean (2004) and Varma (2000) revealed that prison institutions around the world prefer rehabilitating young offenders as compared to the adults because of less deterrence among young offenders. Inmates with higher level of education, cognitive stability, and higher economic status (if they are) benefit a lot from the rehabilitation programmes. Socio-economic background (religion, education, age, income, gender) of inmates informs the type of the rehabilitation programmes they engage in. On the other hand, prison work programmes allow inmates the opportunity of getting work after release. Besides, physical and mental wellness brings clarity and purpose to many inmates during their sentence. Majority of the inmates come from the

disadvantaged segments of the society. They include the minority young men below 40 years, drug and alcohol addicts, poorly educated, lack work experience or preparation for work, and are mentally and physically ill. It is fair to say that they are both socially and economically “marginalized”. In the US for example, more than 50% of the prison population are Hispanic or African-American.

Religious affiliation has been considered to contribute to rehabilitation outcomes through a number of mechanisms including; repentance, redemption, collective prayers and collective business activities which effectively constitute social capital, It has also been acknowledged that religion is one of the oldest and the most common form of rehabilitation in the contemporary correction institutions (Tukwariba 2020, Kittrell 2018, Alper & Durose 2018, Gerace & Day 2010, Giordano et al 2008, Fernander et al 2005, Johnson et al 1997).

In addition, religion has also been considered a very important characteristic in influencing inmate rehabilitation. In African societies, religion was regarded as one of the best ways of controlling criminal and deviant behavior. Durkheim (1961) viewed religion as unified system of beliefs and practices, which unite a community. In African traditional societies, religion created opportunities for strong community ties with less criminal activities (Ayuk, 2012).

A study conducted by Kayode and Alemika (1984) on the socio-economic demographic characteristics of prison inmates in Nigeria revealed that the majority of them were from lower socio-economic strata of the society, had low education attainments, and had lower income and occupations. Additionally, Wikoff et al., (2013) indicated that, there are risk factors that increase the likelihood of reoffending and return to prisons by ex-offenders. Some of the risk factors include; antisocial behavior, negative peer influence, socio economic status, criminal history and length of prior sentence. More so, most of the incarcerated inmates have limited education, job skills, vocational training and lacks employment (Alexander, 2012). Additionally, some suffer addiction, strained family relationships and large numbers come from impoverished communities (Brohomme et al., 2016). Most of the prison inmates have limited education, job skills, vocational training, and vulnerable employments (working poor) with strained family relationships (Alexander, 2012). Inadequacy of rehabilitation has partly been attributed to the inability to incorporate social vulnerability and characteristics of the inmates into rehabilitation process.

Additionally, unemployment and gender plays a great role in criminal activity. Fleisher (1966) and Gould *et al.* (1998), in their analysis of the impact of unemployment, income level and income disparity on crime, reported that a strong fall of the wages of women (without qualifications) increases the probability of committing crimes and property crimes. Impoverished women

were specifically criminalized as poor women. Women who live in poverty and have no access to productive resources were often charged with property offences and criminalized for activities regarded as necessary for their economic survival, including sex work.

Kenya National Bureau of Statistics in its 2017 Economic Survey revealed that there are approximately 10,644 women convicted in Kenyan prisons compared to the male prisoners whose population was about 72,000, women prisoners were considered the minority as far as the criminal justice system of Kenya is concerned. However, the offences committed by women prisoners were very different as compared by that of male prisoners, according to the just concluded audit of the Kenya's criminal justice system. The majority of men were imprisoned for property offences like offence against the state, burglary and theft as well as violent offences, for example, assault. Various crime reports demonstrate that the number of women involved in crimes that were once a specialty of men is increasing every year. The studies show that most of the female offenders are of low social status and are from poor backgrounds (WPB, 2017; KNCJ, 2017). Additionally, majority of the offenders come from broken families and are mainly illiterate. Actually, women who reside in urban centers with an abusive past are more likely to commit crime as compared to women from rural areas with no past traces of abuse in their lives. It is also important to

note that female crimes in Kenya are completely different to crime committed by their male counterparts.

In the past, some of the offences committed by female offenders included brewing and selling of illicit alcohol, hawking, littering, and loitering as well as assault among others (NCAJ, 2016, Agasa, 2015). Today, women are arrested for crimes like child neglect, homicide, economic fraud, drug and child trafficking, and prostitution. Despite the offences of their arrest, the destination of these female offenders is in the 18 women's prisons spread across the country. For instance, Shimon La Tewa and Lang'ata maximum-security women prisons accommodate a population of inmates of approximately 3500 and 2000 respectively (NCAJ, 2016).

According to Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2017), the composition of inmates in Kenya ranges from 18 to 35 years was at 75%. The majority of these inmates are petty offenders. The socio-economic status of the inmates played a crucial role in the composition of inmates. For instance, 80% of those from the low socio-economic class were in incarceration compared to their counterparts from higher socio-economic status.

Recently, there has been a rise on how monetary or financial bail adds to the unnecessary and disproportionate incarceration of people with no money for bail

(poor people). Generally referred to as ‘prisoners of poverty’ and the ‘criminalization of poverty’. A study conducted in the Republic of South Africa demonstrated that nearly 76% of detainees could not afford monetary bail of R 1,000 (USD \$72) or less. Additionally, in Sri Lanka, a woman who was accused for being in possession of drugs spent a whole year in prison because she could not pay the 15,000 Rupee (USD \$134) as a bail out (WPB, 2017, 2018). Similarly, in India, pre-trial detainees spent a long time in prison for they could not afford bail amounts.

From 1870s, education was adopted as a key mechanism to support rehabilitation outcomes. From 1934 education became part of the UN Minimum Rules for management of offenders in prison; which were re-adopted in 1957 and again in 2015. In addition, from the second half of 1900s education became a human right issue outside and inside correction institutions (UNSMRs 2015, UNODC 2015, 2010, 2007, UNHRC 1966, 1976, Conley 1992). Greater risks include illiteracy, social inadequacy and poverty. Accordingly, education constitutes part of the human capital to address among others illiteracy, social inadequacy, poverty and to develop capacities necessary to meet the needs for livelihoods; as well as to offset the risks including those related to offending and reoffending. Accordingly, the objective of delivering correctional education is not only because of human right to education but also to improve capacity for employment, well-being, citizenship and social cohesion (Vandala & Bendall

2019, Pike & Farley 2018, Rivera 2016, Bruyns & Nieuwenhuizen 2014, Hawley et al 2013, Lockwood et al.2012).

2.8 Challenges facing Prison Rehabilitation Programmes

Prison institutions in carrying out their mandate of rehabilitating inmates experience a number of challenges. Some of the challenges are; overcrowding and congestion, poor diet, poor sanitation, degrading clothing and beddings, lack of clean water, inadequate availability of resources and inadequate professional skills by prison officers among others (Omboto, 2010).

2.8.1 Overcrowding, Inadequate Resources and Infrastructure

Overcrowding is characterized by a prison institution holding more inmates than its original capacity. According to Amanda (2006), the population growth in prisons has been attributed to two factors namely; deterministic reason and policy driven reason. Deterministic reason believes that the growth in prison population is due to factors such as change in crime rates, demography, social economy, unemployment and poverty while policy driven includes the consequences of legislative measures such as criminal justice system and process. Judges are sending an increased number of offenders to prisons for longer periods and resorting to greater use of imprisonment as punishment (Amanda, 2006).

World Prison Brief (WPB) and International Centre for Prison Studies (ICPS) have adopted a percentage of occupancy, i.e. comparison of officially designated accommodation (capacity) and the actual inmates in a given facility in which the excess become a proxy index of overcrowding and progressive levels of severity. Despite inbuilt challenges on the use of the index, the prisons with occupancy rates exceeding 100% will certainly have a level of overcrowding; and that the higher the excess over 100 the greater the severity of the overcrowding. Using such occupancy index, a number of studies found out that, prisons in 60% out of the 191 UN member states were overcrowded by 2010. Regional data indicated that prisons in 72% of the countries in Africa, 70% of the countries in America, 68% of the countries in Asia, 56% of the countries in Oceania and 44% of the countries in Europe were overcrowded (Walmsley, 2013, Allen, 2010, Schmitt et al., 2010). More specifically, increased rate of prison population, related growth and overcrowding have been associated with ill health among the inmates, misconduct and related vulnerabilities, post-release recidivism and economic burden (Hans-Joerg, 2012, Walmsley, 2003, 2005; Gaes 1985). Most of the developing countries have been characterized by “severe chronic overcrowding”, a condition of increasing overcrowding and related vulnerabilities.

Such overcrowding and related vulnerabilities have led to violation of the UN Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (1984) and the International Covenant on Civil and Political

Rights (Act. 7) that prohibit cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment and punishment. Further, the same studies have reported the negative effects of the overcrowding in prisons to include severely reduced living space, attendant losses of privacy and human dignity; reduction of general services provided; particularly medical treatment, sanitary equipment, educational, training and rehabilitation services.

In general, rehabilitation services are usually compromised in proportion to the severity of overcrowding in prison facilities. According to Allen (2010), congestion in prisons has led to severe inadequacy of the rooms for prisoners to sleep; facilities to provide food; health care services; staff to support custody and to ensure safety; space or facilities to hold special types of inmates separately (i.e. women from men, juveniles from adults; untried from convicted); and resources to address rehabilitation services.

In 2009, the UN Special Rapporteur on Torture reported to the UN General Assembly that in many countries of the world, places of detention are constantly overcrowded, filthy and lacked the minimum facilities and/or standards necessary to allow for a dignified existence. Allen (2010) maintained that overcrowding (or congestion) in prisons was the most important reason for the failure of states to meet minimum standards of decency and humanity.

A study conducted by Musyoka (2013) in Naivasha Maximum security prison indicated that, increase in number of prisoners has resulted in space deficits negatively impacting on housing program space and maintenance cost hence overburdening the prison systems. This increase has negatively influenced the rehabilitation programmes being offered in prisons, this is because when the population increases there is need to expand the rehabilitation programmes to accommodate the increased numbers, which is not the case in most Kenyan prisons.

Another challenge to rehabilitation is inadequate professional personnel to handle rehabilitation programmes. According to Omboto (2013), capacity of prison officers to handle rehabilitation is another challenge. He reports that, rehabilitation rests with the people entrusted to reform the offenders. He observed that both junior and senior prison officers are not people of integrity and are not well educated and specifically trained to handle rehabilitation. Rehabilitation requires in-depth understanding of human behavior, human growth and human destiny. He contends that, the core function of reformation and rehabilitation requires the prison officers to accept that inmates are incarcerated as a punishment and not for punishment, hence the need for them to have the ability to facilitate their behavior and attitude change.

Chris Tapscott (2008) contends that most of African prisons are understaffed, with few personnel who have received inadequate training to aid them in understanding their role to facilitate inmates' rehabilitation and reintegration. In a research he carried out in South Africa, he observed that the reason why most of the African prisons have unprofessional work force is due to poor recruitment exercise, the requirement is basic legal and administrative skills. Rehabilitation work requires professionalism and hence calls for professions such as psychiatrist, psychologists, pastors, professional counselors, social workers, sociologists, criminologist and other social scientists who can influence positively in reforming inmates (Omboto, 2010). Amnesty International (2000) reported that Kenyan prisons failure to rehabilitate inmates could partly be attributed to the people entrusted with the responsibility to reform offenders who are highly untrained and understaffed. Majority of the warders lacks the necessary skills for corrections and penology.

Poor working conditions of the prison officers is another impediment to rehabilitation outcomes. Prison staff are housed in dilapidated structures with poor drainage and sanitation, unfavorable scheme of service that do not give clear paths for career progression; such as movement from one job group to the next, this is purely left to the mercy of senior prison officers (Omboto, 2010).

2.8.2 Pretrial Detention

In addition to overcrowding, another key challenge in the contemporary prisons has been the overuse of the pretrial detention; which has the fundamental effects of increasing prison population, overcrowding and limiting provisions for rehabilitation services (PRI, 2016; Walmsley, 2016; UNODC, 2015). It is important to note that, most of the countries had the largest number of pretrial detainees by 2016. For instance, Comoros (92%), Libya (87%), Liberia and Bolivia (both 83%), Democratic Republic of Congo (82%), Benin, Congo and Lebanon (all 75%), Monaco (73%), Paraguay (72.5%), Haiti (71%), Cameroon and Yemen (both 70%), Nigeria (69%), Bangladesh (68%), Philippines, Uruguay and Venezuela (all 67%), India and Pakistan (both 66%) (UNODC, 2015).

Other reports indicated that, between 2013 and 2015, the pretrial detainees ranged from 10% to 40% of the prison population in a majority (56%) of UN member countries; and in over 50% of the countries in Africa, Americas and South Central Asia had more than 40% of the prison populations in pretrial detention or custody (Walmsley, 2016). It was also reported that in 2016, the pretrial detainees stood at 3.2 million people; resulting to 31% of the sentenced inmates with wide variations in various regions and countries (PRI, 2017; Jacobson et al., 2017; UNODC, 2015). In 2017, the proportion of pretrial detainees stood at 85% in Lagos, 70% in entire Nigeria, 48% in Kenya, 40% in Brazil, 39% in Netherlands and Switzerland (PRI, 2017). The 2015 UN Doha

Declaration at the end of the 13th United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice called for ‘practical measures to reduce pre-trial detention and to improve access to legal aid to a possible extent (UNODC 2015, PRI, 2017, Jacobson *et al*, 2017).

2.9 Measures of Improving Rehabilitation Outcomes

Successful rehabilitation and reintegration of prison inmates needs a multi-agency approach where all players in the criminal justice system work together to enhance rehabilitation outcomes. Omboto (2013) contends that, to eliminate the problem of prison congestion various actors in the criminal justice system including the police, judiciary, prosecutors, office of the Attorney general, the children’s department and lawyers should come together to ensure that the justice process is just. When the criminal system is effective and devoid of malpractices such as corruption, proper investigation and prosecution among others, then most of the prison institutions will only hold the offenders who have been convicted fairly and this in itself is a precursor to effective rehabilitation outcomes.

2.9.1 Improving the Capacities and Welfare of Prison Staffs

Rehabilitation involves equipping inmates with the necessary skills and competencies to enable them lead a lawful livelihood upon release. It involves preparing inmates to return to the society and providing them with the personal and networking support to enable them adjust and reintegrate better to the society.

Rehabilitation also aims at changing the character and behavior of the prison inmates and equipping them with values and morals that ensures positive behavior and peaceful coexistence in the community.

For rehabilitation to be effective, the first responders who are the prison staff should adequately be equipped to be able reform the inmates' character and equip them with the necessary skills and competencies. It is worth noting that when the prison institutions were established, the responsibility of prison staff was to surveillance, prevent inmates from escaping from the custody and inflict pain through punishment. According to Omboto (2013), rehabilitation is quite involving and hence there is need to equip prison staff with the necessary skills through training and employing qualified personnel to handle rehabilitation of offenders. There should be a clear structure for career progression, human resource practice which demands for adherence to professional qualifications, work experience and productivity. Promotions and salary increments should be automatic as the length of service progresses, clean records maintained and relevant skills acquired (Omboto, 2013).

Additionally, there is need to improve the working and living conditions of prison warders, they should be provided with proper housing with reliable clean water and electricity, proper sanitation, regular supply of uniforms and good healthcare systems. It has been observed that prison officers who are frustrated, demotivated and demoralized tend to engage in vices such as corruption, smuggling of illicit

drugs and phones, mistreatment of inmates among others (Omboto, 2010, Aghan, 2016).

UNODC (2017) report indicates that for rehabilitation to be successful a comprehensive and a truly rehabilitative regime needs to be put in place. Meeting the basic needs of prisoners, providing decent living conditions, addressing healthcare needs, ensuring constructive relationship between prison staff and prisoners and ensuring the provision of post release support and supervision are fundamental requirements for successful rehabilitation.

2.9 2 Alternatives to imprisonment

Available data indicate that most countries worldwide continue to explore ways to enhance non-custodial penalties for minor/petty offenses; as a response to decongest prisons, solve related overcrowding, limited resources and infrastructure. A wide range of analyses indicates that a considerable proportion of the inmates are not a threat to society. For instance, a study in the US reported that up to 25% of the inmates in prisons should have been sentenced to non-custodial alternatives without being a risk to the public and/or increase in crime; and 14% could have been released within one year of imprisonment because they posed limited danger to the public. In Indonesia, the Law and Human Rights Ministry suggested the need of sentences that are non-custodial in

nature with restorative justice in dealing with drug and substance use (UNODC, 2011; UNHR, 1990; KPS, 2005).

Thailand amended their Criminal Code in 2016 to extend the maximum prison sentence eligible for probation between five to three years. A new law was adopted in Azerbaijan in 2017 to allow an opportunity for the establishment of electronic monitoring in prisons and pave way for the introduction of a probation service. Nepal introduced a Bill aimed at establishing community service in place of prison sentences to a period of six months. This was dependent on several factors among them the conduct and age of the offender, the gravity and nature of the offence, as well as the circumstances under conviction.

Recommendation 24 of the UN Crime Congress in 2015 emphasized the need for the use of other alternatives to pre-trial detention and electronic monitoring that are in tandem with both the necessity and proportionality principles. Furthermore, the circumstances of the individual defendant should form the basis on which the monetary bail is set. Recommendation 25, encouraged member states to formulate and apply the non-custodian sanctions with an aim of encouraging proportionate responses to offences, which corresponds to the individual's circumstances and the case at hand. It is important that alternative sanctions address the genesis of offending, consider the gender of the individual,

and applied with a view of replacing the use of prison, rather than widening the net of criminal justice control (UN, 2015).

A study by Omboto (2013), suggested the need to streamline criminal justice system to reduce overcrowding and improve rehabilitation to support inmates after serving their sentences. Some of the measures that have been suggested include alternatives to imprisonment such as Community Service Order (CSO), suspended sentence, and affordable fines to ensure that the many petty offenders do not congest prisons and remand homes. In order to pursue such goals, it will be necessary to improve education and training levels of the wardens. It will include a policy to ensure that the present and future prison officers are trained in relevant disciplines for their work (Omboto, 2013).

2.9.3 Community Service Systems

An innovative two-year pilot project was conducted by PRI in the year 2016 in Tanzania, Uganda, and Kenya with an aim of improving accessibility to justice. It targeted the establishment of the systems of community service as an alternative to incarceration or imprisonment. The project came up with the following resolutions; tangible and effective placements in community service that are needed to make sure that offenders are able to develop essential skills as far as employment at the end of their sanction is concerned. The implementation of the community service required sufficient numbers of personnel trained in that

area. However, in places where there was inadequate human resources, it was necessary to consider using alternative creative solutions. For instance, volunteers were used to support probation officers.

It was noted that, local leadership and community participation was important, especially in decision making on the type of public works needed to be completed by the offenders. This approach increased ownership and participation of the justice system by the public. Furthermore, feedback mechanisms of making sure that the outcome of the work done by community service were reported back to the courts as well as the community. This idea would later help the court in making informed decision on future cases. It was also necessary that stakeholders were persuaded, as far as the benefits of alternative imprisonment was concerned, using different approaches. For instance, they would be allowed to visit overcrowded prisons to provoke them change their perceptions.

The use of community service, as an alternative for imprisonment, was also encouraged by introduction of performance management system, for example, setting targets for individual magistrates to have completed a number of cases at a given time. Accurate, consistent and reliable methods of data collection were critical for effective implementation of community service. Finally, Systemic changes, for example, decriminalization of outdated legislation and misdemeanors were of substance.

In Kenya, the Community Service Order Act was enacted in 1998 to address challenges related to increased prison population; overcrowding and related poor prison conditions. The Act allowed courts to impose a community sentence on those who would have received a sentence of up to three years. Accordingly, by 2002, the prison population had fallen to around 35,000 (and stood at a rate of 108) before it began to increase rapidly to reach 52,000 at the rate of 150 by 2004 (Jacobson et al., 2017; Bernault, 2003). Subsequently, prisons in Kenya operated at over twice the capacity of around 27,000, a situation that has led to serious human rights violations concerning the inhuman and degrading treatment of prisoners.

2.10 Theoretical Perspectives

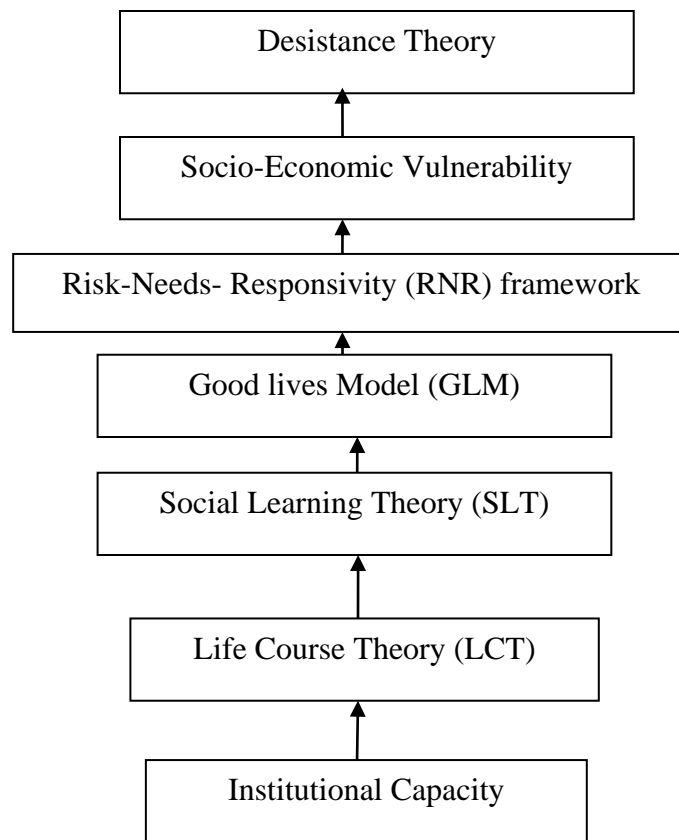
The primary objective of rehabilitation in correctional institutions is to enable inmates to restore (or develop) their capacities to desist from crime tendencies, to access lawful livelihoods and to reintegrate into the community as productive citizens (UNODC 2018, 2017, 2014, Pollock 2010, Robinson and Crow 2009, Rubin 201). It is also assumed that those capacities were eroded (or depleted) by circumstances that can be addressed (or changed) to restore eroded capacities.

Accordingly, theories that have been applied to the rehabilitation of prison inmates are those that can enable academic community to: 1) identify processes (or conditions) that either activate or increase tendency to crime; or access livelihoods through

unlawful methods, 2) identify processes (or conditions) that would bring about necessary capacities to offset the crime tendency, and 3) to predict rehabilitation outcome; particularly when those capacities have been restored or strengthened. Rehabilitation therefore requires administration of effective interventions; based on an understanding of factors (processes) that place (push) inmates at risk (vulnerability) of relapse to reoffending (UNODC 2018, 2014).

2.10.1 Overview of Theories in Inmate Rehabilitation

Part of the theories that have provided understanding of the foregoing issues and which have been applied to the rehabilitation of prison inmates include social learning theory (Bandura 1977), life course theory (LCT), good lives model (GLM) proposed in 2002, the risk-needs-responsivity (RNR) framework, Socio-Economic Vulnerability, desistance theory, and institutional capacity. It will be noted that these perspectives are interrelated and in some cases mutually reinforcing each other and build on the common principles of actuarial science. More specifically, these perspectives are interrelated hierarchically as indicated below with institutional capacity, life course and social learning perspectives providing the foundation to the contemporary rehabilitation theory.



(Source; Research, 2018)

Figure 2. 2: Evolution of Rehabilitation Theories

Institutional capacity refers to endowment of the correction institution to address desistance, lawful livelihoods and reintegration to the community environment, key capacities of the of the correction institution include legal framework, policy, financial resources, facilities, personnel, and intervention measures (UNODC 2018, 2017, 2010, Griffin & Hepburn 2013, Dissel 2012, Dissel 2008, Lattimore and Baker 1992). In the handbook of 2010 and the roadmap of 2017, UNODC outlined some of the key capacities to address desistance, lawful livelihoods and

reintegration to the community environment. More specifically, capacities related to ability of the institutions to assess the conditions of the inmates, develop interventions, deliver (implement) the interventions and to evaluate the outcomes have been emphasized in all the UN based documents. Indeed, the key documents maintain a view that institutional-based rehabilitation programmes will be most effective when they are based on a full diagnostic and individual assessment of the offender (UNODC 2018, 2017, 2010).

The life course theory (LCT) provides the foundation based on actuarial science, developmental needs and risks. Accordingly, LCT emphasizes the role (contribution or effects) of life histories (chronological age of an individual or family unit) on crime tendency and also on rehabilitation or restoration of capacities to offset the crime tendencies. It is considered that periods of life such as childhood, adolescence, middle age and old age influence certain events and risks towards crime and ability to desist crime. It includes therefore the way events, risks, have accumulated overtime to influence crime tendency and possibly restoration of capacities to offset the crime tendencies. Social learning theory emphasizes learning by imitation of other people and the observation that any institutional learning has been associated with reduction of reoffending (Harer 1995).

The key assumption in Good Lives Model (GLM) is that to some extent all human beings have similar basic needs and aspirations, therefore offenders seeks to achieve the primary human good by all means including less acceptable or lawful ways (Ward 2002). Accordingly, GLM is a theory of rehabilitation directed to supporting inmates to develop and to implement alternative life goals and plans; which also reduces risks of reoffending; based capacities (skills, knowledge, opportunities) that are either available or could be developed in order to accomplish their life goals while reducing risks at the same time. It has been considered that GLM is complementary to risk, need and responsivity framework.

2.10.2 Theories Adapted by the Study

In this study, we combined socio-economic vulnerability and desistance theory to analyze, explain and to predict rehabilitation outcomes. Of course, part of the rehabilitation outcomes depends on the various phases of the chronological age of a person and/or the family; and also some aspects of social learning. In addition, it will be noted that Risk-Need-Responsivity (RNR) is more of a general methodology to most critical risks and needs and therefore complementary to socio-economic vulnerability and desistance theory.

2.10.2.1 Risk-Need-Responsivity (RNR) Framework

The risk-needs-responsivity (RNR) framework is also a theory of the rehabilitation of inmates based on assessment of the greatest driver of risk to offending, need

and effective method to reduce the risk of reoffending. It was developed in 1980s based on actuarial risk assessment, actuarial science, and evidence (observations) of accumulated risk factors, in the course of the life of a person, that were reliably associated with a greater likelihood of crime tendencies or rehabilitation relapses (recidivism). RNR has become one of the widely used perspectives to design, implement and evaluate correctional (rehabilitation) interventions.

RNR framework consist of four (4) key phases in rehabilitation of inmates; namely 1) Risk assessment or determination of the level of risk, 2) Need assessment or determination of the key drivers of the risk that would need to be changed (targeted) during rehabilitation with a view to enhance desistance (cessation of crime tendencies), 3) Responsivity or determination of appropriate (relevant) method of intervention including matching correctional interventions with the characteristics of the inmates (offenders) and 4) to assess response, possible reduction of crime tendencies and integration to the community (UNODC 2018, Laws & Ward, 2011, Ward & Maruna 2007, Ward 2002). The four (4) phases can be summarized as follows:

Table 2.1: The Risk Need Responsivity Model

<p>1</p> <p>Risk ></p> <p>Determination of inmate risk levels</p>	<p>2</p> <p>Needs></p> <p>Determination of key factors (drivers) that enhance crime tendencies and would need to be e changed; (targeted) through correctional (rehabilitation) interventions, to reduce, reverse the risk</p>	<p>3</p> <p>Responsibility></p> <p>Determination of method and procedure of interventions; including matching correctional (rehabilitation) interventions with the characteristics of the inmates</p>	<p>4</p> <p>Assess response, possible reduction of crime tendencies (pre and post release indicators)</p>
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Accordingly, RNR approach has been used to identify risk factors associated with prerelease and post-release indicators of rehabilitation outcomes including sustained reintegration to the community, productive and lawful citizenship. In view of this approach, assessment is required in various phases including entry to the institution, prerelease assessment and post release assessment to evaluate risks and needs toward reduction of recidivism, and sustained productive and law abiding citizenship.

Among the key propositions include the view that limited or ineffective assessment, understanding, of the risks (vulnerabilities) will lead to inadequate

intervention and inadequate rehabilitation response; and the view that ineffective rehabilitation will lead to inability to break the cycle of release, re-arrest, re-conviction and return to prison.

Part of the common vulnerabilities (or risks) include age at the time of arrest, gender, criminal history, drug use, mental deficiency, limited skills (serious skills deficiency), low education and unemployment. Various sources indicate that most offenders are confronted by a range of personal, social, environmental and economic challenges that tend to become obstacles to their livelihoods and social integration. (UNODC 2018, 2014, Griffiths 2007, Borzycki and Baldry, 2003).

2.10.2.2 Socio-Economic Vulnerability

The theory of socio-economic vulnerability has been used to analyze, explain and to predict crime tendencies, rehabilitation of inmates and indicators of the rehabilitation outcomes (PRI 2018, Rabuy & Kopf 2015, Ashish 2014, Smith and Hopkins 2013, Freeman 1996; 1991; Grogger 1995). It consists of a theoretical view that certain components of socio economic characteristics, particularly poverty, education, unemployment, family background and inadequate social support promote crime tendencies, rehabilitation capabilities and responses as well as rehabilitation outcomes; including prerelease preparedness and post release reoffending, reconviction and return to prison (recidivism).

Poverty in particular as a component of socio-economic vulnerability, and inability to meet basic needs, has been associated with increase in crime, imprisonment and re-offending (Duque & McKnight 2019, Rabuy & Kopf 2015, Ashish 2014, Wacquant 2009). These studies observed that releasing inmates with severely limited socio-economic capacity to the community was a sure way to increase the risk to the public, reoffending and reconviction. In addition, poverty is most prevalent in virtually all developing countries including Kenya and has been reported to drive incidences of crime, imprisonment and re-offending.

More so, limited education has been reported to influence unemployment, which in turn has fundamental influence on poverty; and which subsequently drives crime, severely inadequate rehabilitation and post release re-arrest and reconviction (Ashish 2014, Phillips 1991, Howsen and Jarrell 1987, Sjoquist, 1973, Freeman 1996; 1991; Grogger, 1995). Part of the key socio-economic-environmental characteristics include on one end low education, competencies, and occupations and on the other end demand for citizens equipped with considerable technical skills and capabilities to sustain their livelihood (Awuor, 2015; Mauer, 2005; Sampson et al., 2002).

Kayode & Alemika (2011) reported in Nigeria that most of the prison inmates were from the lower socio-economic strata: low educational attainments, lower occupational and income categories; characteristics that were similar to the initial offenders and recidivists. These authors, however, maintained a view that

the explanation of the preponderance of lower socio-economic strata persons was not because of bio-psychological deficiencies but processes related to (i) more intense pressures for deviance from social, economic, and political deprivations; (ii) intense enforcement of law against those segments of the population and (iii) vulnerability to criminalization through legislative or judicial processes.

Orsagh and Witte (1981) reported that rehabilitation programmes were diverse but intended to enhance social and economic wellbeing of the inmates including the immediate needs such as job placement, supplementary income and the long-term needs that included general education and job training. These analysts argued that an increase in return to legitimate activities would reduce the amount of time intended for criminal activities. More specifically, Orsagh and Witte maintained a proposition that rehabilitation programmes, such as job training and income or wage subsidies, that increase legitimate income reduced crime and recidivism. The model also establishes two corollary results: (1) a rise in the rate of return to criminality will induce an increase in crime; and (2) an increase in the probability and or severity of legal sanctions will reduce criminal activities.

2.10.2.3 Desistance Theory

Desistance refers to a process in which offenders cease (desist) to engage in deviant or crime tendencies (behavior) and sustain crime-free livelihoods (UNODC 2018, 2014. Hearn 2010. Lamb and Sampson 2001, Shover 1996,

Sampson and Laub 1993). One of the principal aim of institutional rehabilitation is to achieve desistance; a process in which inmates cease (desist) to engage in relapses and deviant activities or crime tendencies.

Desistance approach assumes that sustained cessation of rehabilitation relapses, crime tendencies and reintegration of offenders depend largely on a combination of capacities including human and social capital; where human capital refers in part to the capacity of the individual to make changes and achieve goals; and social capital includes factors such as employment, supportive family and other relationships. In addition, Farrall (2002) argues that while human capital can be built through enhanced cognitive skills and increased employability, they cannot generate social capital that resides in the relationship through which humans achieve participation and inclusion in the society. The social capital is necessary to encourage desistance. Indeed, a number of factors have been associated with desistance from crime; including acquisition of new skills, full-time employment or significant life partnership. Programmes based on desistance theory emphasize long-term change over short-term control; focusing on supporting offenders to see themselves in a new and more positive light and with hope for the future (UNODC 2018, 2014).

In order to achieve desistance and required reintegration, and just as in the case of life course theory, RNR approach, the greatest set of risks and needs will need to be identified and addressed through relevant and adequate interventions including

enhanced human and social capital (i.e. education, apprenticeship, employment and family cohesion). Desistance is an interface between developing personal maturity, changing social bonds associated with certain life transitions, and the individual's subjective narrative constructions, which offenders build around these key events and changes (Maruna, 2001, Farrall 2002). Desistance therefore, is ceasing reoffending and refraining from further offending over an extended period (Maruna 2001, Farrall 2002, Maruna and Farrall 2004).

Another dimension of desistance concerns the relationship between the individual and society. Sampson and Laub (1993) developed the notion of a bond between an individual and society. The bond is made up of the extent to which an individual has emotional attachments to societal goals, is committed to achieving them through legitimate means, believes these goals to be worthy, and is able to involve themselves in the attainment of such goals. Sampson and Laub theorizes that engagement in offending is more likely when this bond is weakened or broken. In addition to this, they argue that at various points during the life-course, various formal and informal social institutions help to cement the bond between the individual and society. For example, for adolescents, school, the family and peer groups influence the nature of the bond between young people and their wider communities, whilst employment, marriage, and parenthood operate in a similar way for adults. Thus, avoidance of crime is often the result of relationships formed for reasons other than the control of crime. Sampson and Laub argue that changes

in the individual's relationship with these various institutions are an inevitable feature of modern life, and, as such, are key to understanding engagement in offending over the life-course. While much continuity in an individual's life can be observed, key events can trigger changes in an individual's bond to society, and hence, pattern of offending. Similarly, because many relationships endure over time, they can accumulate resources, which can help sustain conventional goals and conformity (e.g emotional support between marriage partners, Laub et al, 1998).

It will be noted that desistance theory and socio-economic perspective prescribes similar key interventions to institutional inmate rehabilitation include enhanced education (human capital), employment capability, experience, access and security, as well as social capital particularly to strengthen socio-economic capability of the family.

2.11 Conceptual Framework

Key variables in this study consisted of rehabilitation outcomes, institutional capacity, criminal justice processes, types of crime, individual characteristics and environmental characteristics. In order to generate a conceptual framework these variables (or processes) were re-arranged in terms of causal sequence based on time priority in order of occurrences.

Accordingly, the conceptual framework in Figure 2.3 below represents key variables of the study in terms of time sequence. The conceptual model is an illustration of key variables and their causal relations (Grant & Osanloo, 2014; Imenda, 2014). The study adopted the model to explain the influence of inmate characteristics and institutional capacity on prison rehabilitation programmes.

The dependent variable in this study was the rehabilitation programmes and outcomes, since its the issue that the researcher sought to identify processes that inhibit or improve rehabilitation hence it is the problem of the study (what needs to be done in order to improve rehabilitation outcomes).

In the conceptual framework are aspects or set of variables/factors expected to influence rehabilitation programmes and outcomes. Institutional capacity, criminal justice processes and prison conditions were considered as intervening variables. Inmate and environmental characteristics were considered as independent variables. The inmate characteristics which includes among others age, gender, religion, level of education, residence, income, occupation, family cohesion and socio-economic status. Most of the inmates are confronted by a range of social, personal and economic challenges that tends to be an impediment to a crime free lifestyle.

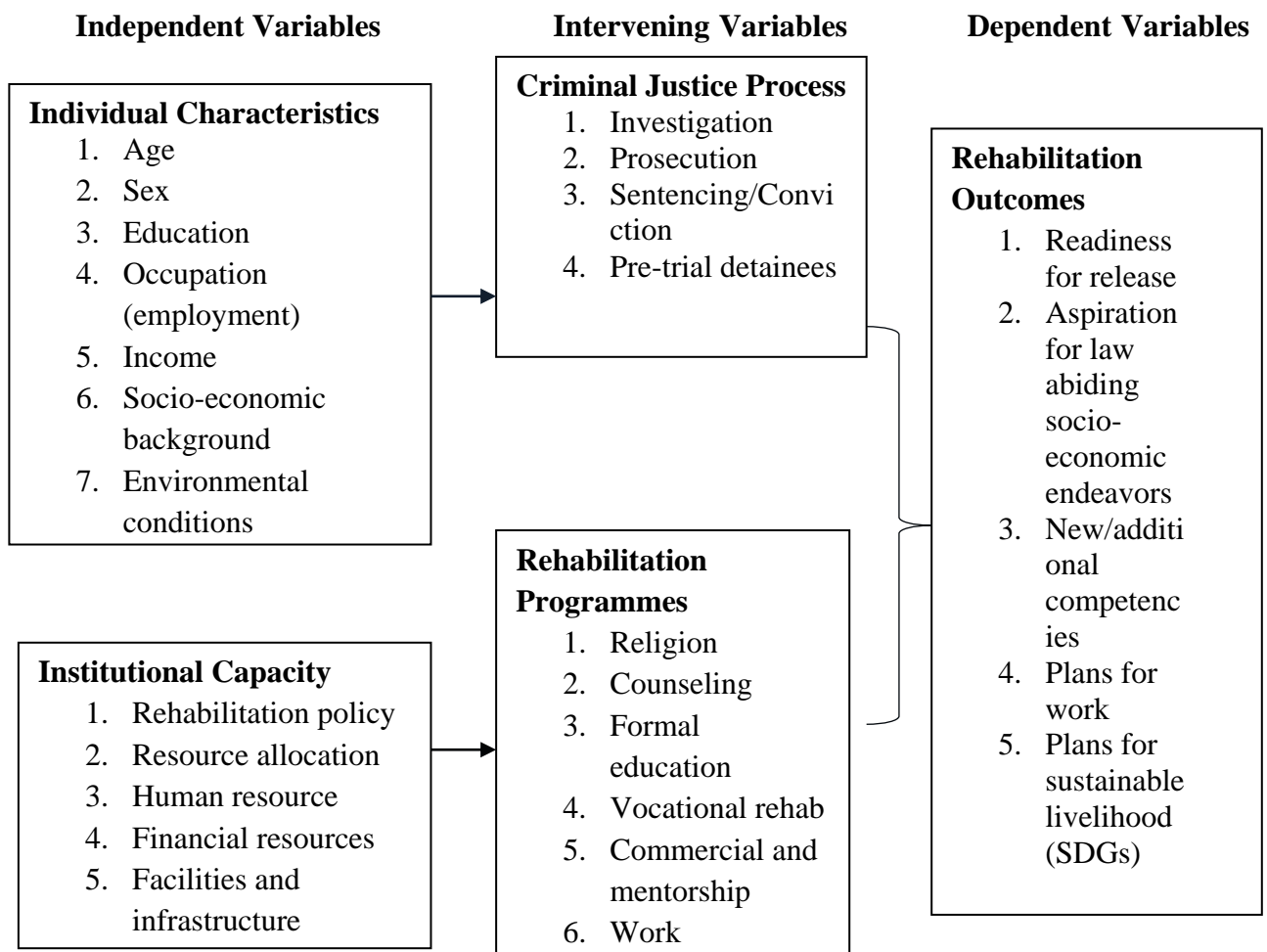


Figure 2. 3: Relationships between Independent and Dependent Variable

Source: (Researcher, 2019)

In this conceptual framework, rehabilitation outcomes is the dependent variable subject to procedures of the criminal justice process, institutional capacity and related challenges. The fundamental driving processes consists of the age, religious affiliation, socio-economic status, environmental conditions through various types of crimes.

In view of the causal relationship between the independent and dependent variable, the following hypotheses were adopted; most of the inmates will have limited education and vulnerable occupations, rehabilitation outcomes will be limited because of a number of circumstances, most of the rehabilitation practices would have greater participation and usefulness particularly where they respond to the needs of the inmates, institutional capacity will be associated with limited rehabilitation outcomes and characteristics of inmates will be associated with different rehabilitation outcomes.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology of the study data consisting of research design, location and site description, target population, unit of analysis, sample and sampling procedures, research instruments and methods of data collection, data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design; combined with interview of the key informants and focus group discussion (FGD).

Cross – sectional survey is one in which a set of questions, for a set of issues being examined, (usually imbedded in an instrument) are administered to a population (or a sample of the population) at one point in time (Groves, 2010; Kothari, 2004; Orodho, 2003; De Vaus, 2002). According to Lavrakas (2008), the design enables the researcher to make inferences of the studied population within the stated period. It is used to describe the rate (or frequency) of occurrences, prevailing conditions in a population, characteristics, preferences and views on necessary policy options. It is important to note that this design involves a trade-off of efficiency, reliability, accuracy and capability for generalization (Groves, 2010, Alreck & Settle, 2004, De Vaus, 2002). In contrast

to the other designs, cross-sectional survey can be considerably efficient (covering large area and population at a given time) and has potential for greater reliability, accuracy and capability for generalization.

3.3 Location and Site Description

The study was carried-out in the three selected prison institutions namely; Nairobi Industrial Area Medium Prison, Nairobi West GK Prison and Langata Women Prison. The Nairobi Industrial Area Prison was essentially a complex, with A) Remand and B) Medium Prison, located about 4 Kilometers from Nairobi City Central Business District (CBD). While the capacity of the Remand was 1,700, it actually housed over 2,750 pre-sentence (or pre-trial) detainees. The researcher's target however, was the Nairobi Medium Prison, which supported an average of 150 inmates serving their sentence and therefore was relevant (appropriate) for the study on rehabilitation of inmates and related challenges.

The Nairobi West Prison is located along Langata Road adjacent to the Wilson Airport Complex. Although the planned capacity for this modest prison was 400, it housed an average of 550 inmates, in which 250 were pre-sentence detainees 300 were inmates serving their sentences and therefore, appropriate for study on rehabilitation programmes and related challenges.

Langata Women Prison is a maximum-security facility located 10 Kilometers from Nairobi CBD and is in the southern outskirts of Nairobi. While the capacity for the institution was 500 inmates, Langata Women Prison housed an average of 650 inmates; in which an average of 300 comprised of pre-sentence detainees and 350 were serving their sentences. The inmates who had children under the age of four years were facilitated to stay with them in their cells since mothers have their own wing in the cells.

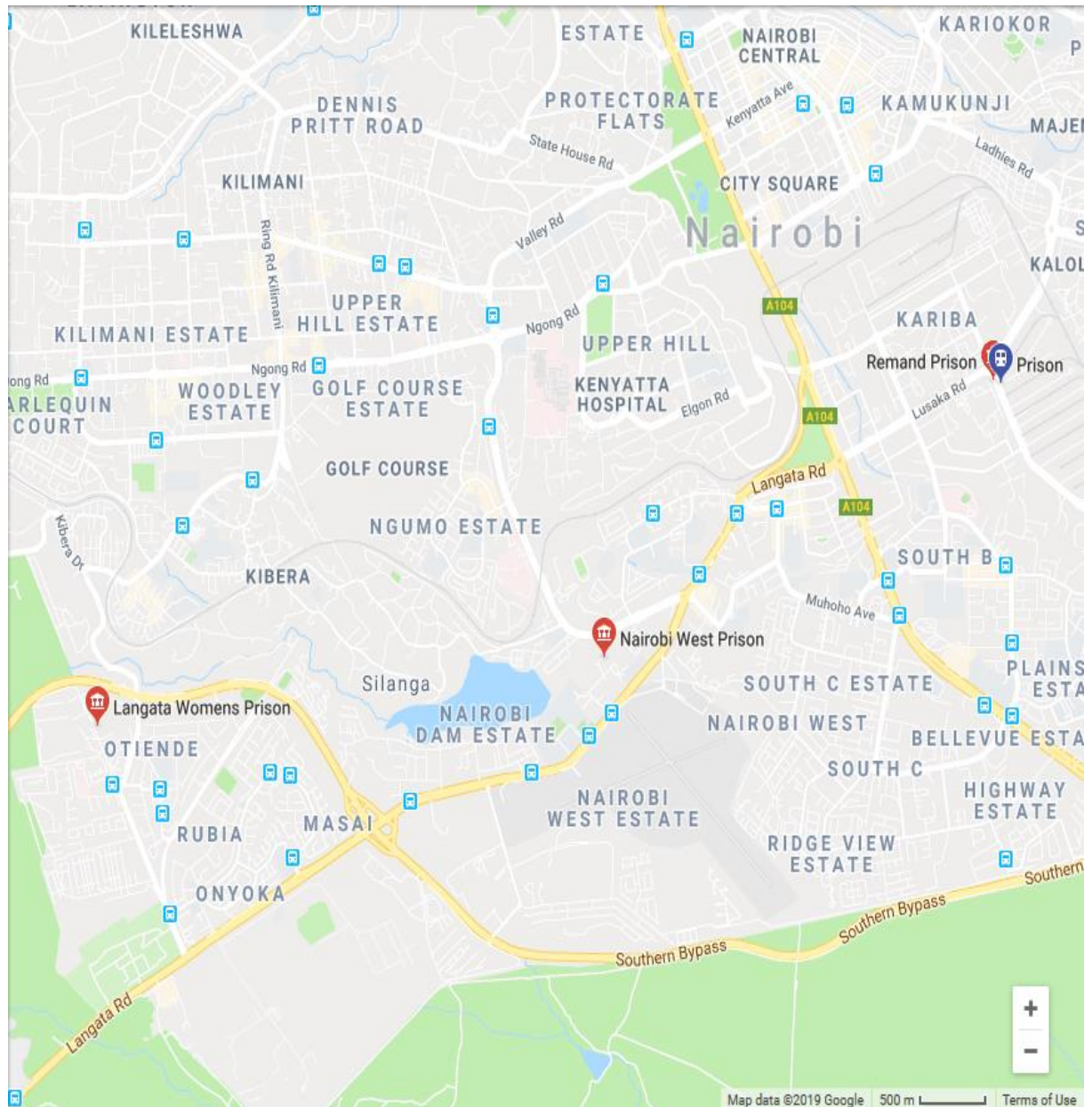


Figure 3. 1Map of Study Sites (Prison Locations)

In order to examine the objectives of the study; notably rehabilitation and related challenges, the entire target inmates were 800, in which 150 were serving their

sentences at the Nairobi Industrial Area Medium Prison, 300 were serving their sentences at the Nairobi West Prison and 350 were serving their sentences at the Langata Women Prison.

3.4 Population and Unit of Analysis

3.4.1 Target Population

The target population for the study was the entire inmates serving their sentences in Nairobi Industrial Area Medium Prison, Nairobi West Prison and Langata Women Prison all based in Nairobi County.

3.4.2 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis for the study was the individual inmates in Nairobi Industrial Area Medium Prison, Nairobi West GK Prison and Langata Women Prison both of which are in Nairobi County.

3.5 Sample Size Determination and Sampling Methods

3.5.1 Sample Size Determination

As indicated, the target inmates were 800, in which 150 were serving their sentences at the Nairobi Industrial Area (Medium) prison, 300 were serving their sentences at Nairobi West Prison and 350 were serving their sentences at the Langata Women Prison. In this respect, the goal was to obtain representative samples in which the sample research data corresponded to the particulars,

characteristics and experiences of the entire population (Smith, 2013; Groves, 2010; Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). Usually, the procedure to determine appropriate sample size involves 1) decision on acceptable level of precision i.e. 99% or 95% and 2) corresponding margin of error i.e. 1% or 5% (Smith, 2013, Groves, 2010; Israel, 2004; Kalton, 1983, Krejcie and Morgan 1970, Taro, 1967, Kish, 1965 and Fisher, 1925). For the purpose of the study, 95% level of confidence and 5% level of error was adequate.

Accordingly, the sample size was determined using Yamane formula (1967) and 95% confidence to calculate sample sizes for small or finite populations as follows;

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0 - 1)}{N}}$$

N = Sample Size for infinite population

Z = Value (e.g. 1.96 for 95%) confidence level

P = population proportion (expressed as decimal) (assumed to be 0.5 (50%); that assumes maximum heterogeneity in the population

M= Margin of Error at 5% (0.05)

Therefore, $n = \frac{1.96^2 pq}{d^2} = \frac{2.78 (0.5(0.5))}{(0.05)^2} = 260$

In view of the resulting outcome, the sample size for the study was 260, which was adjusted upwards by 10% contingency, resulting to 286.

Table 3. 1: Proportional Sampling for the Three Institutions

Gender	Population	Sample Proportion	Sample
Nairobi Medium Prison	150	23.4%	67
Langata Women's prison	350	38.5%	110
Nairobi West men's prison	300	38.1%	109
Total	800	100%	286

3.5.3 Sampling Method

In view of the required total sample of 286, a proportional sample size of 67 was obtained from the Nairobi Industrial Area (Medium) prison, 109 from Nairobi West Prison and 110 from Langata Women Prison to reflect the proportion of the inmates in the three institutions.

The study used systematic sampling to identify the respondents from each prison institution. Systematic sampling is a statistical method involving selection of elements from an ordered sampling frame, which in this study is the prison register. The sampling starts by selecting an element in the list at random and then every k^{th} element in the frame is selected, where k , the sampling interval is calculated as;

$$k = N/n$$

(Where n is the sample size, and N is the population size)

Systematic sampling procedure was used to draw the respective samples from the prison register of the three institutions; Nairobi Industrial Area Medium prison at an interval of two, Nairobi West Prison at an interval of three and Langata Women Prison at an interval of three. The aim was to maintain efficiency in carrying out the research, to maintain greater precision, reliability, correct conclusions and generalization (Smith, 2013; Groves, 2010).

3.6 Data Collection, Methods and Instruments

3.6.1 Survey Questionnaire

A survey questionnaire was administered to the identified sample of the prison inmates from Nairobi Industrial Area (Medium) Prison, Nairobi West Prison and the Langata Women Prison to obtain data on their exposure to the rehabilitation programme, their characteristics, and expectations after release and related challenges. The questionnaire had both open-ended and structured questions intended to generate data, which was subjected to statistical analysis.

3.6.2 Focus Group Discussions (FGD)

In addition, three focus group discussions (FGD) were carried-out with a sub-sample of the prison warders with a view of establishing their exposure to the

rehabilitation, the institutions programmes, capability, sustainability and related challenges. Use of FGD has various advantages that include eliminating perceptions related to intrusion and/or threat to respondents (Krueger & Casey, 2000).

3.6.3 Key Informants

Interviews were carried-out with targeted key informants (15) using a key informant interview guide to solicit strategic qualitative information necessary to facilitate greater understanding of the issues being examined. The key informants were identified officers/ senior administrators from the three prison institutions.

3.6.4 Inclusion and Exclusion criteria

In respect to inclusion criteria, all inmates including pre-trial detainee were included in the sample. In respect to exclusion criteria provision was made to exclude children, mental cases and inmates with severe disabilities.

3.7 Instruments validity and Reliability

3.7.1 Validity

Kothari (2004) defines validity as the degree to which obtained results represents the actual picture of the reality of the target population after data analysis. The instruments were checked for both face and content validity. Content validity focused on the degree at which the instrument adequately covers the research questions (Hair et al, 2006). Also, validity checks makes sure that the research instrument is not bias as far as the lay out, format, and language of the tool of collecting data is concerned (Kasomo, 2006). The team of experts from the department of Sociology, Kenyatta University authenticated the instruments; their comments were incorporated in the instruments before administering it to the respondents.

3.7.2 Reliability

Kothari (2004) defines reliability as the degree or extend at which a research instrument produces reliable or consistent data or results after repetitive trials. The drive behind piloting is to make sure that biases and ambiguities in the tools of collecting data are addressed or cleared before the actual study. The questionnaires as well as interview guides were piloted using a sample of 20 inmates and 5 prison warders respectively to ensure reliability. The internal consistency was measured using the Cronbach Alpha method. The coefficient alpha was accepted at 0.7 and above. The suitable method during data collection is

the only one that was administered and the researcher made sure that it can be used only once and has multiple response items (Gall et al., 2003).

3.8 Data Analysis and Management

Data analysis is an important stage in the research process. It involves the organization and processing of data with the aim of extracting useful information to answer the research question and help in accomplishing the research objectives. As indicated, the data collected fell within two broad categories qualitative and quantitative. Accordingly, qualitative analysis was done to examine typical characteristics of inmates at the Nairobi Industrial Area (Medium) Prison, Nairobi West Prison and Langata Women Prison.

The data from the entire sample of inmates from Nairobi Industrial Area (Medium) Prison, Nairobi West Prison and Langata Women Prison were tabulated in form of frequencies, proportions or percentages. It was analyzed in respect to the six objectives of the study. Frequencies and standardization with proportions or percentages indicated the overall characteristics, career progression and challenges.

Differences in the sample distributions were examined with sample distribution statistics that included Chi-square, Z or F distributions. Association between key variables (or aspects of the social conflicts) was examined with the measures of

association. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to support the envisaged analyses.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Upon approval of the research proposal by the Department of Sociology and Gender Studies, a clearance letter to conduct research was sought from the Graduate school of Kenyatta University. Research approval was also sought from the Kenyatta University Ethics and Review Committee while a research permit was sought from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). Permission from the County Education Director was also paramount thus was sought and work schedule for data collection was discussed with prison authorities at prison headquarters.

This study sought an informed consent from the respondents. The participants were made aware of the nature and purpose of the study. The respondents in the study were assured of their confidentiality and their safety at the onset. Participants were accorded courtesy and respect and the rights of free will were not interfered with including their will to withdraw from the study at any stage. Data was stored electronically with unauthorized access. Completed questionnaires were disposed through shredding on conclusion of research.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter entails the analyses of data, presentation and interpretation. In order to address the various aspects of the study, analysis was carried out in six (6) sections corresponding to the study objectives namely; 1) to examine the characteristics of the prison inmates and related risks 2) to examine rehabilitation outcomes and after release plans 3) to identify types of rehabilitation practices and usefulness, 4) to identify institutional capacity and sustainability, 5) to examine the influence of inmate characteristics on prison rehabilitation outcomes and, 6) to identify key challenges and necessary interventions.

4.2 Characteristics of the Prison Inmates and Related Risks

The first objective of the study was to examine the characteristics of the prison inmates and related risks. Some of the key characteristics included; age of the respondents, gender, religious affiliation, family stability and key socio-economic characteristics as well as the type of crime committed and the number of arrests.

4.2.1 Age of the Respondents

The age of the respondents ranged from 18 to 67 years, which was subsequently categorized into five (5) age brackets as summarized in table 4.1. The categorization was based on 10 years interval envisaged to encompass fundamental milestones in the socio-economic development of a person.

Table 4. 1: Age of Respondents

Age of Respondent	Frequencies	Percentage
18-25	60	21
26-35	130	45
36-45	46	16
46-55	34	12
56-67	16	06
Total	286	100

Majority (45%) of the inmates were between 26 to 35 years followed by the category of 18 to 25 years (21%), 36 to 45 years were 16%, 46 to 55 accounted for 12% while 56 to 67 were 6%. In essence this was a relatively young population given that 66% were between 18 and 35 and 82% were between 18 and 45; and potential candidates for rehabilitation into law-abiding citizens.

Although there are some differences the results are comparable to those of the Judiciary report that more than 75 per cent of prisoners are aged between 18 and 35 (KNCAJ, 2017). It is important to note that life course theory is based on both chronological age of a family and of a person; outlining and predicting various phases of crime risks, vulnerabilities and rehabilitation approaches.

4.2.2 Gender of the Respondents

The study examined the gender of the prison inmates largely because its part of the critical dimensions in rehabilitation. Responses for the gender are presented in table 4.2

Table 4.2: Gender of the Respondents

Gender	Frequencies	Percentage
Male	176	61.5
Female	110	38.5
Total	286	100.0

Out of the 286 respondents, 61.5% were male and 38.5% were female; largely because of the three institutions of the study, one of them was a female correctional institution. Otherwise, the proportion of women in prison has remained around 7% globally, 3% in Africa and 7.4% in Kenya (PRI, 2015, WPB, 2017).

Indeed, in South America women and girls make up 8% of the total prison population, 6% in USA, 6% in Europe, 7% in Asia and 7% in Oceania (Walmsley, 2013, Penal Reform International, 2015). It is also instructive to note that other countries have witnessed the highest proportions of female prisoners include Hong Kong-China (21%), Laos (18%), Macau-China (15%), Qatar (15%), Kuwait (14%), Thailand (13%), Myanmar (12%), the United Arab Emirates (12%) and South Sudan (11%) (Penal Reform International, 2015; World Prison Brief, 2017).

Further, reports indicate that by the year 2000, the number of women and girls in prison increased worldwide by more than 50% in all regions (World Female Imprisonment List, 2015, World Prison Brief, 2015).

4.2.3 Family Support

The study examined the stability and support from the family of the prison inmates, largely because of the implications on issues of crime risks, vulnerabilities and rehabilitation. Accordingly, respondents were requested to rate the level of family cohesion and support on a scale of one to five depicting low to high family cohesion respectively. The responses were summarized in table 4.3 below.

Table 4. 3: Respondent Family support

Family support	Frequencies	Percent
Regularly Supportive	12	04
Sometimes Supportive	25	09
Rarely Supportive	74	26
Never supportive/exclusion	175	61
Total	286	100

Majority of the respondents (61%) had no family support, 26% rarely got family support, 9% sometimes got family support while 4% regularly got support from the family. In summary, the distribution was skewed towards weak support. More specifically, about 61% indicated limited family support and exclusion.

A number of studies (Baldry 2003, Nilsson, 2003) have reported importance of family cohesion and support for the prison inmates, particularly in terms of the stability and securing employment. Nilsson also emphasized the importance of family support to women inmates who tend to be stigmatized even more than men, and re-entry into the family or community tend to be more difficult. Baldry (2003) reported that ex-inmates living with parents, partners or close family, had employment or were studying; or had contact with and support from post-release agencies.

Family plays an important role in fueling pro-social behavior and provides a strong foundation that enables an offender's desire to resist criminal or rather deviant behavior (Bales & Mears, 2008, Berg 2011). Most importantly, having a strong support system aids in transitional process of adjusting back to the community and work environments. Furthermore, Visher et al (2003) while examining various aspects of prison reentry established that ex –offenders desired a relationship with their family members immediately after release and majority counted on family members for financial support and housing assistance.

4.2.4 Religious Affiliation

The study assessed the religious affiliations of the inmates again because of important role religion has had on crime risks, vulnerabilities and eventually in rehabilitation. Responses from the inmates were presented in table 4.4.

Table 4. 4: Religious Affiliation of the Respondents

Religious Affiliation	Frequencies	Percent
Catholic	64	22.7
Protestant	187	66.3
Muslim	31	11.0
Total	282	100.0
Missing	4	

Majority of the respondents (66.3%) were Protestants, followed by Catholics (22.7%) and Muslims (11%). It should be noted that the percentage of the Catholics in Kenya stood at around 30% of the entire population by 2013 and the Muslims stood at 11% (KNBS, 2013) and therefore Catholics were slightly under represented in the sample. Nevertheless, other sources (KNBS, 2013 and Ikunda, 2016) ranked religious affiliation of the prison inmates in Kenya in the order of Protestant, Catholics, other Christians and Muslims.

Under-representation of the Catholics may be a reflection of the debate between religion and crime, notably assertions that practices of some religions have impact (or influence) to propensity for criminal behavior (Sumter *et al.*, 2018; Johnson *et al.*, 2006 and Evans *et al.*, 1995). For example, studies focusing on the relationship between religion, self-control and crime have tended to converge in their reports that low levels of self-control significantly increased criminal/deviant tendencies. Land *et al.* (2011) reported that the more meaningful their religious beliefs and the

more youth attended church services, the less likely to have low self-control, thus the lower their propensity for deviant/crime behavior.

4.2.5 Education of Respondents

Education has been associated with capacities to address crime risks, vulnerabilities and rehabilitation. Accordingly, the study assessed education of the inmates and responses were as illustrated in table 4.5.

Table 4. 5: Education of the Respondents

Level of education	Frequencies	Percent
No schooling	29	10
Primary School	101	36
Secondary School	104	37
Tertiary/University Education	50	17
Total	284	100
Missing	2	

Out of the 284 respondents, 46% had primary education and below, 37% had secondary education, 17% had college and university education. In principle, the education of the respondents was considerably limited and consistent with the reports that the levels of education for the prison inmates have been lower compared to the general population (Harlow, 2003, Ewert & Wildhagen, 2011). The direct implication is that such education will make efforts towards crime reduction and rehabilitation considerably difficult.

These observations were different to those reported by Gumi (2014) who found out that 75% of the youths in Kamiti Prison had primary and secondary education. Other reports (Mokoele, 2017) have indicated that the rate of recidivism was lowest for those prisoners who had achieved higher education instead of numeracy or literacy. Still others (Ongek & Otieno, 2017) have emphasized education as a driver for Sustainable Development. Survey of Inmates in State and Federal Correctional Facilities (SISFCF) show that while 18 percent of the general population does not have a high school diploma or equivalent, over 40 per cent of the adult correctional population has not completed high school (Harlow, 2003).

It is instructive to note that various authors including Gumi 2014, Mokoele 2017, Ongek and Otieno 2017, have emphasized education as a basis for employment; and which has been crucial because it allowed inmates to become self-sufficient and to avoid involvement in criminal activities. Education provides individuals basic skills to enter the labor market a fundamental tool for ensuring that inmates achieve sustainable livelihood.

Over 40% of young Black men (i.e. 22–30 years of age) with less than a high school diploma witnessed regular incarceration in the USA and more than half of Black high school dropouts in their early 30s witnessed incarceration at some point in their lives (Western et al., 2002). In addition, prisoners had lower than average income and average lower education before their incarceration (Harlow, 2003; Solomon et al., 2004).

4.2.6 Residence of Respondents

Residence of the inmates prior to conviction has been associated with crime risks and related vulnerabilities. In view of this observation, the study examined the residence of the inmates prior to incarceration and responses were presented in table 4.6.

Table 4. 6: Residence of Respondents

Location of Residence	Frequencies	Percent
City	13	4.9
Town	25	9.4
Peri Urban	169	63.3
Rural	49	18.4
Foreign Region	11	4.1
Total	267	100
Missing	19	

Out of the 267 valid respondents, 63% were from peri urban and 18% were from the rural areas. The study findings were similar to a report by SRIC (2014) which indicated that incidences of crime were high in Bondeni slum in Nakuru Municipality (61%), Mishomoroni in Mombasa City (44.4%), Kibra in Nairobi City (40%) and Manyatta slum in Kisumu City (37%).

4.2.7 Occupation of Respondents

Occupation of the inmates was part of the key socio-economic vulnerabilities that have been associated with crime risks, rehabilitation and reintegration to the community environment. Accordingly, occupation of the inmate prior to incarceration was assessed and results were presented in table 4.7.

Table 4. 7: Occupation of Respondents

Occupations	Frequency	Percent
Casual laborer	76	28.3
Self- employment	126	46.9
Formal employment	67	24.8
Total	286	100.0
Missing	17	

In respect to occupation, 46.9% of the respondents were self - employed (petty traders), 28.3% were casual laborers while 24.8% were in formal employment. In principle, 75% consisted of self-employment and casual employment and constituted the most vulnerable to crime risks and reoffending.

In contrast a study conducted by Rampey and Keiper (2016) in the USA reflecting developed economies reported that about two-thirds (66 %) of the inmates were working prior to their incarceration, about half of them (49%) were employed full-time, with another 16% working part-time. The other 34% of incarcerated adults were not in the paid workforce: approximately 19% were unemployed, with the

remaining 16% were either student, permanently disabled, looking after family members, in retirement, or in other unspecified situations.

Accordingly, Research Brief, 2008, revealed that majority (70%) of the prison inmates had held a job for at least one year prior to entering prison, and the median hourly wage was \$9 per hour. It has been emphasized that employment helps ex-inmates to be productive, take care of their families, develop valuable life skills, and strengthen their self-esteem and social connectedness (Petersilia, 2003).

4.2.8 Income of Respondents (USD per Day)

Income of the inmates was part of the key socio-economic vulnerabilities that have been associated with crime risks, rehabilitation and reintegration to the community environment. The study assessed the income of inmates prior to incarceration and the findings were presented in table 4.8.

Table 4. 8: Income of Respondents before Incarceration

Income USD Per Day	Frequency	Percent
Below USD 1	128	45
1-9	52	18
10-19	40	14
20-29	23	8
30-39	20	7
40-49	14	5
Over 50	9	3
Total	286	100

Majority of the respondents (45%) earned less than one USD per day prior to imprisonment. In principle, majority (77%) earning below 20 USD a day can be categorized as poor and had limited resources to support livelihood. These results are substantially similar to those from other research including Sikasa (2015). The KNCAJ (2017) reported that the criminal justice system in Kenya tends to be biased towards the low socio-economic status thereby perpetuating poverty.

Various reports have maintained propositions that lower social and economic strata have been associated with crime, conviction and recidivism (Oruta, 2016; Achode, 2012; Pollack, 2009 Campbell, 2002). Such conclusions were derived from Table 4.5 above where most of the inmates had primary education and Table 4.7 where most of the inmates were casual workers or self-employed entrepreneurs.

More specifically, reports have emphasized lower social and economic strata represented by low education and vocational achievements, unemployment, low income and limited access to productive resources (Campbell, 2002; Pollack, 2009). Other reports have indicated that most of the prison inmates were from the lower socio-economic strata: lower occupational and income categories, and have low educational attainments (Kayode & Etannibi, 2011). Still other reports have emphasized that limited education; unemployment and limited access to income

increase the probability (propensity) of committing crimes, particularly among women, (Fleisher, 1966; Gould et al., 1998).

4.2.9 Types of Crime

Part of the theory of rehabilitation requires understanding the types of crimes committed by the inmates. In view of this requirement, the study assessed the types of crime as shown in table 4.9

Table 4. 9: Type of Crime Committed by Respondents

Conviction Crime	Frequencies	Percent
Murder	61	22.2
Robbery with violence	52	19.0
Stealing	50	18.2
Drug trafficking	40	14.5
Rape	30	11.0
Felony	17	6.2
Forgery	14	5.1
Economic crime/Corruption	7	2.5
Assault and Miscellaneous	14	4.9
Total	286	100

Table 4.9 indicates that majority of the respondents were convicted of murder (22.2%), robbery (19%), stealing (18%), drug trafficking (15%) and rape (11%) among others. In contrast, a report by KNCAJ (2017) indicated that on average, in Kenya, the proportion of petty offenders remains substantially high. The same

report also indicated that some of the leading crimes in Kenya include drunkenness and disorder, property offence, traffic offence and violent offences. The report also indicated that other crime included fraud, offences of dishonesty and loitering. Further, violence, property, drug and public order offenses have been leading crimes in the USA (Bureau of Justice Statistic, 2016).

Similarly, a study by SRIC reported that theft (35.37%) was the main type of crime across slum areas. In addition, robbery (15.55%), burglary/break-ins (10.67%) and mugging (23.17%) were the other main forms of crime in slum areas, accounting for combined 84.76% of crimes committed in slum areas in Kenya.

4.2.10 Number of Arrests Experienced

First, the number of arrests or re-arrest has been used interchangeably (or as synonymous) with recidivism i.e. return to prison custody for any reason, including technical violations (Oruta, 2016, Benda, 2005). It also involves reconviction and re-incarceration after a prior conviction for some offence, sentenced and with some correction. The study sought to establish the number of arrests the inmates had experienced and the responses were presented in table 4.10.

Table 4. 10: Number of Arrests of Inmates

Number of Arrests	Frequencies	Percent
1	97	35
2	107	38
3	43	15
Over 4	32	11
Total	279	100
Missing	7	

The study found out that 35% of the respondents had been arrested once, 38% arrested twice, 15% arrested three times and 11% had been arrested four times or more. In total 26% of the inmates were recidivists. This study finding is similar with the one carried out by Gathu (2012) that concluded that inmates in Kenya had a 50% probability of returning to prison, two years after release from prisons and 75% probability of re-committing another crime.

A number of reports (Abrifor et al., 2012, Wilson 2008, Soyombo 2009) have indicated various rates of recidivism. In Nigeria, Soyombo reported 37.3% rate of re-arrest in 2005, Abrifor in 2010 estimated it at 52.4% of which were re-arrested within 36 months of discharge/release from the prison custody, while Wilson (2009) reported that 81% of male inmate and 45% of female inmate were re-arrested within 36 months of discharge/release from the prison custody.

Further, reports on recidivism in USA indicate that two thirds of released prisoners were re-arrested and considerable proportions re-incarcerated within 3 years of release from prison (Langan & Levin, 2002). In addition, the rates of recidivism increased upwards to an average of 75% – 80% of released prisoners likely to be re-arrested within a decade of release.

4.3 Rehabilitation Outcomes and Reintegration

4.3.1 Key Rehabilitation Outcomes

The second objective of the study was to establish rehabilitation outcomes, reduction of re-offending risks and reintegration to the community environment. Accordingly, we analyzed outcomes of key prerelease indicators that included; compliance to institutional rules, participation of inmates in the design of their respective rehabilitation plan, rehabilitation response to key challenges underlying commission of crime and subsequent conviction, key knowledge and skills acquired during rehabilitation which were necessary in addressing the underlying challenges, access to apprenticeship, engagement on productive activities, exposure to employment experience, opportunity to engage with prospective employers, opportunity to visit the family with a view to maintain support, the level in which the inmates were prepared for release and whether the inmates made after release plans. Responses of these outcomes were summarized in table 4.11 below.

Table 4. 11: Prerelease Rehabilitation Outcomes

Prerelease Indicators	Low/limited compliance knowledge or access		Moderate/partial compliance knowledge or access	Substantial agreement knowledge or access		
Witnessed reduction on rules breaking	35	32	20	10	3	100% (286)
Participation on rehabilitation plan	38	35	18	5	4	100% (286)
Rehabilitation response to key challenges	41	40	11	5	3	100% (286)
Key knowledge /skills developed	30	32	18	12	8	100% (286)
Experience of access to apprenticeship	40	43	10	5	2	100% (286)
Engaged on productive activities	32	30	21	10	7	100% (286)
Exposed to employment experience	33	30	21	9	7	100% (286)
Engaged with prospective employers	42	45	8	3	2	100% (286)
Opportunity to visit family	45	43	12	0	0	100% (286)
Experience of release preparation (planning)	42	41	10	7	0	100% (286)
Experience of inmates on after release risk reduction	44	43	13	0	0	100% (286)

In line with the foregoing, we examined reduction of the tendency towards rule breaking (institutional infractions, deviance) as an indicator of effective rehabilitation and a useful indicator of post release outcome (Cochran & Mears 2020, Auty & Alison Liebling 2017, UNODC 2017, Crewe 2013, Miceli 2009, Camp et al., 2003; Gillian 1985). This was also consistent with the perspectives of life course and desistance perspectives in which good conduct during rehabilitation has been considered necessary as part of the preparation for life after release (Colby 2012, Warren 2007, Camp et al., 2003). In this study, 67% of the respondents (table 4.11.1) indicated that they experienced limited (or low) reduction of the tendency to rule breaking; or compliance to the institutional rules. In other words, they reported increased tendency to rule breakings, infractions, deviance to the rules or conflicts with the rules. The remaining 33% indicated that they experienced moderate to substantial compliance to the institutional rules. Although rule compliance was associated primarily with safety and order at the institution, it was also considered important for learning, rehabilitation and also prediction of the rehabilitation outcomes. These observations were consistent with previous studies; particularly compliance of inmates to institutional rules in developing countries ((De Claire and Dixon 2015, Steiner & Wooldredge 2018, Crewe 2013). Steiner & Wooldredge observed that perceived legitimacy of the institution and guards reduced infractions

Further, we examined participation of inmates in the design of their respective rehabilitation plan. It will be recalled that the perspectives of RNR, desistance and socio-economic vulnerability envisage classification, analysis and determination of the challenges that pushed inmates to committing crime and to encourage inmates to participate in the design of their respective rehabilitation plans. However, out of 286 respondents (table 4.11.2) 76% reported low participation in design of the rehabilitation plan; and included those who did not agree with the rehabilitation plan, and those who were not consulted. In essence, most of the rehabilitation measures were quasi-mandatory; inmate had to participate in something to be occupied. This was confirmed by a key informant who said that;

“ we don't have the capacity to carry out assessment based on risks and needs of the inmates that we admit in prisons and for this reason, institutional authorities enforce some ad-hoc procedures to keep inmates occupied and not based on any assessment or negotiated plan. This in the long run might not be helpful in equipping them with the skills and competencies required for lawful livelihoods”

Such outcome appears to be a typical scenario in some regions, particularly in developing countries (Murhula & Singh 2019, Duwe 2017, Seigafo 2017, UNODC 2017, Baffour 2016, SSanyu 2014, Miceli 2009, Dissel 2008). In making similar observation, Dissel reported that the high rate of recidivism will continue in South

Africa because of either negligible participation, discontent, non-existent or minimal type of rehabilitation of offenders in virtually all phases (Dissel 2008)

From the perspective of the RNR, desistance and socio-economic vulnerability, response of the rehabilitation to key challenges that pushed inmates to committing crime and subsequent conviction would be an important outcome. In this study, 81% of the respondents (table 4.11.3) reported that rehabilitation process did not address the key (underlying) challenges associated with committing crime, conviction and finally ending up at the correction institution. It was reported also through the key informant and FGDs that duration of the sentence, registration and assessment during admission were used for general classification, operation and assignment of duties. Indeed, sentence duration was more instrumental in allocation of duties. However, these three procedures were not used to identify the key challenge (issue) that had led the inmates to commit the crime, to be convicted and eventually ending up at the correction institution. It was emphasized through key informant and FGDs that no instrument was used to support allocation of inmates to the intervention sessions. According to the FGDs, the interest of the inmate was more fundamental in choosing rehabilitation sessions. It was also noted that the interests of the inmates kept changing (or shifting) between the sessions. This outcome had been reported to be common in most of the developing countries, particularly those in Sub Sahara Africa (Ngozwana 2017, SSanyu 2014, Dissel 2008)

We also examined new knowledge and skills as emphasized in the RNR, desistance and socio-economic vulnerability perspectives and considered as important outcomes of incarceration and rehabilitation. Out of the 286 respondents (table 4.11.4) 62% reported that they experienced limited new knowledge or skills that they would use to address some of the challenges that they had faced leading to association with the crime, conviction and ending up at the correction institution. We were informed by the key informants and FGDs that structured learning were extremely limited. Intervention sessions were broad and general. Conversely, 38% reported experiencing modest to substantial new knowledge or skills that would help them address the challenges that they had faced leading to association with the crime, conviction and ending up at the correction institution. Again, this outcome has been reported to be common in most of the developing countries (Murhula & Singh 2019, Ngozwana 2017, SSanyu 2014, Muteti 2008). Exceptions have been reported on rehabilitation model in Nordic Countries where a higher percentage of inmates are reported to acquire substantial new knowledge and skills to address their life challenges (Coates 2016, Gumi 2014, Diseth et al 2009)

From the perspective of the desistance and socio-economic vulnerability, access to apprenticeship is an important outcome of the rehabilitation. It provides inmates with three key components 1) valuable skills 2) on the job training and 3) some payments to meet basic needs. It has been emphasized that apprenticeships provide

incarcerated population the opportunity to gain valuable skills, credential that could be marketable in the broader labor market, and opportunity to connect with potential employers. In this study, 82% of the respondent (table 4.11.5) indicated that they had no access to any apprenticeship during the period of serving their sentences and rehabilitation sessions. Key informants and FGDs indicated that it was rare and almost impossible to see any arrangement or provision for inmates to access apprenticeship. Although such outcome is a common feature in developing countries, particularly those in Africa, it is a situation that is opposite to prevailing practices and outcomes in some of the developed countries particularly USA, Britain, Germany and virtually all the Nordic countries (Coates 2016, McGrew & Hanks 2017, SSanyu 2014, Gumi 2014, Diseth et al 2009, Muteti 2008). However, the key challenge of the apprenticeship in the developed countries is the issue of severely low payment per hour or day (McGrew & Hanks 2017).

The principle of productive activities has been important to incarceration and to the theories of rehabilitation particularly life course, desistance and socio-economic vulnerability. In this study while 62% reported that they were not engaged in productive activities, 38% reported that they were engaged in productive activities (table 4.11.6). Key informants and FGDs reported that activities in the correction institutions fall in three categories 1) maintenance of the institution 2) community services and 3) commercial productions (industries). Inmates were distributed to these activities on a rotational basis. The 3rd set of

activities were considered and reported by inmates as productive because in some cases they include a token percentage awarded to inmates. Accordingly, the situation of a token percentage of the product proceeds may have accounted for those reporting productive activities. According to the key informants and the FGDs, part of the challenge on the commercial productions (or industries) was that the arrangement was informal less standardized and remained negligible.

The principle of employment experience is central to the theory of desistance and socio-economic vulnerability. More specifically, a number of studies have demonstrated positive relation between employment and desistance from crime (Pager & Western 2009, Visser et al 2008, Vigne et al 2008, Uggen, 2000). In this study 63% of the respondents indicated that they were not exposed to employment experience and 37% reported that they were exposed to varied forms of employment experience (table 4.11.7). We were informed through key informants and FGDs that those exposed to employment experience were through commercial productions.

We inquired further about the extent to which inmates were able to have opportunity to engage prospective employers. It will be recalled that such opportunity is an important part of the social capital, which in turn is an important part of the desistance theory and socio-economic vulnerability. In response, 87% of the respondents ((table 4.11.8) indicated that they were not given opportunity to engage prospective employers. A survey in USA showed that between 60% to

75% of the released inmates remained without employment for more than three (3) years and contributed to reoffending (Pager & Western 2009, Travis 2005, Petersilia 2003).

In addition, family preparedness has been considered as a critical component of rehabilitation, desistance and socio-economic vulnerability. More specifically, research studies have demonstrated that existence and maintenance of strong family relation reduces the likelihood of re-offending and successful reintegration into the community (De Claire and Dixon 2015, Niven & Stewart 2005, Hairston 1988). Benefits beyond recidivism include improved level of social adjustment during imprisonment and after release (Casey-Avecedo & Bakken, 2002). However, in this study up to 88% of the respondents (table 4.11.9) indicated that they were not given opportunity to visit their respective families in preparation to their release. A Key informant indicated that;

“Inmates’ visits by family members has been regularized and has remained very useful in that the inmate get to bond and know the status of their family members such as children, spouses and children. However, the visit by the inmates to their families has not been considered and would have been useful to assess a number of aspects including housing and available socio-economic support”.

Preparation for release has been considered as a critical aspect of rehabilitation, desistance and socio-economic vulnerability. In view of such importance, other jurisdictions and institutions have adopted work release centers as part of pre-release rehabilitation, apprenticeship, work experience and family preparedness (Duwe 2017, Bales et al 2016, Visher et al 2008, Vigne et al 2008, Griffiths 2007, Solomon 2004). Work release centers (WRC) are essentially a prison-to-community transition programme. However, in this study 83% of the respondents (table 4.11.10) indicated that they had not experienced any preparation towards their release. Key informants and FGDs indicated that preparation for release is considered responsibility of the individual inmates including in most initial transport, housing and basic needs.

We examined experience of inmates with respect to after release risk reduction as envisaged in desistance and socio-economic vulnerability perspectives. The modern concept of rehabilitation envisages support to the inmate beyond the corridors of the correction institutions. It includes provisions for a phased release, and follow-up assistance to support transport, housing, access to basic needs, healthcare, continuity in education, business development and/or access to durable employment (PRI 2018, Duwe 2017, Chikadzi 2017, James 2015, Rocha 2012, Davis et al 2012, Vigne et al 2008, Borzycki 2005, Gaynes 2005). Out of the 286 respondents (table 4.11.11), 87% indicated that they had limited experience on

after release risk reduction, to support their re-entry to the community and to sustain their release. This was reflected from the statement of one of the key informants who had the following to say;

“The present correctional institutions lacks the capacity to carry out post release follow ups and that such arrangements were very rare. After release, risk reduction remains the responsibility of an individual inmate and if they remained vulnerable the risk of reoffending (recidivism) increases.

Indeed, various reports indicate that although reintegration has been embraced as a vital component of a comprehensive rehabilitation, ex-offenders continue to encounter a wide range of challenges that weaken reduction of reoffending risks and predispose ex-offenders to recidivism (Chikadzi 2017, James 2015, Vigne et al 2008, Borzycki 2005).

4.3.2 Values Developed in Prison

In addition to the foregoing key rehabilitation outcomes, we examined values as aspects of core interest that inmates developed while in prison. Rehabilitation is a process that involves in part instilling new values (key core interests) to inmates including those related to respect for the law, respect for others, self-respect and capacity for crime free livelihoods (Cullen 2013, Dissel 2012, Day and Ward 2009, Blakely 2007, Ward & Maruna, 2007, Conley 1992). According to these authors, usually, it is considered important for inmates to make a living beyond

mere subsistence. In this respect, it is expected that such capability enable inmates to pursue meaningful and sustainable reforms. This study sought to find out the key values the inmates had developed while in prison, the responses were presented in table 4.12.

Table 4. 12: Key Values Developed in Prison

Values	Frequency	Percent
Moral responsibility to others	87	37
Self-respect, esteem & confidence	67	28
Religious values	54	23
Interpersonal skills	30	13
Subtotal	238	100
Missing	48	
Total	286	

Out of 238 valid respondents, majority (37%) reported developing moral responsibility to others, 28% self-respect, and confidence, 23% religious values and 13% interpersonal skills. It was promising that majority indicated that they had developed conviction for moral responsibility to others and probably which also included respect for the law. It was also promising that a considerable proportion reported self-respect which could include crime free livelihoods. Key informants and FGDs reported that other values included anger management, tolerance, and knowledge of being more careful in the society. In addition, they reported that the

challenge was not so much on the values but the capability for self-independence and ability for crime free livelihoods.

4.3.3 Competencies Developed in Prison

In order to have further understanding of the new knowledge /skills developed, we also examined specific competencies considered to have been developed by inmates while serving in prison. It was envisaged and predicted that it would include life support competencies necessary for sustainable livelihood and development (Costelloe, 2014, Rampey & Keiper, 2016). This was shown in table 4.13.

Table 4. 13: Competencies developed in prison

Competencies	Frequency	Percent
Entrepreneurship skills and practices	83	40
Welding, Carpentry & Construction	36	18
Teaching , preaching & Counseling	32	16
Clothing and textile	23	11
Farming, and agro-business	21	10
Formal education	10	05
Sub-total	205	100
Missing	81	
Total	286	

From the valid respondents of 205, 40% reported entrepreneurship skills, 18% reported welding, carpentry and construction, 16% reported teaching and

counseling skills, 11% reported competencies on clothing and textile, and 10% reported skills on farming, and agro-business while 5% reported formal education. FGD in the three prison institutions reported that among the competencies developed include masonry, joinery and carpentry, welding, and upholstery. It appears that these skill sets could have provided a way for further rehabilitation including transitional rehabilitation and after release support services. Rampey and Keiper (2016) reported development of competencies that included, among others, highest level of education completed by incarcerated adults during their incarceration, enrollment in academic classes and job skills or job training programme.

4.3.4 Expected plans to Sustain Livelihood after Release

The study also examined the post release plans that inmates had developed while serving in prison. The results were summarized in table 4.14.

Table 4. 14: Expected plans to sustain livelihood after release

Plan	Frequency	Percent
Start business	105	38
Teaching & Counseling	60	22
Building, Carpentry, welding & related careers	51	19
Dressmaking/tailoring	25	09
Farming	23	08
Formal education	6	02
Find employment	3	01
Sub-total	273	100
Missing	13	
Total	286	

Accordingly, the study found out that plans included starting a business (38%), engaging in teaching and counseling (22%), carpentry and welding (19%), dressmaking and tailoring (9%), farming (8%) among others. In essence these inmates were aware and had plans on what they could do after release from the correction institution. Key informants and FGDs reported that the key challenge was capability to actually put in place and sustain the plan that could support them and their families; and at the same time keep them away from conflicts with the law.

4.3.5 Expected Sustainability of After Release Plans

The study examined the confidence of inmates on the sustainability of the after release plans, their confidence on reoffending risk reduction and crime free livelihoods. The responses were presented in table 4.15.

Table 4. 15: Rating of confidence on expected Sustainability of after Release Plans

Percent rating of confidence on after release plan	Frequency	Percent
Less than 30%	118	41
Between 30-49%	75	26
Between 50-69%	55	19
Over 70%	43	14
Total	286	100

Out of 286 respondents, majority (67%) did not have confidence that their after release plans would be sustained, 19% had modest confidence and only 14% had confidence that their after release plans would be sustained. These results indicate that while inmates had some hope, they also had doubts on their capability to put in place and sustain their after release plans, Key informants and FGD indicated that most of the inmates came from poor background with limited capability to execute plans towards modern business.

4.4 Types of Rehabilitation Practices and Usefulness

The Third objective of the study sought to establish the types, practices and usefulness of the prison rehabilitation programmes in the three institutions under study.

4.4.1 Types of Rehabilitation

Review of the policy, operational manuals, and discussions with the key informants indicated that common rehabilitation programmes in prisons in Kenya included; individual counseling service, peer group counseling service, religious counseling service, formal education, vocational rehabilitation involving carpentry and joinery, welding, farming, building and masonry, entrepreneurship skills, and commercial and mentorship. Other rehabilitation practices included computer classes, languages, rabbit rearing, chicken rearing, fish farming and life skills.

On the other hand, the outcomes of the rehabilitation programmes include graduation of inmates from the programmes, award of the certificate and most importantly transformation of the character; to reduce crime risks and tendencies.

4.4.2 Individual Counseling Services

Guidance and counseling services in the prisons were intended to support inmates to reform (to adopt values, decisions and competencies) that enhances lawful livelihoods. The study examined participation of the inmates on the individual counseling and responses were presented in table 4.16 below

Table 4. 16: Participation of Inmates in Individual Counseling

Participation	Frequencies	Percent
Daily	34	12
Weekly	55	19
Monthly	74	26
Never	122	43
Total	285	100
Missing	1	

Accordingly, while 43% never participated, 57% (consisting of 26% monthly, 19% weekly and 12% daily) participated in individual counseling sessions. These services were provided by a mixture of volunteers and student counselors at the correction institutions. In addition, we requested inmates to evaluate usefulness of the individual counseling and responses were presented in table 4.17 below.

Table 4. 17: Rating of Usefulness of Individual Counseling

Rating of Usefulness	Frequency	Percent
Least useful	114	40
Sometimes useful	88	31
Useful	43	15
Very useful	41	14
Total	286	100

In principle, 71% reported individual counseling to be either least or sometimes useful and 39% reported it either very useful or useful. From key informants and FGDs we attributed these responses to 1) inadequate delivery of the counseling services, particularly, through limited staff 2) limited time and adhoc arrangements and 3) inability to respond to the key challenges of the inmates.

4.4.3 Peer Counseling Services

Peer counseling involved sessions in which inmates were categorized into various age groups (or type of crime committed) to address various topics that could assist them. While 52% (table 4.18) never participated in those sessions, 48% (consisting of daily 12%, weekly 16% and monthly 20%) participated in peer counseling services at various times. This particular observation indicated that inmates were equally split between participating and not participating in peer counseling services.

Table 4. 18: Participation of Inmates to Peer Counseling

Participation	Frequencies	Percent
Daily	31	12
Weekly	47	16
Monthly	58	20
Never	150	52
Total	286	100

When requested to evaluate the usefulness (table 4.19), 65% of the respondents indicated that peer counseling services were least useful and 35% reported peer counseling services as useful. These responses were attributed to 1) inadequate delivery of the counseling services, particularly, through limited staff 2) limited time and adhoc arrangements and 3) inability to respond to the key challenges of the inmates.

Table 4. 19: Rating of Usefulness of Peer Counseling Services

Rating Usefulness	Frequency	Percent
Least useful	123	43
Sometimes useful	63	22
Useful	67	20
Very useful	42	15
Total	286	100

Following the findings established through the FGDs, peer counseling was considered more effective than individual counseling. Peer counseling offered inmates the opportunity to freely talk and share some of their challenges, worries and pressures and at the same time learn from their fellow inmates how to overcome those challenges based on their previous experiences. According to Yusuf & Mundia (2014) when people come into a group and interact freely with other group members, they tend to recreate those difficulties that brought them to counseling in the first place.

4.4.4 Religious Rehabilitation Sessions

Religious rehabilitation service has been one of the oldest rehabilitation methods in prison. Reports indicate that the relation between incarceration and religion has been long and can be traced back to the early development of the correctional philosophy aimed at repentance, and later to support inmates to practice their faith while in prison (Dammer, 2000). The study sought to find out the inmates participation in religious rehabilitation and its usefulness as illustrated in Table 4.20.

Table 4. 20: Participation of Inmates to Religious Rehabilitation Sessions

Participation	Frequency	Percent
Daily	120	42.0
Weekly	130	45.5
Monthly	16	5.6
Never	20	7.0
Total	286	100.0

A remarkable 93% of the respondents participated religious rehabilitation programme. Majority (46%) of the respondents participated weekly; an equally considerable proportion (42%) participated daily while 5.6% participated on a monthly basis.

O'Connor and Perreyclear (2002) reported that that the religious involvement of inmates in a large medium/maximum security prison in South Carolina was extremely varied and extensive. During a one-year period 49% of the incarcerated men (779 out of 1,579) attended at least one religious service or programme.

According to Dammer (2002), inmates either grew up practicing a religion or joined a religion later in life (or developed the interest during incarceration).

Prison inmates may also become involved with religion to gain protection, meet other inmates, meet volunteers, or obtain special prison resources. In many cases,

inmates gain direction and meaning for their life from the practice of religion while in prison.

Additionally, Dammer (2000) observed that religion also provided hope for the inmates; hope to reform from a life of crime, and from a life of imprisonment. Some inmates even felt that being incarcerated was the "Will of God" and that full acceptance of this 'will' was essential to being faithful to divine authority.

Table 4. 21: Rating of Usefulness of Religious Rehabilitation

Rating Usefulness	Frequency	Percent
Least useful	40	14
Sometimes useful	58	20
Useful	87	30
Very useful	102	36
Total	286	100

When requested to evaluate the usefulness of religious rehabilitation (table 4.21) 66% reported that religious rehabilitation was either useful or very useful and 34% indicated that those services were either sometimes useful or least useful. This particular rehabilitation service was largely attended and rated favourably because; it relied on external clergy, the way religion tended to respond to their challenges, redemption and salvation.

It will be instructive to note that Rule 66 of the UNSMR states that prisoners so far as practicable, they shall be allowed to satisfy the need of their religious life by attending the religious services provided in every person and having in their possession the books of religious observance and instructions. This guarantees every prisoner the right to religion. Religious leaders provide a crucial role in spiritual nourishment and moral development of prisoners as well as providing outgoing guidance support (UNSMR, 2015).

4.4.5 Formal Education Programme

Similarly, prisons in Kenya, particularly the Nairobi Industrial Area Medium prison, Nairobi West and Langata have formal education programme intended to support inmates to develop general aptitude, knowledge and competencies. The study assessed the participation of inmates in formal education programme and responses were shown in table 4.22 below.

Table 4. 22: Participation of Inmates in Formal Education Programme

Rating Usefulness	Frequency	Percent
Daily	67	23
Weekly	43	15
Monthly	26	09
Never	150	52
Total	286	100

Out of 286 respondents 52% indicated that they did not participate in formal education sessions while 48% (23% daily, 15% weekly and 9% monthly) indicated that they had been participating in formal education sessions at various schedules. When requested to evaluate the usefulness of participation in formal education sessions and responses were presented in table 4.23.

Table 4. 23: Rating of usefulness of Formal education

Rating of Usefulness	Frequency	Percent
Least useful	122	43
Sometimes useful	68	24
Useful	54	19
Very useful	42	15
Total	286	100

In principle, 67% indicated that formal education sessions were more or less least useful; and 33% however reported that formal education sessions have been useful. These outcomes were attributed to four key aspects 1) limited facilities, 2) limited staff 3) limited classes and 4) limited capacity to support formal education. Recognition of the importance and the impact of education on rehabilitation of prison inmates can be traced back to 1870 when the 1st USA based National Prison Congress adopted education within prison. In a follow up in 1970, one hundred years after the initial initiative, legal provisions were made in State of New York (USA) requiring the Department of Correctional Services to assess a prisoner's

“educational and vocational needs” and “provide each inmate with a programme of education which seems most likely to further the process of socialization and rehabilitation” (Fine et al., 2001). The objective was primarily “...to return the inmates to society with a more wholesome attitude toward living, with a desire to conduct themselves as good citizens, and with the skills and knowledge which would give them a reasonable chance to maintain themselves and their dependents through honest labour” (Fine et al., 2001).

Although many prisoners need formal education and training, the Nordic Report (Gaes, 2008) also identifies ‘a major need for informal skills (life skills, the ability to function in a team at work, in society, in the family etc.)’. This adds to the evidence for the special needs of prisoners, and that remedial literacy and numeracy skills and upper secondary education are not enough to ensure rehabilitation. It also notes that participation in both creative and physical activities often encourages prisoners to go on to other kinds of education. However, the report describes education as ‘one important piece of a larger puzzle’ and notes that education can be more effective if combined with work, treatment programmes, and other approved activities (Gaes, 2008).

4.4.6 Vocational Rehabilitation

Various authors maintain a view that supporting inmates gain knowledge, skills and competencies forms an important stepping-stone to their journey towards rehabilitation and reintegration into society (Hawley & Murphy, 2013).

Accordingly, we requested inmates to indicate their participation in vocational rehabilitation and responses were presented in table 4.24 below.

Table 4. 24: Participation of Inmates in Vocational Training

Attendance	Frequencies	Percent
Daily	137	47.9
Weekly	42	14.7
Monthly	18	6.3
Never	89	31.1
Total	286	100.0

Although 31.1% reported that they had not participated, 68.9% (consisting of 47.9 daily, 14.7 weekly and 6.3 monthly) indicated that they had participated in vocational rehabilitation. From the findings it can be concluded that prisons in Kenya, particularly Nairobi Industrial Area (Medium), Nairobi West and Langata Women have maintained vocational training to support inmates in areas that included carpentry, upholstery, metalwork, welding and tailoring.

When requested inmates to evaluate the usefulness of participating in vocational rehabilitation and responses were presented in table 4.25 below.

Table 4. 25: Rating of Usefulness of Vocational Rehabilitation

Vocational Rehabilitation	Frequency	Percent
Least useful	54	19
Sometimes useful	67	23
Useful	98	34
Very useful	67	23
Total	286	100

While 42% indicated that vocational rehabilitation as either sometimes or least useful, 58% of the respondents reported that vocational rehabilitation were useful or very useful. Similarly, these outcomes were attributed to four key aspects 1) limited facilities, 2) limited staff 3) limited classes and 4) limited capacity to support formal education. While technical education has a potential for rehabilitation the service requires considerable resources in terms of equipment, facilities and personnel.

Notably, in Kenya, vocational training/rehabilitation is maintained through activities such as carpentry, masonry, upholstery, metalwork, weaving, tailoring and dressmaking as well as agriculture (KHRC, 2009). In Uganda, many prisoners are convicted to serve hard labor in farms, which produces revenue for prisons (Okanga, 2014). It is important to note that Rule 71(3) of the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the treatment of prisoners' stated that "sufficient

work of a useful nature shall be provided to keep prisoners actively employed for a normal working day (UNSMR, 2015).

4.4.7 Commercial and Mentorship Programme

Commercial and mentorship is a specialized commercial aspects of the vocational rehabilitation and incorporates mentorship, Appropriation in Aid (AiA) and compensation. The study examined participation of prison inmates in commercial and mentorship programme, and responses are presented in table 4.26.

Table 4. 26: Participation of inmates in Commercial and Mentorship

Participation	Frequencies	Percent
Daily	87	30
Weekly	43	15
Monthly	21	7
Never	135	47
Total	286	100.0

Majority of the respondents 53% (30% daily, 15% weekly and 8% monthly) have participated at various schedules while 47% have not had opportunity to participate,. It is important to note that this programme was popular in Langata Women prison.

Table 4. 27: Rating of Usefulness of Commercial and Mentorship

Rating Usefulness	Frequency	Percent
Least useful	97	34
Sometimes useful	35	12
Useful	106	37
Very useful	48	17
Total	286	100

We requested inmates to evaluate usefulness of the commercial and mentorship sessions and responses are presented in table 4.27. Majority (37%) of the respondents indicated that commercial and mentorship sessions were useful, 17% indicated it as very useful, 12% indicated it as sometimes useful while 34% indicated that those sessions were least useful. These outcomes were attributed to a number of challenges 1) the opportunities for commercial and mentorship was limited, 2) the implementation was nor regular and 3) the policy was not clear. This seems to be a promising intervention model but would need to be expanded and institutionalized to ensure maximum participation.

4.5 Institutional Capacity to Support Rehabilitation and Sustainability

The fourth objective was to examine the institutional capacity and sustainability of the rehabilitation programmes. This was assessed through review of records, interviews of key informants and focus group discussions (FGDs). In order to

address this objective each institution was reviewed at a time in terms of policy, inmate population, rehabilitation practices, personnel and finance.

4.5.1 Nairobi Industrial Area/Medium Prison

The Nairobi Industrial Area Prison was essentially a complex, with A) Remand and B) Medium Prison, located about 4 Kilometers from Nairobi City CBD in the northern part of the extended industrial establishments' zone. It has potential to provide a wide range of opportunities towards rehabilitation of the inmates including industrial attachment with nominal wages. We reviewed documents, held interviews with key informants and FGDs for insight understanding of the functions, programmes, operations and opportunities at the institution. The FGD consisted of seven (7) officers; namely one Deputy Officer In charge, the Welfare officer, three Documentation officers, and two Prison warders.

4.5.1.1 Prison Population, Pre-Sentence Detainees and Inmates

Records, interviews and the discussion indicated that while the capacity of the Nairobi Industrial Area Remand was 1,700, it actually housed over 2,950 pre-sentence (or pre-trial) detainees. Our target however was the Nairobi Medium Prison, which supported an average of 150 inmates serving their sentence and therefore was relevant (appropriate) for the study on rehabilitation of inmates and related challenges.

4.5.1.2 Rehabilitation Programmes

Records, interviews and focused group discussion indicated that this particular institution had limited range of rehabilitation programmes. Rehabilitation programmes, sports and recreational activities at the institution was summarized as shown below.

Table 4. 28: Rehabilitation programmes

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Components</i>
Rehabilitation Programmes rehabilitation/chaplaincy	Counseling Religious Vocational rehabilitation Formal education
Sports	Table tennis Football Basketball Volleyball
Recreational	Music Dancing (Sakata, Zangalewa) Acrobatics

From the above summary, rehabilitation consisted of counseling, religious rehabilitation, vocational rehabilitation and formal education. Sport programmes consisted of table tennis, football, basketball and volleyball. Recreational activities comprised music classes, dance and acrobatics.

4.5.1.3 Rehabilitation Outcomes and Sustainability

Records, interviews and the FGDs indicated that the concepts of rehabilitation, and the principles of successful/sustainable rehabilitation, had been given attention in the adopted prison practices and institutional guidelines. Indeed, the indication was that some of the personnel were aware of the emphasis on sustainable rehabilitation; at least in the context of the Kenya Prison system. Members of the FGDs indicated that they were aware of the expected outcomes of the successful/sustainable rehabilitation that included reduced breaking of institutional rules, reduced strikes, change of attitudes, change of character and increased tolerance, easy re-union with the family, rapid re-integration to the community, and reduced number of recidivism among others. They referred to a report indicating that incidences of recidivism reduced from 48% in 2014 to 41% in 2018 within the first year of release at the institution, partly because of some aspects of rehabilitation and enhanced life-skills. Religious rehabilitation were considered also to be important as they enabled inmates to join churches, which later transformed them from bad to good and encouraged them to adopt legally and socially acceptable ways to livelihood.

4.5.1.4 Personnel Supporting Rehabilitation Programmes

The study assessed the number and qualification of the personnel supporting rehabilitation at the institution, the responses has been summarized in table 4.29.

Table 4. 29: Personnel Supporting Rehabilitation

Professionals	Number
Trained teachers	4
Trained Counselors	6
Social Welfare Officer	1
Total	11

Source: Prison Records (2018)

With a maximum capacity of 300 inmates, the ratio of professional personnel to the inmates were 1:27 an indication that there has been severe shortage of personnel at the institution, which in the long- run affects the outcome of rehabilitation. The rating of the FGD on the adequacy of the professional personnel supporting rehabilitation resulted to the following summary representing the adequacy of personnel (Table 4.30).

Table 4. 30: Adequacy of Personnel in Key Areas of Rehabilitation

Key Areas of Prison Rehabilitation	None	Not adequate	Adequate	Very Adequate
Vocational rehabilitation		√		
Commercial and Mentorship		√		
Formal education		√		
Religious rehabilitation sessions			√	
Individual counseling		√		
Peer counseling		√		

In summary, the rating indicates that almost all components of rehabilitation did not have adequate personnel. It was instructive to note that religious rehabilitation was indicated as adequate because of the volunteers' priests that provided scheduled services to the inmates; and therefore, was not an internal capacity.

4.5.1.5 Financial Allocation and Expenditure

Records, interviews and the discussions indicated that limited funds, limited access to the budget (and/or financial estimates) and diminished donor support have been among the key challenges at the institution and the rehabilitation of inmates in the last five (5) years (2014-2018). Available records indicated that the Nairobi Medium had an allocation of Kshs. 15,000,000 during the financial year 2017-2018. Specifically the key informants indicated that the inmate per capita cost per day was Kshs. 137 or Kshs. 50,005 in a year.

According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2014), the per capita Cost/Expenditure for inmates was a range of \$14,780 at the lowest and \$69,355 at the highest per annum with an average of \$33,274. The report indicated that averagely \$22,263 is budgeted for inmate in a year, which is equivalent to \$62.01 per day (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2004). Key informants and participants of the FGD in the study however, indicated that they had no access to any annual financial estimates (and/or allocations) and therefore would not know the annual financial allocation/expenditure. In other words, the institution had not been

receiving direct financial allocation and therefore they would not be able to know their annual allocation nor the allocation for the rehabilitation. A key informant had this to say when requested to comment on budgetary allocation for rehabilitation programmes;

“The money we receive for inmates’ upkeep and daily subsistence is minimal, and due to overcrowding and congestion because currently we have exceeded our holding capacity, we cannot engage in a comprehensive rehabilitation regime. Most of the time we rely on donors and good Samaritans who donate some items such as books, pens and volunteers especially priests and student counsellors to help us in executing some of the rehabilitation programmes”

4.5.1.6 Nairobi West Prison

The Nairobi West Prison was located along Langata Road adjacent to the Wilson Airport Complex. In this institution, we reviewed documents, held interviews with key informants and FGDs for insight understanding of the functions, programmes, operations and opportunities at the institution. The FGD consisted of nine (9) officers; namely one Deputy Officer In charge, the Welfare officer, three Documentation officers, three Prison warders and one Head of school at Nairobi West. These were purposively the main persons dealing with prison rehabilitation programmes at Nairobi West Prison.

4.5.1.7 Prison Population, Pre-Sentence Detainees and Inmates

Records, interviews and the discussion indicated that while the planned capacity for this modest prison was 400, it housed an average of 550 inmates, in which 250 were pre-sentence detainees, 300 were inmates serving their sentences and therefore relevant (appropriate) for study on rehabilitation and related challenges.

4.5.1.8 Rehabilitation Programmes

Records, interviews and FGD indicated that this particular institution had modest rehabilitation programmes. The scope of the rehabilitation included individual counseling, peer counseling, religious sessions, formal education, vocational rehabilitation, commercial and mentorship programme. Part of the outstanding performance was in woodwork and carpentry. Members of the FGD shared experiences of Nairobi West Prison leading in making of the furniture. However, these components were not adequately executed because all of them depended on the availability of the resource persons, facilities and materials.

4.5.1.9 Rehabilitation Outcomes and Sustainability

Similarly, records, interviews and the discussions indicated that the concepts of rehabilitation, and the principles of successful/sustainable rehabilitation, had been given attention at the institutional operation guidelines. In this institution, most of the personnel were aware of the emphasis on sustainable rehabilitation; at least in the context of the Kenya Prison system.

As was the case with the Nairobi Medium Prison, members of the FGD indicated that they were aware of the expected outcomes of the successful/sustainable rehabilitation that included reduced breaking of institutional rules, reduced strikes, change of attitudes, change of character and increased tolerance, easy re-union with the family, rapid re-integration to the community, and reduced convictions among others. More importantly, it included inmates' recognition (or rediscovery) of their talents and capabilities, which they could use in legally and socially acceptable ways.

According to the key informants, the outcomes of the rehabilitation programmes included graduation of inmates on the programmes, award of certificate and character transformation. Members of the FGD referred to a report indicating that incidences of recidivism reduced from 45% in 2014 to 40% in 2018 within the first year of release at the institution partly, because of some aspects of rehabilitation and enhanced life-skills. Religious rehabilitation services was considered also to be important as they enabled inmates to join churches and to participate actively in other areas of rehabilitation; particularly peer counseling and vocational training.

4.5.1.10 Personnel Status and Challenges at the Institution

Records, interviews and the discussions indicated that in principle there has been severe shortage of professional personnel at the Nairobi West Prison. In this respect, students on attachment and selected inmates were used to support the

other inmates in various areas. Professional personnel supporting rehabilitation in the institution was categorized based on competencies as presented in table 4.31.

Table 4. 31: Personnel Status at the Institution

Profession	Numbers
Trained Teachers	5
Trained Counselors	10
Social Welfare officers	5
Total	20

With a maximum capacity of 600 inmates, the ratio of professional personnel to inmates was 1:30. The adequacy of personnel supporting rehabilitation programmes at the Nairobi West Prison were presented in Table 4.32 below

Table 4. 32: Adequacy of personnel in key areas of rehabilitation

Aspect of prison service	None	Not Adequate	Adequate	Very Adequate
Vocational rehabilitation	√			
Commercial and mentorship		√		
Formal education		√		
Religious rehabilitation sessions			√	
Individual counseling		√		
Peer counseling		√		

Similarly, just like Nairobi Industrial Area prison the rating on the adequacy of personnel indicated that almost all components of rehabilitation did not have adequate personnel. It was instructive to note that religious rehabilitation was

indicated as adequate because of the volunteers' priests that provided scheduled services to the inmates; and therefore, was not an internal capacity.

In this respect, it was agreed that there was a need to employ more trained personnel to support rehabilitation programmes. Individual counseling was a key challenge in this institution because the number of inmates was higher than the available counselors; i.e. students on attachment and/or volunteer personnel, and therefore inmates did not have adequate access to the services.

4.5.1.11 Financial Allocation and Expenditure

Records, interviews and the discussions indicated that limited funds, limited access to the budget (and/or financial estimates) and diminished donor support have been among the key challenges at the institution and the rehabilitation of inmates in the last five (5) years (2014-2018). Available record indicated that the Nairobi West Prison had approximated allocation of Kshs. 30,000, 000 during the financial year 2017 -2018. The inmate per capita cost per day is Kshs. 137 or Kshs. 50,005. Similarly, during the interviews and the discussion, it was observed that the staff at the institution did not have access to the annual financial estimates and expenditure; and therefore did not know the annual financial allocation and related expenditure because. Members of the FGD agreed that in most cases they have been compelled to rely on donor and well-wishers.

4.5.2 Langata Women's Prison

Lang'ata Women's Prison is a maximum-security facility located 10 Kilometres from Nairobi CBD and is in the southern outskirts of Nairobi. The female inmates serve sentences for crimes ranging from murder, robbery, theft, felony to child neglect. The inmates who had children under the age of four years were facilitated to stay with them in their cells since mothers had their own wing in the cells.

Similarly, we reviewed documents, held interviews with key informants and FGD with a view to have greater understanding of the functions, programmes, operations and opportunities at the institution. The FGD consisted of eight (8) officers; namely two Officers In charge Counseling, one Officer in charge of the Industry programme, two Documentation officers, two Prison warders and the Welfare officer.

4.5.2.1 Prison Population, Pre-Sentence Detainees and Inmates

Records, interviews and the discussions indicated that while the capacity for the institution was 500 inmates, Langata Women's Prison housed an average of 650 inmates; in which about 300 were pre-sentence detainees and 350 were serving their sentences; and therefore relevant for the study of rehabilitation and challenges.

4.5.2.2 Rehabilitation Programmes

Records, interviews and FGD indicated that Langata Women's Prison had more elaborate rehabilitation programmes; at least in comparison to Nairobi West Prison and the Nairobi Medium Prison. More specifically, the institution supported rehabilitation programmes that included vocational training (clothing and textile, beadwork, baking, embroidery, masonry, carpentry, electrical engineering, and farming), formal education (law, formal education, computer classes), commercial and mentorship, religious rehabilitation, individual and peer counseling.

It was also reported that Langata Women's Prison had introduced some innovation to some of the rehabilitation programmes; particularly the vocational training, textile and dressmaking, commercial and mentorship. Available reports and data indicated that commercial orders, particularly on textile and dressmaking, were being serviced at the Langata Women's Prison.

Records, interviews and FGD indicated that the approach to rehabilitation in Langata Women's Prison was through mentorship and revenue generating activities in which part of the proceeds went to government and some proportion went to the "working-inmates". This mode of prison-commercial production" has been essentially a form of Appropriations in Aid (A-in-A); i.e. Income that a

Government department is authorized to retain (rather than surrender to the Consolidated Fund).

Inmates reported appreciation of the AiA innovation where funds from the sale of items were apportioned towards facilitation of the production and to the inmate to send home; In turn the inmates responded to the production and rehabilitation programme with greater participation and enthusiasm.

4.5.2.3 Rehabilitation Outcomes and Sustainability

Records, interviews and the discussions indicated that the concepts of rehabilitation, and the principles of successful/sustainable rehabilitation, had been given attention at the institutional guidelines. As was the case with the Nairobi Medium Prison, and Nairobi West Prison, participants of the FGD indicated that they were aware of the expected outcomes of the successful/sustainable rehabilitation. These included reduced breaking of institutional rules, reduced strikes, change of attitudes, change of character and increased tolerance, easy re-union with the family, rapid re-integration to the community, and reduced number of recidivism among others. More importantly, it included inmates' recognition (or rediscovery) of their talents and capabilities, which they could use in legally and socially acceptable ways.

According to the key informants, the outcomes of the rehabilitation programmes included graduation of inmates on the programmes that they enroll in, completion

of the programme, award of certificates and character transformation of inmates. The members of FGD referred to a report indicating that, incidences of recidivism reduced from 47% in 2014 to 42% in 2018 within the first year of release at the institution partly because of some aspects of rehabilitation, enhanced life-skills and improved general socio-economic conditions.

4.5.2.4 Personnel Status and Challenges

Records, interviews and the discussions indicated that in principle there has been severe shortage of personnel at the Langata Women’s Prison. In this respect, students on attachment and selected inmates were used to support the other inmates in various areas. Furthermore, it was noted that wardens were not adequately trained to support the various components of the rehabilitation. Inadequacy of personnel at the Langata Women’s Prison was summarized as indicated in Table 4.33

Table 4. 33: Inadequacy of Personnel in Key Areas of Rehabilitation

Aspect of prison service	None	Not adequate	Adequate	Very Adequate
Vocational rehabilitation		√		
Commercial and Mentorship		√		
Formal education		√		
Religious rehabilitation sessions			√	
Peer counseling		√		
Individual counseling		√		

In summary, no component of rehabilitation had adequate personnel. One of the reasons that contributed to inadequacy of personnel was that a limited number of officers (personnel) were trained to address rehabilitation. Subsequently, the institutions relied largely on interns, volunteers and a limited number of people with experience

4.5.2.5 Financial Allocation and Expenditure

Records, interviews and the discussions indicated that limited funds, limited access to the budget (and/or financial estimates) and diminished donor support have been among the key challenges facing institution capacity in rehabilitation of inmates in the last five (5) years (2014-2018). Available record indicated that the Langata Women prison had an allocation of Kshs. 40,000, 000 during the financial year 2017 - 2018. The key informants indicated that the inmate per capita cost per day was Kshs. 137 equivalent to Kshs. 50,005 in a year.

During the interviews and the discussions, it was established that, the staff at the institution did not have access to the annual financial estimates and expenditure; and therefore did not know the annual financial allocation and related expenditure. Members of the FGD agreed that in most cases they have been compelled to rely on donor and well-wishers to finance rehabilitation programmes.

4.6 The Influence of Inmate Characteristics on Rehabilitation Outcomes

The fifth objective of the study was to examine the influence of inmate characteristics on the rehabilitation outcomes. This was based on a theoretical

framework that provided a perspective that a number of the inmate characteristics influenced rehabilitation. In addition, review of the operational manuals, and discussions with the key informants indicated that a number of characteristics have influenced the rehabilitation in prisons particularly in Kenya and included characteristics identified earlier in this chapter such as the gender, religious affiliation, occupation and residence. Other key characteristics included age of the inmates, education and income of the inmates. In this section, we examine the influence of these characteristics to the rehabilitation.

4.6.1 Influence of Gender on Rehabilitation

In view of the fact that gender was a discrete variable, cross tabulation procedure was used to examine the influence of gender on the rehabilitation outcomes. Accordingly, cross-tabulation was used to analyze the influence of gender of the inmates on various components of rehabilitation. Results of the cross-tabulation analysis involved the degree of freedom (Df) of rows and columns in a table, generated Chi-Square (X^2), the probability of error (P) and the measures of association namely the Cramer's V and summarized in table 4.34 below.

Table 4. 34: Influence of Gender on Rehabilitation Components

		Df	Chi Square	Probability of error	Cramer's V
Commercial and Mentorship		2	21.6	.001	.43
Formal Education		2	17.5	.001	.36
Vocational Rehabilitation		2	15.9	.001	.35
Peer Counseling		2	10.6	.005	.21
Expected success after release plans		4	11.7	.025	.30
Expected sustainability after release		4	9.5	.025	.28
Individual counseling		2	3.4	.189	.11
Religious Rehabilitation		2	2.1	.353	.08

In view of the above results, significant impact of gender on rehabilitation outcomes were; commercial and mentorship (df=2, $X^2=21.7$, $P<.001$), formal education (df=2, $X^2=17.5$, $P<.001$), vocational rehabilitation (df=2, $X^2=15.9$, $P<.001$), the expected success after release (df=4, $X^2=11.7$, $P<.025$, the rate of expected sustainability after release (df=4, $X^2=9.5$, $P<.025$), and peer counseling (df=2, $X^2=10.7$, $P<.005$).

Of the chi-square based measures of association (or influence), Cramer's V was used to examine influence of gender on rehabilitation outcomes. The key advantage over the conventional Pearson C is that it is adjusted to reach zero when the relation does not exist; and to reach 1.00 (or 100%) when the relation

(influence or impact) is at maximum (Cohen & Lea, 2004; Hesse & Oforu, 2018; Katz, 2006; Richard, 1988).

Accordingly, the strength (intensity) of influence (effects) of gender on commercial and mentorship was Cramer's $V=.43$ to be interpreted as equivalent to 43% of the influence, followed by the influence of gender on formal education, Cramer's $V=.36$, again followed closely by the influence of gender on vocational rehabilitation, Cramer's $V=.35$, the effects of gender on expected success after release plans Cramer's $V=.30$, the effects of gender on expected sustainability of plans, Cramer's $V=.28$; and the effects of gender on peer counseling Cramer's $V=.21$. As indicated, commercial and mentorship had some form of compensation and attracted greater and regular participation. Education and vocational training were associated with greater rewards both within and outside the prison.

Principally, through cross-tabulation gender was associated with varied components of the rehabilitation. Indeed a number of studies have reported special needs and consideration in management of women prisoners and their rehabilitation process (Handbook on Women and Imprisonment, 2014). From interviews and FGDs, the sexual characteristic of the inmate was reported to influence the nature of the rehabilitation (or areas of rehabilitation). While Nairobi West Prison specialized in woodwork and furniture, Langata Women's Prison specialized in textile, clothing and dressmaking. In addition, in comparison with

males in Nairobi West Prison, female inmates in Langata Women's Prison tended to adopt different occupation specialization, skill-sets and competencies in their rehabilitation programmes.

Furthermore, differences in gender has been associated with different rehabilitation outcomes, and throughout the rehabilitation process from admission to re-entry to the community environment. Studies have reported that women offenders have been characterized largely by the life experiences and circumstances (PRI 2019, Spjeldnes & Jung 2014, Joiner 2011, Bloom 2006, Reisig et al 2006. Sydney 2005, Bloom et al 2002). These studies maintained a view that as compared to men, most of the women inmates have been characterized by relatively severe limited access to resources to support livelihoods including limited education, skills, poor background, unstable families or single parenthood, and the tendency to come from impoverished environments among others. Accordingly, rehabilitation will need to give special attention to risks and needs of women inmates with a view to improve the rehabilitation outcomes.

In view of the above observations, and the risk-needs-responsivity (RNR) framework, socio-economic vulnerability and desistance theory, women inmates will need greater assessment of their risks, needs, provision of appropriate education, technical education, employment and business experience among others

in order to improve the rehabilitation outcomes. It includes enabling them to re-establish stable and sustainable human and social capital.

4.6.2 Influence of Religious Affiliation on Rehabilitation Outcomes

In view of the fact that religious affiliation was a discrete variable, cross tabulation procedure was used to examine the influence of religious affiliation on the rehabilitation outcomes. Accordingly, cross-tabulation was carried-out between religious affiliations of the inmates and the various components of the rehabilitation. Results of the cross-tabulation analysis involved the degree of freedom (Df) of rows and columns in a table, generated Chi-Square (X^2), the probability of error (P) and the measures of association namely the Cramer's V and summarized in table 4.35.

Table 4. 35: Influence of Religious Affiliation on Rehabilitation Components

	Df	Chi square	Probability of error	Cramer's V
Religious Rehabilitation	4	17.4	.001	.67
Commercial and Mentorship	4	15.7	.001	.36
Formal Education	4	15.5	.001	.34
Vocational Rehabilitation	4	13.4	.001	.34
Expected sustainability after release	8	17.7	.001	.32
Expected success after release	8	15.7	.005	.25
Peer counseling	4	7.8	.010	.21
Individual counseling	4	1.5	.186	.12

Religious affiliation had significant influence on religious rehabilitation ($df=4$, $X^2=17.35$, $P<.001$), commercial and mentorship ($df=4$, $X^2=13.7$, $P<.001$), formal education ($df=4$, $X^2=21.5$, $P<.001$), vocational training ($df=4$, $X^2=9.7$, $P<.05$), expected success after release ($df=8$, $X^2=15.7$, $P<.025$) and expected sustainability after release ($df=8$, $X^2=17.7$, $P<.025$).

The effects of religious affiliation on the religious rehabilitation was substantial i.e Cramer's $V=0.67$ to be interpreted as equivalent to 67%. However, the two variables were essentially the same; and as would be expected, religious affiliation would influence participation and appreciation of the religious sessions. The substantive effects of religious affiliation on the commercial and mentorship was Cramer's $V=.36$, followed by the formal education, Cramer's $V=.34$, followed by the vocational training, Cramer's $V=.29$, the expected success after release plans Cramer's $V=.25$, and the confidence on expected sustainability after release, Cramer's $V=.25$.

These findings is consistent to a study carried out by Grudzina (2016) which reported that religious rehabilitation tends to be most attractive because inmates are able to realign interventions with their values and belief system; and subsequently become less likely to reoffend. In addition, in a longitudinal study on the influence of religion on rehabilitation, Johnson reported that inmates with religious convictions were characterized by reduction of re-arrest by 17% and re-

incarceration by 20% after two years release (Johnson 2008). Other studies have concluded that people who have religious convictions would be less likely to participate in criminal activity or reoffend because of advanced moral development, concern that they will face the consequences from a divine power, close connections with family and other relationships, and the ability to handle unexpected stressful situations (Kittrell 2018, Grudzina 2016, Johnson 2008, 2001, Gerace & Day 2010, Giordano et al 2008, Fernander et al 2005). In view of the above observations, we can conclude that religious values and convictions continue to be useful to rehabilitation practices.

According to Dammer (2002), prison inmates participated in religious sessions and rehabilitation as a way to redeem their thoughts, work and self-conception. Dammer emphasized that Lack of a positive self-concept was a common problem with correctional inmates who have suffered from guilt related to failures in life, remorse from criminal acts, or, from the pain of a dysfunctional family background.

Still other studies have reported an inverse relation between intensity of religious involvement and the presence or absence of in-prison infractions, coping and avoiding trouble. As religious involvement increased the number of inmates with infractions decreased. The findings of the study provide greater insight into the

nature of religion in prison setting and support the view that religion can be an important factor in the process of offender rehabilitation (O'Connor & Perreyclear, 2002). Other reports indicated that after controlling the level of involvement in PF-sponsored programmes, inmates who were most active in Bible studies were significantly less likely to be rearrested during the follow-up period (Johnson et al., 2006).

4.6.3 Influence of Occupation on Rehabilitation Outcomes

In view of the fact that occupation was a discrete variable, cross tabulation procedure was used to examine the influence of occupation on the rehabilitation outcomes. Accordingly, cross-tabulation was carried-out between occupation of the inmates and the various components of the rehabilitation. Results of the cross-tabulation analysis involved the degree of freedom (Df) of rows and columns in a table, generated Chi-Square (X^2), the probability of error (P) and the measures of association namely the Cramer's V as shown in table 4.36.

Table 4. 36: The influence of Occupation on Rehabilitation Components

	Df	Chi square	Probability of error	Cramer's V
Commercial and mentorship	4	17.6	.001	.47
Expected sustainability after release	8	21.7	.005	.37
Formal education	4	15.5	.001	.36
Expected success of plans after release	8	19.2	.005	.33
Vocational Rehabilitation	4	13.5	.001	.33
Individual counseling	4	1.5	.186	.12
Peer counseling	4	7.8	.010	.21
Religious sessions	4	1.0	.353	.09

Occupation had significant effects on commercial and mentorship (df=4, $X^2=17.6$, $P<.001$), expected sustainability after release (df=8, $X^2=21.7$, $P<.005$), formal education (df=4, $X^2=15.50$, $P<.001$), expected success of plans after release plans (df=8, $X^2=19.2$, $P<.005$) and vocational rehabilitation programme (df=4, $X^2=13.5$, $P<.001$).

The influence of occupation on commercial and mentorship was Cramer's $V=.47$, to be interpreted as 47% of influence, followed by expected sustainability after release Cramer's $V=.37$, followed by formal education Cramer's $V=.36$, then expected success after release plans Cramer's $V=.33$ and finally, vocational rehabilitation, Cramer's $V=.33$; to be interpreted as 33% of the influence.

Further, members of the FGD in Nairobi Medium Prison also indicated that inmates who were working (or employed) before the conviction were useful to both the institution and to the rehabilitation. More specifically, they tended to

show substantial interest on their areas of specialization and preparedness to support other inmates in enhancing their skills and competencies.

It is well acknowledged that occupation and employment are integral aspect of the socio-economic vulnerability theory which can be eroded (diminished) during conviction and incarceration and at the same time can be rebuild during institutional and in post release rehabilitation to support livelihoods and sustainability after release (PRI 2018, Alper & Durose 2018, Looney & Turner 2018, Duwe 2017, Muinoz 2016, Visher et al 2008). These studies have reported that those who had stable occupations contributed easily to both pre and post release rehabilitation outcomes. More importantly some of them were able to improve their trade during rehabilitation, and were subsequently able to regain their occupation (or employment) upon release and were able to sustain their release beyond nine years (Alper & Durose 2018, Duwe 2017, Visher et al 2008). In addition to the role occupation and employment play in prior, during and after institutional rehabilitation, there has also been increasing interest on the link and the point of link of the two interrelated components to desistance to crime (Looney & Turner 2018, Bhuller et al 2018, Muinoz 2016, Krienert & Fleisher 2004).

4.6.4 Influence of Residence on Rehabilitation Outcomes

In view of the fact that residence was a discrete variable, cross tabulation procedure was used to examine the influence of residence on the rehabilitation outcomes. Accordingly, cross-tabulation was carried-out between residence of the

inmates and the various components of the rehabilitation. Results of the cross-tabulation analysis involved the degree of freedom (Df) of rows and columns in a table, generated Chi-Square (X^2), the probability of error (P) and the measures of association namely the Cramer's V as presented in table 4.37.

Table 4. 37: The influence of Residence on Rehabilitation Components

	Df	Chi square	Probability of error	Cramer's V
Commercial and Mentorship	6	27.6	.001	.43
Formal education	6	25.4	.001	.37
Vocational Rehabilitation	6	21.1	.001	.35
Expected success of plans after release	10	23.2	.032	.28
Expected sustainability after release	10	21.9	.035	.24
Peer counseling	6	14.8	.005	.21
Individual counseling	6	14.0	.186	.12
Religious Rehabilitation	6	3.3	.353	.09

Residence had significant effects on commercial and mentorship (df=6, $X^2=27.6$, $P<.001$), followed by formal education (df=6, $X^2=25.4$, $P<.001$), vocational rehabilitation (df=6, $X^2=21.1$, $P<.001$), expected success after release plans

(df=10, $X^2=23.2$, $P<.023$), and the expected sustainability of livelihood after release (df=10, $X^2=21.3$, $P<.032$).

The influence (effects) of residence was Cramer's $V=.43$ for commercial and mentorship programme; interpreted as 43%, followed by the formal education Cramer's $V=.37$, vocational rehabilitation Cramer's $V=.35$, expected success after release plans Cramer's $V=.28$, expected sustainability after release Cramer's $V=.24$.

Residence of the inmates prior and after correctional rehabilitation has been considered an important aspect of the socio-economic vulnerability theory, which may be a barrier to rehabilitation, and/or sustainability of release (Duwe 2017, Steiner et al 2014, Ndombi 2014, Chamberlain 2012). More specifically, impoverished urban or peri-urban residence have been associated with cases of increased crime vulnerability, distorted rehabilitation outcomes and increased risks toward reoffending (Looney & Turner 2018, Alper & Durose 2018).

4.6.5 Influence of Age on Rehabilitation Outcomes

It will be recalled that data for age was continuous and therefore interval classification and subsequently the analysis of influence on rehabilitation outcomes of the various components was based on regression procedure. The key aspects of the regression analysis include F ratio, the ration within and between variance, probability of error (P), regression correlation (R) and Regression

squared (R^2) indicating the strength of relation as well as the percentage of variation explained. Table 4.38 is a summary of the outcomes of the analysis.

Table 4. 38: The influence of Age on Rehabilitation Components

Components of Rehabilitation	N	F	P	R	R²
Formal education	243	27.8	.001	.55	.30
Vocational Rehabilitation	242	21.6	.001	.52	.27
Commercial and Mentorship	252	1.1	.31	.07	.00
Religious Rehabilitation	263	1.2	.28	.07	.00
Individual counseling	246	.01	.91	.01	.00
Peer counseling	239	.03	.86	.01	.00
Expected success after release	246	15.7	.001	.35	.12
Expected sustainability after release	243	17.3	.001	.37	.14

In principle, significant influence of age were on the vocational rehabilitation, formal education, and expected success after release plans as well as expected sustainability after release. More specifically, the influence of age on formal education to $F = 27.8$ with probability of error (P) less than 0.001. Further, $R = 0.55$; and $R^2 = 0.30$ as measure of degree of influence, explained variance, and reflected that age accounted for 30% of variation on the formal education. Similarly, vocational rehabilitation resulted to $F = 21.6$ with probability of error (P) less than 0.001. Further, $R = 0.52$; and $R^2 = 0.27$ as measure of degree of

influence, explained variance, and reflected that age accounted for 27% of variation on the vocational rehabilitation programme. In summary, age was a principle determinant of formal education and vocational rehabilitation. This was consistent with the theory of life course that specify capabilities of inmates along the chronological age and the principle that rehabilitation would be improved taking into account the age of inmates.

The influence of age on expected success after release plans resulted to $F = 15.7$ and a P value of less than 0.001. The degree of influence was $R=0.35$; $R^2=0.12$, indicating that age explained 12% of the variation in expected success after release plans. In view of the fact that this relation was positive, we concluded that age of the inmates influenced the expectation to succeed after release.

Further, the influence of age on expected sustainability after release resulted to $F = 17.3$ and a P less than 0.001. The magnitude of the relation was $R=0.37$; $R^2=0.14$ indicating that age explained 14% of the variation in expected sustainability after release. In view of the fact that this relation was positive, we concluded also that the age of the inmates influenced the expectation to maintain sustainable plans after release.

As in the case of the Nairobi West Prison, records, interviews and the FGD indicated that younger inmates tended to embrace various rehabilitation approaches, and older inmates tended to be reluctant to certain approaches to

rehabilitation. The older inmates were not able to relate to formal education and vocational rehabilitation because of the view that they could not see immediate benefits.

4.6.6 Influence of Education on Rehabilitation Outcomes

In addition, data for education was continuous and therefore, interval classification and subsequently the analysis of influence on rehabilitation outcomes of the various components was based on regression procedure as presented in Table 4.39.

Table 4. 39: The influence of Education on rehabilitation components

Components of Rehabilitation	N	F	P	R	R²
Formal education	244	41.4	.00	.78	.61
Vocational Rehabilitation	242	32.3	.00	.58	.34
Commercial and Mentorship	253	1.6	.31	.07	.01
Religious Rehabilitation	263	3.3	.07	.11	.01
Individual counseling	246	.16	.69	.03	.00
Peer counseling	240	.67	.41	.05	.00
Expected success after release plans	246	21.5	.00	.32	.10
Expected sustainability after release	234	27.7	.00	.47	.22

The influence of the education of the inmates on educational rehabilitation outcome was considerable; resulting to $F = 41.4$ with a P value of less than 0.001.

The degree of influence was $R=0.78$; $R^2=0.61$; indicating that education of the inmates explained 61% of the variation in embracing formal education in prison.

The influence of education on vocational programme in prison was still considerable; where $F = 32.3$ at a P value less than 0.001. The intensity of the relation was $R=0.58$; $R^2=0.34$; indicating that education of the inmates explained 34% of the variation in embracing vocational rehabilitation in prison. In view of the fact that this relation was also positive, we concluded that education of the inmate promoted or influenced practices towards vocational programme in prison.

The influence of education of the inmate on expected success after release plans resulted to $F = 21.5$ and P was less than 0.001. The magnitude of the relation was $R=0.32$; $R^2=0.10$; indicating that education explained 10% of the variation in expected success after release. Similarly, in view of the fact that this relation was positive, it was therefore, concluded that education of the inmates influenced the expectation or even commitment to succeed after release. In addition, the effects of education sustainability after release resulted to $F = 27.7$ with a P value of less than 0.001. The magnitude of the relation was $R=0.47$; $R^2=0.22$; indicating that education explained 22% of the variation in expected sustainability after release. In view of the fact that this relation was positive, as a result education of the inmates influenced the expectation for sustainable plans after release.

In view of these results, education of the inmate was the principle determinant of formal education, vocational rehabilitation, expected success after release plans and sustainability after release. This was consistent with the importance of education and the theory of socio-economic vulnerability where education has

been expected to provide capacities to support rehabilitation and to reduce risks related to crimes and reoffending.

Further reports from Nairobi west Prison indicated that while advance education was useful to the rehabilitation, low education was a major barrier to rehabilitation. Members of the FGD reported experiences where inmates with advanced education (college or technical education) demonstrated greater propensity to embrace rehabilitation, reformed and minimal come back to prison compared to those that had limited education. In addition, education was the most critical challenge because most of the inmates 44% had primary education and below.

The most convincing evidence that education for prisoners has a positive effect on post-release behavior of prisoners in the United States was provided by the three-state recidivism study (Steurer et al., 2001). This notable study, conducted in the states of Maryland, Minnesota and Ohio, compared two groups of offenders, those who had participated in correctional education while in prison and those who had not (referred to as non-participants). The study was designed to assess not only the impact of correctional education on recidivism but also on employment outcomes after release from prison. This study concluded that education for prisoners enhances employment opportunities, decreases criminal behavior and, in so doing, reduces the overall cost of crime to the community.

Various scholars have maintained two broad views on function of education in prison. One is that the primary function of education is to mitigate devastating effects of imprisonment (Costelloe & Warner, 2008; Behan, 2007) and the other view is to nurture (or facilitate) development of skills necessary for employment after release (Schuller, 2009; Dawe, 2007; Harper & Chitty, 2005, Hawley & Murphy, 2013). More specifically, Hawley and Murphy (2013) have emphasized on education directed at minimizing propensity to crime and enhancing employment, social cohesion and integration to society. Others have maintained a view that education in prison is an end in itself with potential to promote active citizenship (Costelloe, 2014).

In practice, correctional education encompasses academic as well as vocational education; in which the overarching goal is to reduce offending tendencies; and therefore enable offenders to desist from crime. For example, a study by Gendreau (1993) reported that effective correctional education programmes reduced recidivism among participants in a range of 25% to 80% with an average of 50%. Other studies have also reported that higher qualifications result in lower rates of recidivism (Bruyns & Nieuwenhuizen 2014, Hawley et al 2013, Lockwood et al.2012).

4.6.7 Influence of Income on Rehabilitation

Regression analysis was used to examine the influence income of the inmates before incarceration on rehabilitation outcomes in the various components;

because income as the independent variable and the various aspects of rehabilitation were classified, (operationalized) as interval data. The outcomes of the analysis were summarized in Table 4.40.

Table 4. 40: The influence of Income on rehabilitation components

Components of Rehabilitation	N	F	P	R	R²
Vocational Rehabilitation	151	27.5	.00	.59	.35
Formal education	155	21.8	.00	.45	.20
Commercial and Mentorship	156	.44	.51	.05	.00
Religious Rehabilitation	163	7.7	.01	.21	.05
Individual counseling	152	.92	.34	.09	.01
Peer counseling	149	.09	.76	.03	.00
Expected success after release plans	150	25.9	.00	.47	.22
Expected sustainability after release	145	37.6	.00	.54	.29

In principle, significant influence of income were on the vocational rehabilitation, formal education, and expected success after release plans as well as sustainability after release. More specifically, the effects of income on vocational rehabilitation resulted to $F=27.5$ with P (probability of error) less than 0.001. Further, $R = 0.59$; R^2 of 0.35 as explained variance, reflected magnitude of the influence and indicated that income accounted for 35% of variation on the vocational rehabilitation programme. The influence of income on formal education in prison

resulted to $F = 21.8$ and P (probability of error) less than 0.001. The degree of influence was $R=0.45$; $R^2=0.20$ indicating that income of the inmates explained 20% of the variation in embracing formal education in prison.

The effects of income of the inmate on expected success after release plans resulted to $F = 37.00$ with a P value of less than 0.001. The magnitude of the relation was $R=0.47$; $R^2=0.22$, indicating that education explained 22% of the variation in expected success after release plans. Further, the influence of income on expected sustainability after release resulted to $F = 37.6$ while the P value was less than 0.001. The degree of influence was $R=0.54$; $R^2=0.29$, indicating that income explained 29% of the variation in expected sustainability after release.

In view of these results, income of the inmate prior to incarceration was the principle determinant of formal education, vocational rehabilitation, expected success after release plans and sustainability after release. This was consistent with the importance of socio-economic vulnerability theory in which resources provide capacity to support rehabilitation and to reduce risks related to crimes and reoffending (Duwe 2017, Muasya 2013).

Other studies have also acknowledged that income is an integral aspect of the socio-economic vulnerability theory which can be eroded (diminished) during conviction and incarceration and at the same time can be rebuild during institutional rehabilitation, and post release rehabilitation to support livelihoods

and sustainability of the post institutional release (PRI 2018, Rabuy & Kopf 2015, Ashish 2014, Ndombi 2014, Krienert & Fleisher 2004, Freeman 1996; 1991; Grogger,1995). It involves the view that poverty as a component of socio-economic vulnerability and as inability to meet basic needs has been associated with increased crime rate, imprisonment, challenges in rehabilitation and re-offending (Duque & McKnight 2019, Rabuy & Kopf 2015, Ashish 2014, Wacquant 2009).

4.7 Challenges to Improved Rehabilitation Outcomes

The sixth objective was to identify key challenges to effective rehabilitation and necessary intervention measures. In order to address this objective, respondents were requested to identify key challenges (barriers) to achieving or improving their reform efforts. Key responses were summarized in Table 4.41 below.

Table 4. 41: Barriers to improved rehabilitation outcomes

Key challenges/barriers	Frequencies	Percent
Congestions and Poor Sanitation	88	31
Limited facilities and Personnel	68	24
Poor health, Stress and homesickness	47	17
Inadequate time devoted to rehabilitation	35	12
Corporal Punishment	27	10
Discrimination/Corruption	10	04
Other (Language, Lack of information & beliefs)	7	02
Total	283	100.0
Missing	3	

Key barriers reported by the respondents included congestion and poor sanitation (31%), limited facilities and personnel (24%), poor health, stress and homesickness (17%), inadequate time devoted to rehabilitation (12%), corporal punishment (10%), discrimination/corruption (04%) and other challenges accounted for 2%.

This study finding is similar to other research findings (Hawley & Murphy, 2013; Abrifor et al., 2012; Soyombo, 2009; Wilson, 2008; Sarkin, 2008) which indicated that under funding, high prison population and overcrowding; particularly in developing countries continue to be among the key barriers to effective rehabilitation outcomes.

4.7.1 Congestion and Poor Sanitation

Further to the need to identify the challenges, respondents were requested to rate the extent to which congestion and poor sanitation obstructed their efforts to reform and responses were presented in table 4.42.

Table 4. 42: Congestion and Poor Sanitation

Rating of Congestion	Frequencies	Percent
High obstruction	197	70
Low obstruction	52	18
No obstruction	34	12
Total	283	100.0
Missing	3	

Majority (70%) of the respondents indicated that congestion and poor sanitation had a high obstruction to rehabilitation outcomes, 18% indicated low obstruction while 12% indicated no obstruction. This study finding is similar to other research findings (Musyoka, 2013, Omboto, 2010 and Amanda, 2006) which observed that overcrowding and congestion, poor diet, poor sanitation, degrading clothing and beddings, lack of clean water, inadequate availability of resources and inadequate professional skills by prison officers among others largely affect rehabilitation outcomes.

4.7.2 Limited Facilities and Personnel

Similarly, respondents were requested to rate the extent to which limited facilities and personnel obstructed their efforts to reform and responses were presented in table 4.43.

Table 4. 43: Limited Facilities and Personnel

Rating of facilitators	Frequencies	Percent
High obstruction	163	58
Low obstruction	73	25
No obstruction	47	17
Total	283	100.0
Missing	3	

Majority of the respondents (58%) indicated that limited facilities and personnel had high obstruction to rehabilitation outcomes, 25% indicated low obstruction while 17% indicated no obstruction. The findings of this study is similar to a study carried out by Omboto (2013) which reported that inadequate professional personnel is a barrier to effective rehabilitation outcomes. He observed that both junior and senior prison officers are not people of integrity and are not well educated and specifically trained to handle rehabilitation. Rehabilitation requires in-depth understanding of human behavior, human growth and human destiny.

4.7.3 Poor health, Stress and Homesickness

In addition, respondents were requested to rate the extent to which poor health, stress and homesickness obstructed their efforts to reform and responses were presented in table 4.44.

Table 4. 44: Poor Health, Stress and Homesickness

Rating of facilitators	Frequencies	Percent
High obstruction	138	49
Low obstruction	91	33
No obstruction	52	18
Total	283	100
Missing	3	

Majority (49%) of the respondents indicated that poor health, stress and homesickness had high obstruction to effective rehabilitation outcomes, 33% indicated low obstruction while 18% indicated no obstruction.

4.7.4 Limited Time allocated to Rehabilitation Programmes

Respondents were also requested to rate the extent to which time allocated to rehabilitation programmes obstructed their efforts to reform and responses were presented in table 4.45.

Table 4. 45: Time Allocation

Rating of time allocation	Frequencies	Percent
High obstruction	146	52
Low obstruction	80	28
No obstruction	55	20
Total	281	100.0
Missing	5	

In view of the above data, majority (52%) of the respondents indicated that time allocated to rehabilitation programmes had high obstruction to rehabilitation outcomes, 28% indicated low obstruction while 20% indicated no obstruction. The findings were supported by key informants and focused group discussions who indicated that rehabilitation exist largely in paper but in practice given limited attention because of a wide range of challenges.

4.7.5 Corporal Punishment

Respondents were also requested to rate the extent to which corporal punishment obstructed their efforts to reform and responses were presented in table 4.46.

Table 4. 46: Corporal punishment

Rating of facilitators	Frequencies	Percent
High obstruction	88	31.1
Low obstruction	143	50.5
No obstruction	52	18.4
Total	283	100
Missing	3	

Majority (50.5%) of the respondents indicated that corporal punishment had low obstruction to effective rehabilitation outcomes, 31.1% indicated high obstruction while 18.4% had no obstruction.

4.7.2 Proposed Measures to Improving Rehabilitation Outcomes

Part of the sub-objectives of the objective six was to identify necessary interventions to improve rehabilitation outcomes. In view of this sub-objective, respondents were requested to propose immediate intervention measures to improve rehabilitation and responses were represented in Table 4.47.

Table 4. 47: Proposed Intervention Measures

Intervention Measures	Frequencies	Percent
Improve facilities and personnel	135	48
Expand rehabilitation Programmes (Including short courses & options)	70	25
Improve welfare of prison wardens	36	13
Address decongestion	20	07
Allocate enough funds for rehabilitation programmes	15	05
Develop after release follow-up	7	02
Total	283	100
Missing	3	

Majority (48%) of the respondents proposed improved facilities and personnel, 25% proposed expansion of rehabilitation programmes, 13% improve welfare of prison warders, 7% proposed decongestion of prison facilities, 5% increased funding for rehabilitation while 2% proposed developing after release follow up.

The findings are consisted with the UNODC (2017) report, which indicated that for rehabilitation to be successful a comprehensive and a truly rehabilitative regime needs to be put in place. Meeting the basic needs of prisoners, providing decent living conditions, addressing healthcare needs, ensuring constructive relationship between prison staff and prisoners and ensuring the provision of post

release support and supervision are fundamental requirements for successful rehabilitation.

Further, measures proposed to improve rehabilitation outcomes by the FGDs carried out in the three prison institutions was summarized below.

1. To incorporate inmate characteristics and interests in the rehabilitation policy framework, procedures and expected outcomes; with a view to tap talent, enhance specialization, minimize conflicts and/or contradictions
2. Women facilities including Langata will need to be given special attention in rehabilitation practices because of unique needs for the women inmates
3. To document and to implement policies on rehabilitation, procedures and required outcomes
4. To incorporate the role of the donors on the rehabilitation policy framework, operations and expected outcomes; with a view to enhance resources towards rehabilitation
5. To put in place measures to modernize prison institutions, expand programmes, facilities, rehabilitation resources and personnel
6. To put in place measures to improve capacity of the personnel, training, remuneration and standards corresponding to a given number of inmates
7. To put in place mechanisms to enforce follow up programme after release on a regular and sustainable ways;

Although the importance and the virtues of rehabilitation were recognized, implementation went against many odds including lack of rehabilitation policy, inadequate infrastructure and resources, inadequate funding and inadequate personnel. Records, interviews and the discussions indicated that officers in charge of the institution determines the nature of the rehabilitation programmes offered and mobilizes necessary resources for the programmes.

Records, interviews and the FGDs indicated the need to classify rehabilitation programmes based on age and any other relevant criteria. A policy framework with such classification would address a number of issues including relevance and matching rehabilitation with the characteristics of the inmates. It will also address the challenge of the remandees that have been in custody for more than three (3) months.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, we present the summary of key findings, conclusions and recommendations along the key objectives; namely, the characteristics of the prison inmates and related risks, rehabilitation outcomes, types of rehabilitation practices and usefulness, and the way institutional capacity and characteristics of the inmates influenced the rehabilitation outcomes including after release plans

5.1 Summary of Findings

5.1.1 Inmate Characteristics and Risks

In respect to the characteristics of the inmates which was the first objective of the study, we observed that majority (82%) of the inmates were relatively young population between 18 and 45; with potential for rehabilitation into law-abiding and productive citizens. Although majority (61.5%) were men, women had a considerable representation (38.5%) because of inclusion of Langata Women Prison in the study. Majority (87%) of the respondents received limited support from their families; i.e. either rarely, never or indeed excluded. In addition, majority of the respondents (66%) were affiliated to Protestant religion, followed by Catholics (23%) and Muslims (11%) a distribution that was substantially similar to those of the previous reports (KNBS, 2013).

Out of the 286 respondents, 46% had limited education; primary education and below; majority (63.3%) of the inmates came from peri-urban environment, and 75% had vulnerable occupations; specifically, when self-employed (petty traders) and casual laborers were combined. While 77% cumulatively earned less than 20 USD per day, 63% earned less than nine (9) USD per day prior to imprisonment and therefore lived in extreme poverty. In principle, majority of the inmates lived in extreme poverty defined as living on less than two (2) USD per day. Most of them (85%) had committed crimes that included murder, robbery with violence, stealing, drug trafficking and rape among others, and 65% have been either rearrested or reconvicted.

These characteristics and risks were consistent with those of the RNR and socio-economic vulnerability perspectives in which common vulnerabilities (or risks) include age at the time of arrest, gender, criminal history, drug use, limited skills (serious skills deficiency), low education, unemployment and living in conditions of poverty.

5.1.2 Rehabilitation Outcomes

In respect to the rehabilitation outcomes which was the second objective of the study, we observed that virtually all indicators derived from RNR and socio-economic vulnerability framework reflected limited or inadequate rehabilitation outcomes. Out of 286 respondents, 67% indicated that they experienced limited (or low) reduction in the tendency to rule breaking (or institutional infraction); 76%

reported limited participation in the design of their rehabilitation plan; 81% reported that rehabilitation process did not address the key (underlying) challenges associated with committing crime, conviction and finally ending up at the correction institution. In addition, out of the 286 respondents 62% reported that they experienced limited new knowledge or skills that they would use to address some of the challenges that pushed them to commit crime, conviction and sent to the correction institution; 82% indicated that they had no access to any apprenticeship during the period of their sentences and rehabilitation sessions and 62% reported that they were not engaged in productive activities.

Further, 63% of the respondents indicated that they were not exposed to employment experience; 87% indicated that they were not given opportunity to engage prospective employers; up to 88% indicated that they were not given opportunity to visit their respective families in preparation to their release; 83% indicated that they had not experienced any preparation towards their release; 87% indicated that they had limited experience on after release risk reduction, to support their re-entry to the community and to sustain their release. On a promising note, 65% of the inmates reported that they developed values and convictions towards self-respect and moral responsibility to others. In addition, out of 205 inmates 40% reported to have developed competencies towards Entrepreneurship skills and practices. Majority (66%) planned to start a business

after release. However, 67% report that they did not have adequate confidence that their future plans would be sustained. Results were consistent with life course perspective and socio-economic vulnerability perspectives; where vulnerabilities at various phases of life accumulate to increase the risks towards crime, ineffective rehabilitation and reoffending tendencies

5.1.3 Types of Rehabilitation Practices and Usefulness

In terms of the types of rehabilitation practices and usefulness, which was the third objective of the study, we observed varied participation and rating of usefulness, Rehabilitation practices included; individual counseling service, peer group counseling service, religious counseling service, formal education, vocational rehabilitation involving carpentry and joinery, welding, farming, building and masonry, entrepreneurship skills, and commercial and mentorship

Participation at the rehabilitation practices ranged from 48% to 23%; where vocational rehabilitation was 48%, religious rehabilitation 42%, individual counseling 34%, peer counseling 31%, commercial and mentorship 30% and formal education 23%. It will be noted that commercial and mentorship (30%) was largely available at the Langata Women Prison and formal education was available to a limited number of inmates. Rating of the usefulness ranged from 66% to 29%; where Religious Rehabilitation 66%, Vocational Rehabilitation 57%, Commercial

and Mentorship 54%, Peer Counseling 35%, Formal Education 34% and Individual Counseling 29%

5.1.4 Institutional Capacity and Sustainability

In respect to the institutional capacity which was the fourth objective of the study, we observed that the three study institutions had similar challenges, which included increased prison population, presence of pre-trial detainees, overcrowding (and/or congestion), diminished food ratios and eroded sanitary conditions. In addition, the three institutions had severely limited capacity to support envisaged rehabilitation. Overcrowding stood at an average of 145% which meant that the capacity was exceeded by an average of 45%. Although overall personnel stood at 1:37; rehabilitation personnel were much more limited and the institutions relied largely on interns and volunteers. The per capita budget allocation stood at Kshs 137 per day per inmate. In view of these constraints, the three institutions adopted different emphasis. Nairobi Medium Prison emphasized religious rehabilitation, limited emphasis to formal education and vocational rehabilitation. Nairobi West Prison emphasized formal education and vocational rehabilitation particularly carpentry and woodwork; and Langata Women Prison emphasized formal education, vocational rehabilitation, commercial and mentorship. Part of the rehabilitation practices served dual purposes; to rehabilitate inmates and generate revenue particularly in terms of Appropriation in Aid (AIA)

or even (revolving fund) to support rehabilitation programmes. In this respect, it was reported that increased population had outstripped available resources; particularly personnel, finances, equipment and working materials.

5.1.5 Influence of Inmate Characteristics on Prison Rehabilitation Programmes

In terms of the influence of the inmate characteristics which was the fifth objective of the study, we observed that a number of characteristics had influence on different types of the rehabilitation outcomes, Gender has significant and substantial influence on commercial and mentorship practices, formal education, vocation rehabilitation expected success of release and expected sustainability of release. Similarly, religious affiliations had significant and substantial influence on commercial and mentorship practices, formal education, vocation rehabilitation expected success of release and expected sustainability of release, Further, occupation had influence on a number of rehabilitation outcomes including commercial and mentorship practices, formal education, vocation rehabilitation expected success of release and expected sustainability of release

In addition, age had significant and substantial influence on formal education, vocation rehabilitation, expected success of release and expected sustainability of release. Education had significant and substantial influence on formal education, vocation rehabilitation, expected success of release and expected sustainability of release. Income was also associated with significant and substantial differences on

formal education, vocation rehabilitation, expected success of release and expected sustainability of release.

Similarly, results were consistent with life course perspective and socio-economic vulnerability perspectives; where vulnerabilities at various phases of life accumulate to increase the risks towards crime, ineffective rehabilitation and reoffending tendencies.

5.1.6 Challenges On Improved Rehabilitation Outcomes

In respect to challenges towards improved rehabilitation outcomes which was the sixth objective of the study, a number of challenges were reported by the inmates which included congestions and poor sanitation, limited facilities and personnel, poor health, stress and homesickness, inadequate time allocated to rehabilitation, corporal punishment and discrimination/corruption.

5.2 Conclusion

5.2.1 Inmate Characteristics and Risks

In view of the above observations, it was concluded that most of the inmates were young, with limited education, vulnerable occupations and lived within extreme poverty. Considerable proportion of the inmates were women and had limited family support and social capital. Majority of the inmates came from peri-urban environment and had been arrested more than once. These characteristics and risks were consistent with those of the RNR and socio-economic vulnerability

perspectives in which common vulnerabilities (or risks) include age at the time of arrest, gender, criminal history, drug use, limited skills (serious skills deficiency), low education, unemployment and living in conditions of poverty.

5.2.2 Rehabilitation Outcomes

In addition, it was concluded that rehabilitation outcomes were substantially limited or inadequate in all indicators including compliance to institutional rules, participation of inmates in the design of their respective rehabilitation plans, rehabilitation response to key challenges underlying commission of crime and subsequent conviction, key knowledge and skills acquired during rehabilitation which were necessary in addressing the underlying challenges, access to apprenticeship, engagement on productive activities, exposure to employment experience, opportunity to engage with prospective employers, opportunity to visit the family with a view to maintain support, the level in which the inmates were prepared for release and whether the inmates made after release plans. Although they had after release plans, most of the inmates did not have confidence on either their success or sustainability.

These characteristics were consistent with those of the life course perspective and socio-economic vulnerability theory; where the early phases of life have typically been associated with socio-economic risks leading to increased crime risks, rehabilitation challenges and reoffending tendencies. Socio economic vulnerability maintains a view that certain characteristics that include limited education,

vocational skills, seasonal occupation or unemployment, poverty, unstable family background and inadequate social support promote crime tendencies, limited responses to rehabilitation and outcomes; including prerelease preparedness and post release reoffending, reconviction and return to incarceration (recidivism). More specifically, poverty as a component of socio-economic vulnerability and as inability to meet basic needs has been associated with increased crime rate, imprisonment inadequate rehabilitation and subsequent reoffending.

5.2.3 Types of Rehabilitation Practices and Usefulness

The types of rehabilitation practices in the study institutions included; individual counseling service, peer counseling service, religious counseling service, formal education, vocational rehabilitation and commercial and mentorship. The leading practices (above average) on daily participation included Commercial and mentorship, vocational rehabilitation and religious rehabilitation; participation in the rest were minimal (below average). Similarly, the leading practices (above average) in respect of usefulness included; religious rehabilitation, commercial and mentorship, and vocational rehabilitation; and usefulness in the rest was minimal (below average).

5.2.4 Institutional Capacity to Support Rehabilitation

It was concluded that the three study institutions had similar challenges, which included increased prison population, pre-trial detainees, overcrowding (and/or congestion), diminished food ratios and eroded sanitary conditions. Further, the

three institutions had severely limited capacity to support envisaged rehabilitation. In addition to overcrowding, the three institution had limited personnel to address rehabilitation and severely limited financial resources.

5.2.5 Influence of Inmate Characteristics on Rehabilitation Outcomes

A number of characteristics had significant and substantial influence on the rehabilitation outcomes. The characteristics that had significant and substantial influence included gender of the inmate, religious affiliation, occupation, age, education and pre-incarceration income of the inmates. While gender had strong influence on commercial and mentorship practices, formal education and vocation rehabilitation; religious affiliation had strong influence on commercial and mentorship practices, formal education, vocation rehabilitation expected success of release and expected sustainability of release.

In addition, while age had strong influence on formal education, vocation rehabilitation, expected success of release and expected sustainability of release; education had strong influence also on formal education, vocation rehabilitation, expected success of release and expected sustainability of release Income was also associated with significant and substantial differences on formal education, vocation rehabilitation, expected success of release and expected sustainability of release.

Accordingly, it was concluded that the characteristics that had influence on rehabilitation outcomes were consistent with life course perspective and socio-economic vulnerability theory; where vulnerabilities at various phases of life accumulate to increase the risks towards crime, ineffective rehabilitation and reoffending tendencies.

5.2.6 Challenges On Improved Rehabilitation Outcomes

It was concluded that some of the key challenges included congestions and poor sanitation, limited facilities and personnel, poor health, stress and homesickness, inadequate time allocated to rehabilitation, corporal punishment and discrimination/corruption.

5.3 Recommendations

5.3.1 Enhanced Rehabilitation Policy

In view of limited rehabilitation outcomes, limited institutional capacity and increased vulnerabilities of the inmates, it was recommended that the rehabilitation policy should be reviewed and enhanced to 1) strengthen rehabilitation along the UN guidelines including 2015 minimum rules and the various roadmaps (UNODC 2017, 2015, 2013); 2) ensure provision of adequate resources particularly in terms of personnel, facilities, equipment and budgetary allocations, 3) incorporate and expand prison industries in order to expand apprenticeship, work experience and to generate revenue which can be shared with the inmate, 4) encourage collaboration

with development partners to supplement technical capacity and the budget; 5) adopt a rehabilitation plan for each inmate incorporating post-release support follow up; and 6) incorporate risks and needs of the inmates into the rehabilitation plans.

5.3.2 Rehabilitation Department

In addition, it was recommended that department of rehabilitation be strengthened in ways that 1) each institution will have adequate core and qualified staff that would be responsible for the entire process of rehabilitation; i.e. from admission to post-release support, 2) they have a budget line in the overall prison budget to support the operations, and 3) ability to coordinate resources from the development partners. In view of persistently limited allocation and increasing needs, a mechanism could be established towards sustainable financing of prisons. In keeping with the international practices and standards, a mechanism will need to be established towards direct financing of rehabilitation programmes. In order to enhance capacity to upgrade (or scale up) rehabilitation, the prison department needs to promote, adapt and engage collaboration or partnerships with development or humanitarian agencies. This will be necessary to enhance financial and technical capacity towards design, development, execution and evaluation of the rehabilitation programmes. In addition, the Kenya Prison Service (KPS) should consider collaborating with private industries to offer employment opportunities to inmates while still in incarceration and after release. Taking into considerations the

conditions of labour and minimum wages. This will ensure that the prison inmates are able to take care of their responsibilities while in prison and sustainable livelihood after release.

5.3.3 Expansion of Prison Industries

Accordingly, it was recommended that prison industries be expanded and commercialized with a view to expand apprenticeship, work experience and to generate revenue which can be shared with the inmate, Example include expanding commercial and mentorship which exist in Langata Women Prison. Besides providing apprenticeship and work experience to the inmates, they will enhance resources available to the institutions. The prison authorities should also come up with a mechanism to enable prisoners to have a personal account in which to save money for their release. These requirements form part of the principle of normalization of prison life, which should underpin all working arrangements in prisons, including normal working hours, health and safety considerations, adequate remuneration and inclusion of prisoners in the national social security system. It will hosting open days and employers' fairs to showcase the training and work that they provide. This will help in marketing inmates who receive vocational training in prisons and encourage employers in the community to employ people with a criminal history is to ensure successful employment outcomes and prevent recidivism.

5.3.3 The Process of Risks and Needs Assessment

In view of the fact that the prevailing practices do not take into account the risks, vulnerabilities and needs of the inmates, it was recommended that the process of assessing the risks and needs of the inmates be streamlined and strengthened with a view to enable institutions to understand the nature of the socio-economic vulnerabilities, and to link those risks and needs with the rehabilitation plan and practices; and eventually to improve rehabilitation outcomes.

5.3.4 Rehabilitation Plan and Support

It was recommended that a rehabilitation plan be established for each inmate, which will be used to guide rehabilitation, to build required support and post-release follow-up. Such plan and support should be able to guide pre and post-release rehabilitation, provide inmates with start capacity and to offset vulnerabilities that could cause relapse into reoffending.

5.4 Recommendations for Further Research

The study recommends future research to:

- i. Investigate the gender differential as far as the impact of the rehabilitation outcomes and self-sustenance/sustainability with ex-convicts.
- ii. Explore the contribution of the rehabilitation programmes on the former inmates in the rural and urban areas.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Table for Determination of sample Size by Krejcie & Morgan (1970)

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	354
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	370
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	226	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	254	2600	335	100000	384

Note: N is Population Size; S is Sample Size *Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970*

It is instructive to note that Krejcie & Morgan (1970) formulated the above table with a view to make it easier to determine the sample sizes for known or finite populations. Therefore, for a population that is equal to or greater than 1,000,000, the sample size of 384 is adequate.

Appendix II: Informed Consent Form for Study Participants

Background and purpose of the research

My name is Queenter Ondigo, a Post Graduate student at Kenyatta University. I am undertaking research work as part of my studies and the information I gather from you will be used only for academic purposes. The title of this study is **“Effects of Inmate Characteristics and Institutional Capacity on Prison Rehabilitation Outcomes”**

1) Participant Selection

You have been selected to participate in this study because you are a key stakeholder in this community with regard to the effects on prison rehabilitation programmes. It is my judgment therefore that your experiences will contribute much to our understanding of prison rehabilitation programmes and the interventions necessary.

2) Voluntary Participation

Please note that participation in this study is voluntary and you can withdraw at any point.

3) Procedures

You will be subjected to an interview which will consist of questions seeks your views. The process will take about 45 minutes. The interview will be recorded in a questionnaire and notebook.

4) Risks

I will only ask you questions whose answers I will record. There are no foreseen risks or any events that will cause you harm in the process. If for any reason you feel uncomfortable in the course of the interview feel free to share with me or any member of the research team or contacts given below.

5) Benefits

There will be no direct benefits to you from participating in this research. However, the results of this research will help improve rehabilitation outcomes in Kenya Prisons. There will therefore be no payment in form for participation in the study.

6) Confidentiality

The information that you will provide to me will be kept confidential. I will also not identify you by name. This will help to ensure that I protect you by keeping your private information confidential.

7) Contact

If you have any questions, you may contact Dr. Henry Rono (0729163525), Dr. Francis Kerre (0722850975) or the Kenyatta University Ethical Review Committee Secretariat on kuerc.secretary@ku.ac.ke or via telephone (020-8710901).

If you agree to participate in this study, append your signature below which will mean that you have read or you have been explained the above information regarding this study. You may ask for any clarifications.

Signed.....Date.....

Appendix III: Key Informant Interview Guide (Prison)

Effects of Inmate Characteristics and Institutional Capacity on Prison Rehabilitation Outcomes and Necessary Interventions

This study aims at identifying characteristics of the prison inmates and related risks, the influence of those characteristics and institutional capacity on rehabilitation outcomes and necessary intervention measures. I wish to request for your time and accurate response to the questions below. Your response shall be treated with confidentiality. This will help in establishing ways of making rehabilitation of the inmates more effective or responsive to the prevailing challenges

1. Position in the Prison -----
2. Indicate the planned capacity of this institution-----
3. Indicate the overall prison population at this institution-----
4. Indicate the number of the pretrial detainees -----
5. What would be the percentage of those re-convicted -----
6. Indicate the annual institution allocation for the last three financial years
2015 -----
2016-----
2017-----
7. Will you please outline four (4) key programmes (activities or services) in this institution towards rehabilitation of the inmates

8. Will you please indicate the way successful/sustainable rehabilitation has been considered
1) In terms of the policy

2) In terms of the Institutional Operations (Framework)

9. Please outline the outcomes of the rehabilitation programmes (activities or services) at this institution

10. Specifically, indicate the rate of successful rehabilitation of the inmates at this institutions
1) In the last 5 years (2010-2015) -----
2) In the last 3 years (2015-2017) -----
11. Outline three key challenges on the rehabilitation of the inmates at this institutions
1) In the last 5 years (2010-2015)

2) In the last 3 years (2015-2017)

12. Outline the way the characteristics of the inmates have contributed to the challenges related to the rehabilitation of inmates

13. Outline the way the characteristics of the inmates have contributed to improved rate of the rehabilitation of inmates

14. Which specific characteristics have been useful towards successful (or improved rate) of rehabilitation

15. Indicate in a scale of 1 to 4 adequacy of personnel supporting the following aspects of rehabilitation.

Aspects of prison service	None	Not adequate	Adequate	Very adequate
1. Vocational rehabilitation				
2. Formal education				
3. Commercial and Mentorship				
4. Religious rehabilitation sessions				
5. Individual counseling				
6. Peer counseling services				

16. Comment on the adequacy of these personnel-----

17. Indicate in order of importance three challenges that limited (constrained) your rehabilitation in this institution-----

18. Please outline necessary initiatives required to improve the outcomes on the rehabilitation of the prison inmates

1) In terms of the policy -----

2) In terms of resources required -----

3) In terms of the Institutional framework -----

Thanks for your Participation

Appendix IV: Key Informant Interview Guide for Ngo

Effects of Inmate Characteristics and Institutional Capacity on Prison Rehabilitation Outcomes and Necessary Interventions

This study aims at identifying characteristics of the prison inmates, the influence of those characteristics and institutional capacity on rehabilitation outcomes and necessary intervention measures. I wish to request for your time and accurate response to the questions below. Your response shall be treated with confidentiality. This will help in establishing ways of making rehabilitation of the inmates more effective or responsive to the prevailing challenges.

1. Indicate annual budget estimate /allocation for supporting rehabilitation in the last three years
 2015-----
 2016-----
 2017-----
2. Indicate UN recommended standard you are maintaining/pursuing.
3. How does the support reach the inmates?
4. Indicate key rehabilitation programmes in Kenyan prisons that you support.
5. Indicate measures of successful rehabilitation in the Kenya prisons
6. Outline experiences you have with the rehabilitation programs in the Kenya prisons. Outline the ways in which inmate characteristics have contributed to sustained prison rehabilitation programs.
7. Which of these characteristic have been useful towards successful (or improved rate) of rehabilitation.
8. Which of these inmate characteristics have contributed to sustained rehabilitation?

Aspects of prison service	Low impact	Moderate impact	High impact
Gender			#
Age			#
Religion	#		
Education			#
Work experience		#	
Residence	#		

9. Indicate the key challenges affecting rehabilitation programs in Kenya prisons.
10. Outline necessary initiatives/recommendations required to improve the outcomes of rehabilitation programmes in Kenya Prisons.

Appendix V: Prison Inmate's Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gain an insight on the Effects of Inmate Characteristics and Institutional Capacity on Prison Rehabilitation Outcomes and Necessary Interventions. Please note that this is not a test but just information collecting exercise aimed at establishing ways to make rehabilitation of the inmates more effective or responsive to the prevailing challenges. Your contribution in this research is important. Therefore, you are kindly requested to provide the researcher with accurate information. Remember there is no right or wrong answers. Your response will be treated as confidential.

1. Year of conviction (or /placement) to prison -----
2. Expected year of release -----
3. Year of birth -----
4. Gender 1) Female -----2) Male-----
5. Religious affiliation 1) Catholic -----2) Protestant -----3) Muslim -----
4) Any other, specify -----
6. Indicate the status of your residence 1) Rural ----- 2) Peri urban -----
7. 3) Town ----- 4) City----- 5) Any other, specify -----
8. What is your average monthly income prior to incarceration-----
9. Specify your highest level of education -----
10. Specify three key certificates that you have achieved in your education/training career; in order of importance
1) First -----
2) Second -----
3) And third -----
11. Indicate your latest (or recent) occupation -----
12. Specify three key occupations that you have undertaken in your education career; in order of importance
1) First -----
2) Second -----
3) And third -----
13. Indicate with the following how your family has been supporting you (tick appropriately)
Regularly Supportive----- Sometimes Supportive-----
Rarely Supportive----- Never Supportive/Exclusion-----
14. Indicate crime that led to your conviction (placement to prison) -----
15. Will you indicate (or recall) the number of experiences with the following aspects
1) Arrests -----
2) Convictions -----
3) Exposure to rehabilitation -----

16. Indicate on aspect 1 to 11 below, your experience in the scale of 1 to 5 (only one response at a time) for substantial agreement, satisfaction, compliance or access to new knowledge during your stay/rehabilitation at this institution.

	Prerelease Indicators	Low/limited compliance knowledge or access	Moderate/partial compliance knowledge or access	Substantial agreement knowledge or access
1	Witnessed reduction on rules breaking			
2	Participation on rehabilitation plan			
3	Rehabilitation response to key challenges			
4	Key knowledge /skills developed			
5	Experience of access to apprenticeship			
6	Engaged on productive activities			
7	Exposed to employment experience			
8	Engaged with prospective employers			
9	Opportunity to visit family			
10	Experience of release preparation (planning)			
11	Experience of inmates on after release risk reduction			

17. Indicate three key values that you have developed during your present prison term-----

18. Indicate three Key competencies that you have developed during your present prison term

19. Indicate three Key aspects that you have planned to support your livelihood after release from the present prison term

- 1) First aspect ----- Likely percentage of success-----
- 2) Second aspect ----- Likely percentage of success-----
- 3) Second aspect ----- Likely percentage of success-----

20. Indicate the overall possibility (in percentage) of successful livelihood after release from the present prison term -----

21. Indicate the reasons for such possibility -----

22. Indicate three (3) key programmes (or activities) that you attend to support your rehabilitation during your present prison service.

23. Indicate three (3) key programmes (or activities) that would support your livelihood after your release

24. Indicate how often you attend the following aspects during your present prison service (tick the most correct)

Aspects of prison service	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Never
1. Vocational rehabilitation				
2. Formal education				
3. Commercial and Mentorship				
4. Religious rehabilitation sessions				
5. Individual counseling				
6. Peer counseling services				

25. Indicate in a scale of 1 to 4 the way each of these aspects have been useful to your future livelihood during the present prison service (tick the most correct).

Rehabilitation Programmes	Least Useful	Sometimes Useful	Useful	Very useful
1. Vocational rehabilitation				
2. Formal education				
3. Commercial and Mentorship				
4. Religious rehabilitation sessions				
5. Individual counseling				
6. Peer counseling services				

26. Comment on the importance of these aspects to your future livelihood

27. Indicate in order of importance three challenges that limited (constrained) your rehabilitation in this institution-----

28. Indicate in a scale of 1 to 3 for high obstruction to rehabilitation on the following;

Prison Aspects	1 Low Obstruction	2 No Obstruction	3 High Obstruction
Congestion			
Poor sanitation			
Food ratios			
Limited facilities			
Limited personnel			
Poor health			
Stress			
Homesickness			
Limited time allocation			
Corporal Punishment			

29. Suggest in order of importance three (3) key measures that would improve learning/rehabilitation in this institution -----

Appendix VI: Social Welfare Officers and Reseracher at Nairobi West GK Prison



Appendix VII: One of Workshops in Nairobi West GK Prison



Appendix VIII: One of the Horticultural Farm in Nairobi West GK Prison



Appendix VIII: Permits

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MS. QUEENTER ANYANGO ONDIGO
of KENYATTA UNIVERSITY, 5714-100
NAIROBI, has been permitted to conduct
research in Nairobi County

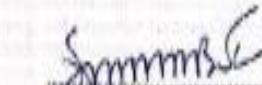
Permit No : NACOSTI/P/18/38893/25048
Date Of Issue : 3rd September, 2018
Fee Received :Ksh 2000

on the topic: EFFECTS OF INMATE
CHARACTERISTICS ON PRISON
REHABILITATION PROGRAMMES, A CASE
OF LANG'ATA WOMEN AND NAIROBI
INDUSTRIAL AREA PRISONS

for the period ending:
3rd September, 2019



Applicant's
Signature



Director General
National Commission for Science,
Technology & Innovation



**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,
TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION**

Telephone: +254-20-2213471.
2241349, 3310571, 2219420
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Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

NACOSTI, Upper Kabete
Off Waiyaki Way
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No. **NACOSTI/P/18/38893/25048**

Date: **3rd September, 2018**

Queenter Anyango Ondigo
Kenyatta University
P.O. Box 43844-00100
NAIROBI.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *“Effects of inmate characteristics on prison rehabilitation programmes. A case of Langata Women and Nairobi Industrial Area Prisons”* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Nairobi County** for the period ending **3rd September, 2019.**

You are advised to report to **the Commissioner General of Prisons, the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Nairobi County** before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit a **copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.


**BONIFACE WANYAMA
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO**

Copy to:

The Commissioner General of Prisons

The County Commissioner
Nairobi County.

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR & CO ORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT
KENYA PRISONS

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PRISONS HEADQUARTERS
P.O.BOX 30175-00100
NAIROBI

PRIS 10/18/VOL.VIII/6

Queenter Anyango Ondigo
P.o Box 5714- 00100
Nairobi

Date 11/9/2018

Quante
0721-256460
0701-050712

**RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH PROJECT AT LANGATA WOMEN
NAIROBI REMAND & NAIROBI WEST**

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "*Effects of inmate characteristics on Prison Rehabilitation Programmes. A Case of Langata Women, Nairobi Remand Prison & Nairobi West.*" I wish to inform you that your request to conduct a research at the above institutions has been approved by the Commissioner General of Prisons.

For the period you will carry out your research, you will be expected to abide by the Rules and Regulations as laid down by the Kenya Prisons service.

Upon completion of your research for three weeks from 4th to 11th September 2018 Nairobi Remand, from 11th to 18th September 2018 at Langata Women Prison, & from 19th to 25th September at Nairobi West you will be required to submit two copies of your report one to this office and another to the officer in Charge, Nairobi Remand Prison and Langata Women Prison..

By a copy of this letter, the officers in charge are requested to accord you the necessary assistance.

Thank you and good luck in your research.

MARY N. KHAEMBA

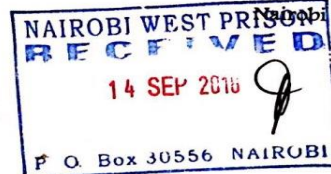
MARY KHAEMBA, (DIR OFFENDER CORRECTION AND REHABILITATION)
FOR: COMMISSIONER GENERAL OF PRISONS

CC:

The Officer in charge
Nairobi Remand Prison
P.o Box 18554
Nairobi

The Officer in Charge
Langata Women Prison
P.o Box 44679

The Officer in Charge
Nairobi West Prison
P.o Box 30556





KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

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Tel: 8710901/12

Our Ref: KU/ERC/ APPROVAL/VOL.1 (220)

Date: 21st November, 2018

Queenter Ondigo
P.O Box 43844-00100
NAIROBI

Dear Queenter,

APPLICATION NUMBER: PKU/933/1991 "EFFECTS OF INMATE CHARACTERISTICS ON PRISON REHABILITATION PROGRAMMES. A CASE OF LANGATA WOMEN, NAIROBI WEST AND NAIROBI INDUSTRIAL AREA PRISONS.

1. IDENTIFICATION OF PROTOCOL

The application before the committee is with a research topic "**Effects Of Inmate Characteristics On Prison Rehabilitation Programmes. A Case Of Langata Women, Nairobi West And Nairobi Industrial Area Prisons.**" received on 30th October, 2018 and discussed on 20th November, 2018

2. APPLICANT

Queenter Ondigo

3. SITE

Langata Women, Nairobi West and Nairobi Industrial Area Prisons.

4. DECISION

The committee has considered the research protocol in accordance with the Kenya University Research Policy (section 7.2.1.3) and the Kenya University Ethics Review Committee Guidelines and **APPROVED** that the research may proceed for a period of **ONE** year from 20th November , 2018.

Thanks for your support